

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria  
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research  
University of Frères Mentouri Constantine 1  
Faculty of Letters and Languages  
Department of Letters and English language

**The Effect of Using Monolingual English Learners'  
Dictionaries on EFL Students' In-depth Vocabulary knowledge**

The Case of 2<sup>nd</sup> Year Students OF English at the University of Frères Mentouri  
Constantine 1

Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English language in  
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**By:** Miss. BENZITOUNI Amina Ouafa

**Supervisor:** Prof. KAOUACHE Salah

**Board of Examiners**

**Chairman:** Prof. HAROUNI Zahri

University of Frères Mentouri Constantine

**Supervisor:** Prof. Kaouache Salah

University of Frères Mentouri Constantine

**Member:** Prof. BELOUAHEM Ryad

University of Frères Mentouri Constantine

**Member:** Prof. KESKES Said

University of Setif

**Member:** DR. Boukrika Ammar

University of Jijel

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## **Dedication**

*To my Family*

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## **Abstract**

Vocabulary learning is an important aspect in language learning. Learning new words is a primary concern for most EFL students. However, improving word knowledge is a complex activity. As a result, many EFL students depend on English-English dictionaries, paper and electronic, to improve their vocabulary knowledge. The previous years knew a burgeoning of many modern dictionaries that use large corpora; consequently, making the dictionary an essential means in EFL learning and teaching with regard to the first generation of dictionaries. The purpose of this study is to investigate students and teachers attitudes towards the use of modern language dictionaries. To achieve this two questionnaires were administered to nineteen teachers and eighty second year students of English at the University of Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1. In addition, an experiment was carried out to examine the effect of using monolingual English learners' dictionaries in electronic and paper form on students' in-depth vocabulary knowledge. Specifically, this experiment used a dimensional approach to investigate the degree to which students improved the in depth knowledge of 08 target words, through using English monolingual learners dictionaries, in both print and electronic form, while reading a text. The results show that EFL students' in depth vocabulary knowledge improves when they use their dictionaries, namely electronic ones. Thus, using dictionaries as a learning tool deserves more attention in the context of EFL learning and teaching.

**Key Words:** Vocabulary Knowledge, Dictionary, Electronic Dictionary.

## **List of Abbreviations**

E.D.G. Electronic Dictionary Group

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

MLD: Modern Language Dictionary

N.D.G. No Dictionary Group

P.D.G. Paper Dictionary Group

VLS: Vocabulary Learning Strategies

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## **General Introduction**

### **1. Statement of the Problem**

Reading is an important means by which students of English as a foreign language learn new vocabulary words. However, developing vocabulary knowledge through reading is not an easy activity. Making erroneous inferences that lead to incorrect learning is among the major problems EFL learners face when developing their vocabulary through reading. Moreover, if the meaning of new vocabulary items is grasped, still, learners may not be able to pronounce, spell, or use those words correctly. It is common for students to think that once they learn the meaning and spelling of a word, the job of learning that word is done. However, making a link between form and meaning is just the first step in vocabulary learning. In building vocabulary one needs to make sure that each word is learned and understood thoroughly.

EFL students should be given enough information on words to help them avoid mistakes in their use of the foreign language. This information is presented in most of learners' dictionaries that provide learners with valuable data in every aspect of language. Many electronic dictionaries are also now available in a variety of formats as CD-ROM dictionaries and online dictionaries. They are all said to be innovative, user-friendly and providing information on current English.

Previous research on the effects of dictionary use on vocabulary knowledge has failed to produce a clear image that describes it. Until now, most studies have generally targeted paper dictionaries and have looked at the size of vocabulary (breadth) ignoring the other aspects of word knowledge (depth). That is why, this research work seeks to examine the

effects of using monolingual English learners' dictionaries in electronic and paper form on students' in-depth word knowledge.

## **2. Purpose and Significance of the Study**

The dictionary has always been a valuable learning means by teachers and students, mainly EFL students. The previous decades knew a burgeoning of many modern dictionaries that use large corpora, consequently making the dictionary an essential means in EFL learning and teaching with regard to the first generation of dictionaries.

Regardless of all the previous studies on dictionaries, more research is badly needed in this field especially if we take into account that only a small proportion of studies are concerned with dictionary use at university settings (Hartmann, 1999). Moreover, thorough studies on the role dictionaries play in improving students' vocabulary knowledge are important especially when EFL learners increasingly depend on new types of reference materials such as electronic dictionaries.

The purpose of this study, with teachers and second year students of English at the university of Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1 as subjects, is to investigate learners' attitudes towards dictionary use (their preferences, habits, skills, problems, and training on dictionary use) and to examine teachers' views about vocabulary learning, dictionaries, and students' dictionary use in classrooms. In addition, this research seeks to examine the effects of using monolingual English learners' dictionaries in electronic and paper form on students' in-depth vocabulary knowledge.

Shedding light on such a topic may hopefully lead to a number of recommendations that may help university instructors emphasize the use of dictionaries whether printed or



electronic in learning English as a foreign language and incorporate them into their lessons, or to give advice to students on their use as stated by Hartmann (1999): “Research into dictionary use should provide lexicographic production, and more research will be needed if the level of dictionary awareness is to be raised and the teaching of reference skill to be improved” (p. 37).

### **3. Research Questions**

Specifically, this study addresses the following research questions:

1. Are students and teachers aware of and make use of the information provided by dictionaries?
2. What effects do dictionaries have on students' in depth vocabulary knowledge?
3. Which dictionary' type, paper or electronic, leads to better in depth vocabulary knowledge development?

### **4. Research Hypotheses**

On the basis of the above research questions, it can be hypothesized that:

1. If students used monolingual English dictionaries while reading, their in depth vocabulary knowledge would improve.
2. If students used electronic monolingual English dictionaries while reading, their in depth vocabulary knowledge would improve better than while using paper dictionaries.

## **5. Research Methodology**

There are several approaches to gathering information concerning learning strategies depending on the specific research questions, the reliability and validity of the instrument as well as time constraints. Previous studies on dictionary use and vocabulary learning used various investigative procedures, such as written questionnaires, interviews, observations, think-aloud methods, diaries and journals, and computer tracking. From this wide range of procedures, a structured written questionnaire, and an experiment were chosen as the main investigative techniques for this research.

This study is conducted at the Department of Letters and English language, University of Frères Mentouri Constantine 1, Algeria. The participants are teachers and second year students of English during the second semester of the academic year 2012-2013.

The students, in their questionnaire, are asked about vocabulary learning/teaching, dictionary ownership, monolingual dictionary use, difficulties of dictionary use, and dictionary instruction. Teacher questionnaire includes questions about teachers' attitudes towards the importance of vocabulary in language, students' problems with vocabulary learning, the different techniques teachers use when teaching vocabulary and their attitudes towards using dictionaries in vocabulary learning. It also investigates teachers' beliefs about students' use of dictionaries in class and their difficulties in using dictionaries and training them reference skills.

This study also uses a quasi-experimental design (the participants in the study belong to specific groups and are not selected randomly). The investigation is carried out with three groups; group 1 (no dictionary group), group 2 (paper dictionary group), and group 3

(electronic dictionary group). Its aim is to examine whether there will be any differences in students' in-depth vocabulary knowledge under the three conditions.

## **6. Structure of the Study**


This thesis is divided into two parts: theoretical and practical. The theoretical part presents a synthesized review of the literature concerning dictionaries and vocabulary learning/teaching orderly. The practical part is devoted to the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the results of the carried questionnaires and experiment. Chapter one concentrates on reviewing literature on dictionaries. It deals with the history of dictionaries, lexicography and pedagogical lexicography, dictionary typology, learners' reference needs and difficulties in using dictionaries as well as the skills and the training needed for effective dictionary use. Chapter two deals with vocabulary terminology, the different aspects of vocabulary knowledge, the importance of vocabulary knowledge in language learning, and implicit vs. explicit vocabulary learning. This chapter also deals with the different vocabulary learning strategies and dictionary use in vocabulary learning. Chapter three and four aim at introducing and describing the learners and teacher questionnaires in addition to their results and discussions. Chapter five is devoted to the presentation of the experiment and the analysis of its results. Finally, the thesis ends with a set of recommendations that were reached on the basis of the results obtained and might be taken into account to improve the learning/teaching situation.

## **Part One: Literature Review**

### **Chapter one: Literature on Dictionary Use**

#### **Part One: The Literature Review**

#### **Chapter One: Literature on dictionaries**

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## **Introduction**

A wide range of dictionaries is available in English, and undoubtedly this has a great share on its status as a world language. The teaching and learning of English surely draw on this rich variety of these lexicographical works. However, many EFL learners face many lexical problems. This situation may be a result of the unawareness of most of the modern dictionaries, the way to use them and the benefits they endow with. This chapter will explore the wider field of lexicography, in general, and pedagogical lexicography, in particular, and survey the different types of dictionaries available to EFL learners. It will also include a discussion of the problems encountered by EFL learners while using dictionaries and the skills needed to be acquired by learners and taught by teachers.

### **1.2. The Dictionary**

Kirkness (2004) defines the dictionary as a book containing the words of any language, with information about their meaning, pronunciation, etymology, and uses. Another definition of dictionary by Zgusta, states that it is an assembly of the linguistic forms that are spoken by the people of a particular community, along with their meanings in a form that can be simply understood by the reader (Zgusta, 1993). Similarly, Svensén (1993) describes the dictionary as an arrangement of the meanings of the words used by a specific group of people. It contains all the information that is related to a word as its origin, history, usage, pronunciation, etc.

However, these definitions given for the term dictionary do not enfold the real significance of the word. They merely refer to monolingual dictionaries that provide the meanings and other aspects of the vocabulary of a specific language. An accurate and a clear

definition of a dictionary might be given only after considering three, formal, functional, and substantive, principles (Sterkenburg, 2003).

The first principle is primarily concerned with the form in which the dictionary is presented (electronic vs. printed). In a printed dictionary, the content is written on a paper while in an electronic dictionary, the content is contained in a file document despite both forms may be based on similar conventions and have the same contents (ibid).

The functional criterion states that the advantages provided by the dictionary are different. A dictionary is commonly thought to offer an overall guidance about a specific language (ibid). However, Languages are neither distinct nor homogeneous entities; they change over time, and they differ with factors like place and social classes. A great deal of this difference is lexical. Hence, it might not be possible for one dictionary to cover all the varieties and registers of a language in a single dictionary. For instance, if a word is very technical or scientific, then it cannot be represented in any kind of dictionaries. The largest dictionaries include up to 300,000 entries. Nevertheless, they are in no way exhaustive. It is also impossible to find a thorough description of the integrated ones. That is why, there are dictionaries which exclusively address certain properties as pronunciation, words origins, synonyms, and biology, or translation, etc. (ibid).

The substantive criterion states that headwords in a dictionary must be represented in an appropriate style. The different meanings of a word are to be given in a concise and precise way so that there is no ambiguity left in its meaning or usage. Therefore a dictionary can be defined as a prototypical lexicon that may be represented in printed or electronic form which helps in providing knowledge to the reader about particular information and assisting in preserving the purity of language (Sterkenburg, 2003).

### **1.3. History of Dictionaries**

Dictionaries have a long history. The first dictionaries were bilingual. They were designed to facilitate communication between people with different tongues. An Italian-German word list designed in 1447 for travelling purposes is thought to be the oldest bilingual dictionary. In the first century AD in Greece, understanding the versified eventful legends of their ancestors as the Iliad and the Odyssey was a complex task; the aim was to make a possible diachronic form of communication. So, scholars decided to include lists of explanations of the difficult expressions to their books (from old Greek into Modern Greek); these are considered the first monolingual dictionaries (Green, 1996).

In the middle Ages, wordlists became independent of the books. Then, by the end of the fifteenth century, dictionaries turned out to be a common tool; multilingual dictionaries were available in print; François Garon's dictionary (five languages in 1526 and eight languages in 1546) was very popular. Jacopo Strada, a scholar in archeology, died in 1588 whilst working on an eleven-language dictionary (Hale, 1994). In the Renaissance, during the revival of classical Latin, a mass of Latin, Greek and Hebraic bilingual dictionaries were printed. These dictionaries were mostly used by students eager to study classical Latin and to decode classical and biblical texts (ibid).

A noteworthy change in lexicography was in 1612, when the Florentine Accademia della Crusca published a comprehensive list, The Crusca Vocabolario, of all the words that its members assumed to be genuinely Italian, for political and sociological purposes. At that time, dictionaries became symbolic appertain, intended primarily to be owned and not to be used. As Collison (1982, p.18) puts it:



Spirit of nationalism has often proved a driving force in the making of dictionaries. Scholars were quick to recognize that the compilation of a reliable and comprehensive dictionary was one sign of the achievement of their country's maturity, just as the lack of grammars and dictionaries indicated the dominance of a foreign power or the weakness of a truly national feeling.

The first English learners' dictionary, "the New Method English Dictionary", appeared in 1935(Béjoint, 2000). After, in 1947 Hornby published "The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English". With this dictionary, Hornby tried to reinstate the dictionary's main function which is the explanation of unknown words (Osselton, 1983).

Many years after, several learners' dictionaries became widely spread. These dictionaries made use of large corpora for information on the latest developments in language use, thus making the dictionary an important tool in EFL teaching and learning. Since the introduction of corpus-based lexicography in 1980, dictionary making knew deep changes and became very vigorous and competitive. Publishers have shifted focus from the dictionaries to the users. Users' reference skills and needs in using dictionaries became badly taken into account and the new learners' dictionaries included many innovations which are claimed to be user-oriented, such as defining vocabulary, and indications of word frequency (Rundell, 1999). It was "clear that these products have proved highly responsive in both design and content to the needs and demands of their users, and have consequently improved much faster and more comprehensively than any other type of dictionary" (ibid, p.42). Then, it was clear that the subsequent phase in dictionary development would be dominated by the computer. Working with computers and Internet has become part of daily life, and electronic dictionaries are progressively substituting their papers counterparts (Cowie, 1999).

#### **1.4. Lexicography and Pedagogical Lexicography**

Lexicography is neither a branch of applied linguistics nor a branch of lexicology (Wiegand, 1984). According to Svensén (1993), lexicographers consider their work as an art or a craft more than a science. This does not eliminate the scientific qualities of lexicography, but it reveals the practical skills, as being a good definer and a good businessman too, their work depends on.

Lexicology is the scientific study of word meanings and forms. It deals with the historical development of words, their social stratification, their composition and the way in which subfields are determined as “terminology of cooking” and “verbs of movement”, etc. In contrast, lexicography intends to assemble lexical items in a dictionary for a specific purpose and a specific group of users (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005).

The notion of “user perspective” was first used by Zgusta (1971). He puts forward that dictionary-makers are supposed to design dictionaries intended for a specific type of users, taking into account their specific needs and reference skills, i.e. with regards to the type and place of the users, plus the problems they may come across when using the dictionary (ibid). That is why, research is considered necessary to discover the purpose and kinds of dictionaries readers utilize and find out the complications that hamper their effective use of dictionaries (Hulstijn & Atkins, 1998).

Tarp (2008) broadens the notion of “user perspective” to the field of pedagogical lexicography, a branch of lexicography which deals with dictionaries for learners of a language, and maintained that a learner’s dictionary is a dictionary whose actual function is to meet learners needs in various situations in foreign language learning. Specifically, it aims to help learners with both the comprehension and production of the foreign language (Jain,

1981). The purpose of learners' English dictionaries is shown up clearly by this quotation from Summers (1999) who states that:

When conceptualizing new dictionaries for learners of English, we begin with the assumption that learners want to know and learn about natural spoken language. We assume that they want to understand spoken English in order to converse with their own age group if they visit the UK or the US; that they want to communicate with other non-native speakers of English using English as a modern lingua franca as they travel round the world; or that they want to be able to use spoken English in their adult life, whether by giving a paper at a conference in English or by taking part in business meetings or telephone calls (p. 258).

According to Tsai (1993), five main characteristics of learner's dictionaries are distinguished. They include

1. The selection of words according to their frequency and usefulness
2. The use of limited vocabulary and textual clearness in definitions
3. The discrimination of the various senses of the headword
4. The provision of details on collocations, grammatical coding, phonetic transcription, and stylistic information
5. The lack or absence of historical-etymological information

In addition, due to technological developments, recently, electronic dictionaries "have opened up new possibilities with respect to what can be put into dictionaries, how their contents are organized, and how dictionaries can be tailored to serve the needs of ESL users" (McAlpine & Myles, 2003, p. 72).

## **1.5. Current Lexicographical Tools in EFL •**

The spreading out of teaching English as a foreign language all over the world since the Second World War has created a lucrative market for learners' dictionaries (Béjoint,

2000). The field of English pedagogical lexicography has manifested a rapid technological advance and innovative developments that took into account users' needs and teachers' and lexicographers' suggestions (Kirkness, 2004) as the limitation of the entries to just the most important vocabulary and the full clarification of these entries with pronunciation indicated by phonetic transcription, grammatical information, explanation of idioms, use of examples, and meaning expressed in trouble-free words (Béjoint, 2000).

Besides the fact that learners' dictionaries are available for all levels, there are various specialized dictionaries of collocation, pronunciation, phrasal verbs and idioms. More to the point, many technical learners' dictionaries for specific areas as business, economy and computing, encyclopedic learners' dictionaries, and learners' thesauruses are also on hand. The bilingualized dictionary, which is a monolingual dictionary with translations into students' native language, is a recent development in pedagogical lexicography too (Béjoint, 2000).

Owing to the publication of countless new titles every year, the strong competition among publishers and the constant technological advance, EFL learners have a density in reference materials. Consequently, there is an urgent need to raise awareness of current lexicographical resources, since the user of English can gain much from being thoroughly familiar with them.

## **1.6. Dictionary Typology**

The dictionary is considered as one of the antique and popular books in literate societies (Kirkness, 2004). Dictionaries of various sorts for various reasons are produced (Béjoint, 2000). Many researchers have tried to categorize dictionary types, but the task was not viable (Hartmann, 2001). Swanepoel (2003) assumes that dictionaries can be classified

into different kinds on the basis of users needs since new demands lead to the creation of new types of dictionaries.

In the view of Zgusta, an obvious distinction between the dictionary and the encyclopedia should be made. The dictionary provides information about a particular word whereas an encyclopedia is consulted for getting information about an event or an entity. Additionally, the number of languages used must be clearly mentioned. It should also be mentioned whether the language belongs to the present time or some other era (old or modern), and the areas to which the dictionary is restricted (dialects) (ibid).

Despite the fact that there is no specific categorization of all types of dictionaries, some distinctions seem practical (Hartmann, 2001).

Li & Zhon (2001) categorize dictionaries in different ways as follows:

1. **Contents:** philological dictionaries, encyclopedic dictionaries, and special dictionaries.
2. **Scope of words collected and the information of the vocabulary provided:** general- purposes dictionaries and specialized dictionaries.
3. **Language involved:** monolingual dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries, and multi-lingual dictionaries.
4. **History periods involved:** diachronic dictionaries and synchronic dictionaries.
5. **Size:** unabridged dictionaries, desk dictionaries, and pocket dictionaries.
6. **Service objects:** foreigners' dictionaries and natives dictionaries.
7. **Arrangement of entries:** systematic dictionaries and alphabetical dictionaries.

8. **Medium:** paper dictionaries and electronic dictionaries. Furthermore, electronic dictionaries can be divided into three types: pocket dictionaries, CD-ROM dictionaries, and online dictionaries.

In this thesis, only types relevant to our study will be reviewed.

### **1.6.1. Monolingual, Bilingual, and Bilingualised Dictionaries**

Nation (2001) classifies dictionaries into four types: monolingual, bilingual, multilingual and bilingualised. Using either monolingual dictionary or bilingual dictionary has always been a subject of controversy among researchers. Teachers and learners have different views for the different types of dictionaries; while students like electronic bilinguals for immediate satisfaction and rapidity, teachers prefer paper monolinguals for long-term benefits (Koren, 1997).

Potter et al, (1984) introduce the notions of word association model and concept association model in order to clarify the semantic representation of the words in EFL learners' minds. In the word association model, words are learned through first language words i.e. they are associated with first language translations. In contrast, in the concept association model, second language words are learned through the concepts themselves. Kroll & Curley (1988) argue that both models exist, and learners tend to move from the word association model (bilingual dictionary use) to the concept association model (monolingual dictionary use) as their proficiency increases.

Although bilingual dictionaries are not designed for learners, they become learners' dictionaries by the force of practice. The majority of advanced learners own and consult bilingual rather than monolingual dictionaries (Baxter, 1980). Atkins & Knowles (1990)

survey (in seven countries) reveal that learners use bilingual dictionaries more than monolingual ones. Again, Atkins & Varantola (1997) discover that most EFL learners prefer bilingual dictionaries over monolingual dictionaries and found that 71% of the participants' look-ups were in bilingual dictionaries, whereas 28% only were in monolingual ones. Nesi (2003) and Laufer & Kimmel (1997) argue that learners are aware that monolingual dictionaries are more useful; but they complain their overloaded information and that is why they overuse bilingual dictionaries.

According to Nation (2001) bilingual dictionaries are useful for understanding meaning easily: they can be used when writing or speaking in the target language whereas a vocabulary of at least 2,000 words is needed to understand the definitions when using a monolingual dictionary. In addition, the helpful information existing in the front and back of the bilingual dictionary is better understood because it is usually in the learners' native language. Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus (1996) prove also that the vocabulary gained by advanced learners when using printed bilingual dictionaries increased. Likewise, Lupescu & Days (1993) find that bilingual dictionaries can considerably improve learners' vocabulary apart from the words with numerous entries, which are somehow confusing.

Despite these findings, Cowie (1999, p. 184) mentions that some learners prefer to use monolingual dictionaries, even they do not find them helpful, to imitate their teachers who generally consult monolingual dictionaries. Accordingly, "a wide gap often exists between a student's perception of the dictionary's value and its actual usefulness as an aid to learning".

Nation (2001) maintains that bilingual dictionaries have been disapproved of as they encourage translation, foster one-to-one word correspondence between two languages, and provide little information on words usage. Similarly, Schmitt & McCarthy (1997) stress that bilingual dictionaries are misleading since languages often do not have direct equivalents.

Moreover, Jakubowski (2001) reveal a strong preference for the monolingual dictionary especially in reading, listening and speaking tasks.

Horsfall (1996) argues that, the monolingual dictionary is a helpful learning resource for the EFL learners if used properly. Being in a non-native environment, unawareness and confusions about the right meaning, pronunciation, stress and how to use words in context are very frequent. As EFL learners cannot at all times ask their teachers on all these aspects of word knowledge they wish to learn, monolingual dictionaries can help.

The latest choice available besides monolingual and bilingual dictionaries is the semibilingual dictionary, known as the hybrid or bilingualized dictionary. Bilingualized dictionaries provide learners with L2 definitions and L1 translation, in the case of looking up words in L2; and only the translation plus production information in the case of looking up words in L1 (Pujol et al, 2006).

This grouping of L2 definitions and L1 equivalents are claimed to be the advantage of bilingualized dictionaries. Bilingualized dictionaries incorporate the positive features of both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. Learners using bilingualized dictionaries can engross in the foreign language, along with support from their native language. In this way, they are encouraged to read words explanations in the foreign language, while the translation provides a psychological reassurance that supports understanding and avoid confusion. Then by time, learners steadily learn to operate in L2 without the L1 barrier (Laufer, 1995). Unlike bilingual dictionaries, hybrid dictionaries provide only a few translations in each entry in addition to the accurate meaning and usage of the word in L2. Therefore, full understanding is achieved (Koren, 1997).



Laufer & Aviad (2006) study the usefulness of a bilingualized dictionary in comparison with four other dictionaries by seventy five Israeli students. Hebrew-English-English electronic dictionary, Hebrew- English-English paper dictionary, English-English-Hebrew bilingualized dictionary, and Hebrew-English bilingual dictionary were used. The results demonstrated that the bilingualized dictionary was more effective and preferred by the participants.

### **1.6.2. Dictionaries for Learners and for Native Speakers**

Dictionaries are widely used both by learners and natives. In the view of Bilash, Gregoret & Loewen (1999) “dictionaries are the instruments of lifelong learning; it is to them that we turn to revive our second language skills and to enhance our native vocabulary” (p.4). While native and learners dictionaries appear to be alike, there exist significant differences between them. The users and the uses of the dictionaries are generally the cause of these differences.

Native speakers’ dictionaries are mainly used for decoding purposes. Natives generally refer to dictionaries to check difficult low-frequency words meaning or spelling, generally technical and scientific terms, dated literary vocabulary, and foreign loans, in the course of specialized reading. For that reason, unlike learner’s dictionaries native dictionaries are usually exhaustive and provide detailed information on usage and etymology (Tsai, 1993).

In opposition, the words in learners’ dictionaries are explained in a simple language and, thus, detailed and long definitions along with many examples of usage or style and register labels are presented. This results in a lower number of dictionary entries. Most learners’ dictionaries also lack information on etymology or hint to it only (Mac Farquhar & Richards, 1983 cited in Nation, 1990). Another characteristic of most learners’ dictionaries is

the limited vocabulary, the defining vocabulary found in the appendices, used in writing definitions. This defining vocabulary is restricted to just about two or three thousand words. Although the idea of the defining vocabulary is that the learner will be familiarized with all the words and consequently will understand all the definitions. However, Cohen (1990) argues that learner's dictionaries lack complex vocabulary or have simple definitions that may confuse the user. In addition, learners with very poor vocabulary could still have difficulty reading the dictionary.

### **1.6.3. Electronic and Printed Dictionaries**

Nesi (1998) categorizes dictionaries into two forms of presentation: paper dictionaries and electronic dictionaries. An electronic dictionary is "Any material reference memorized in electronic form which gives information on the spelling, the sense and the use of words." (Nesi, 2000, p. 839). Unlike paper dictionaries, electronic ones are found in CD ROMS, handheld devices and cell phones (Nesi, 1999).

Though many studies claim that the paper dictionary is a useful tool for learners who find the list of lexical items of a language put in an alphabetical order with information about spelling, pronunciation, grammar, and meaning in plain language and with example sentences that show how the words are used in practice, other studies identified a general unwillingness to consult the reference book at all too (Stevens, 1987). For example, many learners find the paper dictionaries troublesome, demanding a lot of time in the process of word search (Nesi, 2000) which reflected doubts about learners' ability to cope successfully with their dictionaries,

With studies showing how unskilled and uninformed learners are in using their paper dictionaries, lexicographers produced electronic dictionaries. Many electronic dictionaries are

now available in a variety of formats: hand-held pocket dictionaries, CD-ROM dictionaries, and Internet or online dictionaries and even cell-phone dictionaries. They are all prided on being innovative, learner-friendly and giving learners' information on most current English (Nesi, 1999).

One explanation for the shift from the paper dictionary to the electronic dictionary is the fact that the electronic dictionary is more capacious. Concerning the storage space i.e. the space needed for storing words and their meanings), there are no limits in electronic dictionaries, whereas, the storage space in paper dictionaries is determined by the number of volumes, layout, weight, and several other factors. Another advantage of electronic dictionaries is that they permit users to make cross references without leaving the page that the user is viewing. This characteristic of instant cross reference is absent in paper dictionaries (Lew, 2007, p. 344).

In addition, the electronic dictionary has further features which make it popular and appealing than the paper dictionary. A perceptible advantage of the electronic dictionary over is the easiness and simplicity of use whereas, it takes a lot of time and training to develop printed dictionary' reference skills. For example, one study of international students in England found that in every fifth attempt half of the learners who used paper dictionaries were unsuccessful to find dictionary entries (Nesi & Hail 2002).

The electronic dictionary also provides other new options. For instance, the ability to actually hear words rather than interpret complex phonetic transcriptions is a good solution to pronunciation problems. Moreover, several recent electronic dictionaries are hybrids, including features of encyclopaedias, pedagogic grammars and teaching materials (File, 1999).

On the other hand, the traditional paper dictionary is still extensively used. They are unproblematic and easy to use. Everything you need is good vision, familiarity with the alphabetical order, and knowledge of the organization of sub-entries and information under the dictionary entry. Additionally, the nature of a printed dictionary imposes a slow browsing speed. Finding anything in a printed dictionary demands a lengthy process. In such way, information is absorbed. Lastly, the fact of reading a book is a good academic experience. (Hartmann, 1999)

### **1.7. Dictionaries and Learners**

Different learners prefer to use different types of dictionaries. In their study, Atkins & Varantola (1998) state that the percentage of learners preferring bilingual dictionaries decreased with proficiency, from 88% for lowest proficiency level to 60% for highest proficiency students. With growing competence in the second language, learners increasingly turn to monolingual dictionaries because they turn to use dictionaries for decoding purposes. Likewise, high-proficiency students investigated by Neubach & Cohen (1988) prefer the monolingual dictionary for their more precise meanings of words. Cowie (1999) states that learners' skills get better with the increasing proficiency and that "among the most sophisticated language users, constant movement from one reference resource to another is the rule rather than the exception" (p.187). Moreover, a study by Laufer & Hadar (1997) indicated that pre advanced learners preferred using bilingual dictionaries in both comprehension and production, as opposed to advanced learners who preferred using monolingual dictionaries.

Concerning the relationship between the frequency of dictionary consultation and learners, the findings are opposing. Wingate (2002), for example, notices that dictionary use

frequency increased with level. Similarly, Jakubowski (2001) finds the frequency of use to be higher for students of higher proficiency level. Other studies, however, revealed a reverse tendency, with lower proficiency users tending to use their dictionaries more frequently. Tomaszczyk (1987) observes learners reluctance to use dictionaries at all and report that many successful language learners in his study had never used any dictionaries. Atkins & Varantola (1998) monitor dictionary use in translation by a group of 71 EFL speakers and find no constant pattern across the range of language skills in their sample. Intermediate users registered the highest rates of dictionary use, while beginners appeared to have consulted their dictionaries the least. Advanced users ranked between the intermediate group and the beginners.

Additionally, Neubach & Cohen (1988) assume that students who are good at guessing from context are generally efficient dictionary users. They claim that the dictionary cannot help the more skilled readers who will most likely not need to use the dictionary frequently, since their comprehension skills (knowledge of lexis and syntax, guessing in context) are already well developed.

Learners' interests in the different types of information also tend to differ with their proficiency level, with the proficient users using most of dictionary information more than the less proficient students in particular definitions, pronunciation, frequency, and appropriateness and regarded them as helpful (Fan, 2003).

## 1.8. Reference Needs

Dictionaries are reference books which can be used as a learning aid. That is why; Dictionaries should meet users' needs and preferences. Reference needs or dictionary user needs refer to the circumstances where dictionaries are needed (Thumb, 2004).

### 1.8.1. Situations of Use

A situation of dictionary use is using a dictionary communicatively i.e. looking up words with the aim of learning something we do not know or we are not sure of. Wiegand differentiates between look-ups forced by lack of lexical knowledge required in communication as reading and writing, and other specific look-ups as dictionaries analysis. He further distinguishes the following aspects of dictionary use: the user, the circumstance of use (e.g. reading), the cause of the look-up (e.g. ignorance of the meaning of a lexical item), the immediate motive (e.g. the lack of comprehension of a word in a text), the time, place, duration and manner of the look-up, the question with which one turns to a dictionary, the look-up action, the information looked for, and the consequence of the look-up. (Wiegand, 1998 cited in Tarp 2009).

Tarp (2009) uses the expression usage instead of use and distinguished two situations of dictionary use: the **extra-lexicographical situation** where the need to consult a dictionary occurs for a potential user **and the usage situation** where an actual user takes action to achieve a purpose consulting a dictionary .

### 1.8.2. The Information Searched For

The outstanding similarity regarding the results of studies of information categories consulted in dictionaries was the preference for semantic information (summers, 1988). "the

dictionary user's overwhelming preoccupation with meaning" (Cowie, 1999,p.181) was proved by many studies that found word meaning to be the information category often searched by learners as (Hartmann 1999, Jakubowski 2001, and Wingate 2002).

The greatest part of learners "still have a perception of the dictionary [...] which is far from "instrumental", treating it as 'a storehouse of meanings rather than a resource for developing [language] activities" (Marello, cited in Cowie 1999, p. 182).

Bejoint (1981) questionnaire with French students of English at Lyon University findings reveals that Meaning was the information most searched (87%). Then came syntactic information (53%), synonyms (52%), spelling and pronunciation (25%), language variety (19%), and etymology (5%). Chi & Yeung (1998) also found that the most searched for feature in learners dictionaries is meaning. A think-aloud study by Neubach & Cohen (1988) reveals that EFL learners read the first definition only when referring to monolingual dictionaries as they think all the rest are just examples whereas participants in Wingate (2002) study claimed that overcrowded entries are the cause of this habit.

Al-Darayseh (2013) concludes from his study at Al-Imam Mohammad Bin Saud University in Saudi Arabia that students most often use their dictionaries to check out the meanings of words, followed by spelling, and then pronunciation. The least consulted information categories were stylistic usage and abbreviations and transitivity of verbs.

Although the largest part of EFL learners consult definitions mostly, these definitions frequently fall short of the learners' expectations. Heuberger argues that "from the various information categories presented in a learners' dictionary, definitions are certainly among the most unsatisfactory and disputable ones" (2000, p. 16).

Aside from the indisputable ascendancy of semantic information, it is difficult to order the other types of information, spelling is an exception as it is automatically provided in dictionary entries and hence frequently consulted, as gathering such data is complicated. For example, synonyms and antonyms received 72% in (Quirk, 1974) study and only 14% in (Greenbaum, Meyer & Taylor, 1984) study which was a replication of Quirk study (Lew, 2002).

Pronunciation is also essential to EFL learners because they do not have the opportunity to practise the language with native speakers and in a natural environment (Gimson, 1981.) Pronunciation has attracted little interest and was overlooked and ignored by learners (Chi & Yeung, 1998). Learners seem to find the symbols complex and decoding them time consuming. So, they prefer to guess the pronunciation from the spelling (Nisbet, 1994). Fraser (1997) states that this problem is due to users' unwillingness to consult the introductory pages.

Style labels that provide information about words special' uses are usually ignored by learners and seen to tax users needlessly with more work (Herbst, 1996). However, Cowie (1999) states that lexicographers insist on informing users of words which carry negative implications as taboo and informal words. That is why, labels are often presented in the introductory pages, in a special column in the front cover, or under abbreviations.

Other studies proved that EFL learners showed interest in culture specific information and found out that users need help from their dictionaries. Béjoint (1981) argues that the cultural content found in learners' dictionaries is low and that learners usually search for proper names of people and places and expect dictionaries to provide culture-specific information.



Howarth (1996) believes that collocations are of the least sought information categories as students were ignorant of the notion of collocation, or lacked the skills to look it up. According to Atkins & Varantola (1998), only 1% of look-ups by beginners, 15% by intermediate, and 10% by advanced users were aimed at locating collocational information.

Moreover, most learners do not consult the introductory pages in dictionaries and hence cannot competently extract all the information given in the dictionary as illustrated by cowie (1981):

It seemed to us that monolingual dictionaries are not used as fully as they should be; their introductions are not commonly referred to and neither are the coding systems for syntactic patterns. Certainly many students are not aware of the riches that their monolingual dictionaries contain (p. 125).

So, the most important research findings on dictionary use and users' needs is that EFL learners use the dictionaries primarily for decoding purposes, with meanings being the most sought after information category followed by other categories such as syntactic information, spelling and pronunciation, each ranking differently in various research studies. However, it needs to be highlighted that the need for a specific type of information depends on many criteria as the user, the task the dictionary is used for, and the dictionary type used.

For example, Harvey & Yuill (1997) examine the use of the Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary by EFL learners in writing and notice that the participants most often looked for spelling information (24.4%), then came meaning (18.3%). On the other hand, Svensén (1993) finds that it is usually the meanings of words and expressions which are sought while reading. Furthermore, native dictionary users tend to look for spelling more than language learners who were more interested in grammatical information (Béjoint 1981).

Regarding dictionary type, Bogaards (1998) finds that synonyms were the information type that differed sharply in the ranking of information types for monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. In bilingualized dictionaries, students often looked up the meaning of words and L2 equivalents and seldom looked up collocations, pronunciation, frequency, and appropriateness of words (Fan, 2003).

For many students, a dictionary is not more than a means to consult the meaning and spelling of unknown words. So, if only spelling and meaning are consulted, then, the most useful option is seen to be an electronic translator (Hartmann, 1987).

## **2. 9. Students Difficulties in Using Dictionaries**

EFL learners face many problems when using dictionaries. These problems are, generally, divided into two categories: subjective problems which learners recognize and can report (e.g. not finding an entry), and objective problems which learners are ignorant of and it is researchers and teachers who can recognize (e.g. misunderstanding the entry).

### **1.9.1. Subjective Problems**

The most prominent problem usually reported by EFL learners is word missing. The quality and comprehensibility of the definitions and pronunciation information are also frequent problems. Other infrequently reported problems include insufficient syntactic information, too extended entries, and alphabetical-order problems (Neubach & Cohen 1988). The most difficult words to find are slang words, technical terms, multiword items, inflected words, compound nouns, idiomatic phrases, and past participles of verbs (Papanikolaou, 2003).

Sanchez (2005) find that the problems her participants face when using their monolingual dictionaries were inability to find the searched words, troubles to find the a particular information they were looking for, and failure to understand meaning of words. her Participants attributed the causes for these problems to their unfamiliarity with their dictionaries, lack of dictionary skills and ambiguousness of the dictionary layout.

Winkler (2001) argues that learners problems with electronic dictionaries are similar to their problems with paper ones like extended entries, and unclear abbreviations and symbols. Winkler investigated the problems EFL learners face while using an Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, Fifth Edition, in a printed and electronic form (CD-ROM through a writing task. The results showed that the problems the students faced were mainly due to inadequate dictionary-using skills. Other participants were also ignorant of the information that can generally be found in an English learner's dictionary in particular in front pages and the appendices. Students had also difficulties with the structure of individual entries and checking long entries.

### **1.9.2. Objective Problems**

Hardly any studies revealed other problems learners themselves were ignorant of. Problems often noticed by researchers were learners not finishing up with the accurate meaning for an unfamiliar word (Nesi & Meara, 1994). Tono (1984) states that not being able to understand an explanation is not half as bad as misunderstanding an explanation. He found that users concentrate mainly on the beginning of entries, ignoring later sub-senses and discovered that too many examples can discourage the user from reading the entire entry.

Nesi & Hail (2002) examine the difficulties their participants faced when looking up words in the dictionary. Their participants in the study were requested to describe the way they consulted their dictionaries based on 89 assignments given to them over a period of three years. They distinguish four categories of dictionary use problems which are overlooked by the learners:

1. choice of the wrong entry or sub-entry
2. choice of the correct entry or sub-entry, but misinterpretation of the information it contained
3. choice of the correct entry or sub-entry, but failure to realise that the word had a slightly different (figurative) meaning in the context
4. The correct dictionary entry or sub-entry rejected as inappropriate in context.

Garcia (2006) blames learners for these problems and argues that they are the result of wrong dictionary use or lack of skills, rather than drawbacks of the dictionaries themselves. So, he insisted on the importance of teaching dictionary skills.

Taylor (2004) notes that though the monolingual dictionary is a necessary resource for all EFL students, the majority of these dictionaries are too complicated for students' vocabulary abilities. In her opinion, a good English monolingual dictionary must include a list of possible definitions of vocabulary items in order of frequency of use. In addition, definitions must show high levels of differentiation. Then, definitions should be followed by helpful contextual examples. Information should be in a plain, structured and non-daunting style for the learner.

## 1.9. Skills Needed for Effective Dictionary Use: Reference Skills

Wiegand (1985 cited in Tarp 2009) differentiates between three types of users: the *potential user* who meets the requirements for becoming a user, the well-informed user who is able to use a certain dictionary, and the *learned user* who has some notions of lexicography and knows in which dictionary type the information can be found.

According to Wright (1998), learning from dictionaries requires considerable sophistication. Learners face many difficulties when using their dictionaries. Knowing the ordering of the alphabet is insufficient for those who desire to benefit completely from what is available in dictionaries (Tickoo, 1989).

Scholfield (1982) mentions that learners will not simply open the dictionary and use the alphabet guide at the edge of the page or running heads at the top of the page showing the first and the last headword on each page to find words that fit the context. Guidance is necessary for appropriate use of dictionaries. He (ibid) makes out a seven-step dictionary use strategy that included:

- finding the items the learner is unaware of.
- removing the inflection(if found).
- Locating the unknown word in the alphabetical list.
- If the unknown word is not found in the main entry, try to find it in the appendix, nearby entries, or look up parts of the word.
- If there are various senses or homographic entries, reduce them by elimination.
- Read the definition and try to associate it into the context of the unfamiliar word.
- If more than one sense fits, look at more context clues in the text to facilitate your choice.

Likewise, Nesi (1999) introduces detailed six-stage taxonomy of forty reference skills. It aims to promote effective dictionary use at university level. The following table summarizes the reference skills proposed by Nesi (1999).

<p><b>Stage one: Before study</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Knowing what types of dictionary exist, and choosing which dictionaries to consult and/or buy</li> <li>2. Knowing what kinds of information are found in dictionaries and other types of reference works</li> </ol>
<p><b>Stage two: Before dictionary consultation</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3. Deciding whether dictionary consultation is necessary</li> <li>4. Deciding what to look up</li> <li>5. Deciding on the appropriate form of the look-up item</li> <li>6. Deciding which dictionary is most likely to satisfy the purpose of the consultation</li> <li>7. Contextual guessing of the meaning of the look-up item</li> <li>8. Identifying the word class of the look-up item</li> </ol>
<p><b>Stage three: Locating entry information</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>9. Understanding the structure of the dictionary</li> <li>10. Understanding alphabetization and letter distribution</li> <li>11. Understanding grapho-phonemic correspondence</li> <li>12. Understanding the use of wildcards in electronic dictionary searches</li> <li>13. Choosing amongst homonyms</li> <li>14. Finding derived forms</li> <li>15. Finding multi-word units</li> <li>16. Understanding the cross-referencing system in print dictionaries, and hyper linking in electronic dictionaries</li> </ol>
<p><b>Stage four: Interpreting entry information</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17. Distinguishing the component parts of the entry</li> <li>18. Distinguishing relevant from irrelevant information</li> <li>19. Finding information about the spelling of words</li> <li>20. Understanding typographical conventions and the use of symbols, numbered superscripts, punctuation</li> <li>21. Interpreting IPA and pronunciation information</li> <li>22. Interpreting etymological information</li> <li>23. Interpreting morphological and syntactic information</li> <li>24. Interpreting the definition or translation</li> <li>25. Interpreting information about collocations</li> <li>26. Interpreting information about idiomatic and figurative use</li> <li>27. Deriving information from examples</li> <li>28. Interpreting restrictive labels</li> <li>29. Referring to additional dictionary information (in front matter, appendices, and hypertext links).</li> </ol>

	30. Verifying and applying look-up information
<b>Stage five: Recording entry information</b>	31. Sifting entry information 32. Deciding how to record entry information 33. Compiling a vocabulary notebook or file of index cards 34. Using the notebook section of an electronic dictionary
<b>Stage six: Understanding lexicographical issues</b>	35. Knowing what people use dictionaries for 36. Knowing lexicographical terminology 37. Understanding principles and processes of dictionary compilation 38. Recognizing different defining and translating styles 39. Comparing entries 40. Dictionary criticism and evaluation

**Table 01: Nesi' Taxonomy of Reference Skills at University Level**

Nation (2001) also distinguishes four distinct steps for dictionary use as analysing the context of the unknown word, finding the correct entry, choosing the right sub-entry, and applying the meaning to the original context in order to decide if the search was effective.

Moreover, Thornbury (2002) suggests a list of basic skills needed for successful dictionary use. It includes recognising features of dictionary design, understanding the coding and abbreviations used in the entries, discriminating between the different meanings of a word, cross-checking translation equivalents given in bilingual dictionaries, using synonyms, antonyms and other information to find the best word for the item.

All these steps entail individual skills, such as recognizing word classes and inflected forms, alphabetical order, and understanding the symbols and layout conventions of the dictionary. So, learners are compelled to have full understanding of what dictionaries seek to offer and how they do so (Nation, 2001).

## 1.10. Training Language Learners in Dictionary Use

Learner autonomy has always been regarded essential in EFL teaching for many years. Researchers emphasized on the significance of teaching learners strategies that facilitate independent vocabulary learning (Sökmen 1997). Thornbury (2002), for example, regards dictionary use as a way of encouraging learners' autonomy, as it offers the learner the opportunity to learn vocabulary outside the classroom.

Despite the significance of dictionaries in encouraging independent learning, dictionary training is still neglected. As Hartmann (1999) puts it: "Throughout and beyond the English-speaking world, dictionaries (especially EFL learners' dictionaries) are 'big business', but the skills required of their users are still underdeveloped" (p.14).

Walz (1990) Argues that dictionary use should be taught as:

1. the dictionary is a necessary resource of information about words
2. the dictionary is a means for lifelong learning.
3. the dictionary is not a boring reference book and it can be used for more than just practicing "safe lex."

Nation (2001) points out that there has been little research on the effects of training language learners on dictionary use. Bilash, Gregoret, & Loewen, (1999) also maintain that "If we do not teach students how to use the dictionary, it is unlikely that they will demand that they be taught, since, while teachers do not believe that students have adequate dictionary skills, students believe that they do" (p.4). The percentages provided by Atkins & Varantola (1998) study that indicate that the greater part of EFL learners (60%) had not been taught how to use a dictionary, confirm the situation.



Lew & Galas (2008) examine the dictionary use of primary-school-level Polish EFL learners after a twelve session dictionary skills training program and conclude that learners used their dictionaries more effectively. Similarly, Wright (1998) find that dictionary use with reference skills teaching and adequate practice can make a considerable difference in learners' reading performance.

### **1.11. Views over Dictionary Use in Classrooms**

There have been many reasons to discourage dictionary use in foreign language classrooms which made teachers think that dictionaries are not at all useful in language learning and teaching. Dictionary use is said to interrupt the comprehension process and to slow learners speed in doing classrooms tasks (Knight, 1994). Dictionaries are also considered as a disturbance as learners cannot resist the appeal of searching for a newly heard word or expression that generally turns to be an unrelated word to the topic, even the teacher is trying to explain it. In addition, learners using dictionaries are usually found asking a question on things formerly explained (Thornbury, 2002). That is why hastening immediately to a dictionary is the surest sign of a “panicky language learner” (Twaddell, 1973).

Chern (1987) concludes from studying on her university students in Taiwan that frequent dictionary consultation may indicate that learners value their dictionaries more than their teacher which might reduce teachers' confidence in explaining new vocabulary. She discovers that learners using dictionaries feel insecure reading without them; hence, they become too dependent on dictionaries and fail to develop their own self-confidence and learning abilities mainly guessing which is the first strategy of good language learners mentioned in Rubin's (1975) who states that “the good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser” (P.45). On the other hand, dictionaries can be seen as a self-help tool to

learn languages. Dictionary consultation also shows that the learner is serious about using the language well in order to make sure people understand exactly what s/he is trying to communicate (Grabe & Stoller, 1997).

Another factor in dictionary use in classrooms is culture. For example, some educational cultures discourage dictionary use in classrooms like Western countries such as Australia and the United Kingdom where even most university students are unaware of what dictionaries offer, which is not the case in Chinese schools (Hartmann, 1999). Dictionaries have always had a high status in the Chinese culture. The dictionary is regarded as "a teacher who cannot talk". In addition to the real teachers who instruct learners in classrooms, dictionaries are believed to be the most used alternative.

### **1.12. The dictionary culture**

The term *dictionary culture* according to Hartmann & James (1998), refers to: "The critical awareness of the value and limitations of dictionaries and other reference works in a particular community." The dictionary culture of a community gives information on both the users' reference needs and their reference skills. This does not necessarily mean that the community waits for lexicographers to produce dictionaries. Rather, the community follows the dictionary-making trends closely, making sure that lexicographers produce good dictionaries. In a community with an advanced dictionary culture, users would criticise dictionaries and even reject some if they do not meet their lexicographic needs (ibid).

### **Conclusion**

A good dictionary is a valuable tool for anyone who wishes to communicate in a foreign language. In this chapter, we targeted the discipline of lexicography, in particular,

pedagogical lexicography. We focused on the different types of dictionaries. We also reviewed the reference needs and skills of dictionary users. In addition, we discussed learners' difficulties in using dictionaries and the necessity of dictionary instruction to reinforce dictionary use skills.

## **Chapter Two: Dictionaries and Vocabulary Learning**

### **Chapter Two: Vocabulary Learning and Dictionary Use**

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## **Introduction**

Learning a foreign language involves learning its vocabulary. Learners have been interested in improving their vocabulary. Elementary, pertinent and persistent vocabulary is needed in EFL learning and its importance cannot be exaggerated. This chapter reviews the literature regarding the importance of vocabulary in language learning, vocabulary terminology, lexical knowledge, vocabulary learning, vocabulary learning strategies, and the effects of using dictionaries, paper and electronic, on vocabulary learning.

### **2.2. The Importance of Vocabulary in Language Learning**

Today, knowledge of words has become a valuable tool. With a good vocabulary, which indicates the scope of knowledge, we grasp the thoughts of others and are able to communicate our own thoughts to them. Vocabulary is considered the most important element of language (Candlin, 1988). That is why people take their dictionaries, not grammar books, when they travel to a foreign country (Krashen, 1989). The existence of "foreigner talk" and "baby talk", where many grammar rules are broken shows the important role of vocabulary in communication (Ferguson, 1971). Correspondingly, Folse (2003) states that without syntax, meaning is deterred, but without vocabulary meaning is not possible.

It would be impossible to learn a language without learning its vocabulary. Vocabulary learning plays an essential role in language acquisition in both receptive and productive way (DeCarrico, 2001). Vocabulary is regarded as the core of the four skills; speaking, listening, reading and writing. A rich vocabulary increases students' ability to understand reading and listening materials as well as express themselves in speaking and writing (Krashen, 1989).

Corona, Spangenberg & Venet (1998) argue that a rich vocabulary helps in enhancing students' writing skills. Learners with a rich vocabulary are likely to be proficient readers than those with a poor vocabulary (Ruddel & Shearer, 2002). Laufer (1997, p. 20) states that "no text comprehension is possible, either in one's native language or in a foreign language, without understanding the text's vocabulary". A vocabulary of less than 5,000 words is not enough for understanding specialized texts and more than that is required for understanding academic texts (Nation, 1990).

However, vocabulary has been an unimportant thing for linguists and teachers (Manguerra, 1993) and vocabulary learning /teaching was overlooked in classrooms (Carter & McCarthy, 1988). Vocabulary was subordinated to the study of grammatical structures (Nation, 1989), though vocabulary' errors are more confusing than grammar errors (Hedges, 2000). Tozcu & Coady (2004) mention that while students considered vocabulary learning very necessary, teachers, in contrast, considered vocabulary learning easy and gave more attention to grammar. This quotation from Meara (1982) explains the situation: "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" (p. 100).

Though there has been a change from the grammar translation method to the communicative approach, vocabulary has not been efficiently taught in classrooms until the mid-1980s (Summers, 1988). Currently, all EFL learners and teachers are aware of the fact that learning a foreign language necessitates the learning of a lot of words (Avila & Sadoski, 1996).

### **2.3. Vocabulary Terminology**

All languages have a set of lexical units (vocabulary) and a set of rules according to which complex expressions, phrases and sentences are structured (grammar). Vocabulary research throws up many interesting questions and problems, not the least being the definition of the term word (Carter, 1987).

Generally the term vocabulary is used interchangeably with the term word. Yet, the term word is very broad to encompass the different senses of vocabulary. For example, the expression “red herring” is a lexical unit but consists of two words. Additionally, it is not obvious if “walk, walked, walking, and walks” (inflections), and “stimulate, stimulative, and stimulation” (derivatives) are supposed to be one or many words.

Nation & Waring (1997) suggest that the terms lexeme , lexical unit or lexical item should be used to refer to any item that functions as a single meaning unit, regardless of the number of words it contains whereas, the term “lemma” should be restricted to the base word and its inflections only. This terminology allows us to avoid any ambiguity of the term word, and to deal with vocabulary in accurate terms (Nagy et al., 1989).

### **2.4. Receptive vs. Productive Vocabulary**

Read (2000) indicates that the number of words we recognize and understand is outsized than the number of words we use in our speech and writing. Therefore, he distinguishes between receptive and productive vocabulary.

Receptive vocabulary refers to the words recognized in listening and reading whereas productive vocabulary refers to the words used in speaking and writing. Implicit vs. explicit vocabulary are also used interchangeably with receptive and productive vocabulary

respectively. It is generally assumed that words are known receptively first and only later they become available for productive use. (Armbruster & Osborn, 2003).

According to Lado (1964), producing a vocabulary means that a unit can be remembered almost instantly along with its appropriate structural position in relation to the context. Receptive vocabulary is expressed by Harmer (1991) as words which learners will identify when they encounter them, however they will not be able to produce.

## **2.5. Vocabulary/Lexical Knowledge**

To define knowledge of a lexical item, diverse frameworks have been made (Read, 1993; Wesche & Paribakht, 1996; Nation, 2001). In all these frameworks, vocabulary knowledge has never been seen as a single dimension, but as a multidimensional construct. Depth and breadth vocabulary knowledge are two important dimensions.

Vocabulary breadth is defined as the quantity of words for which students may have some level of knowledge. On the other hand, vocabulary depth refers to how much students know about a word and the aspects of word knowledge (Anderson & Freebody, 1981, cited in Stahl & Bravo, 2010). Depth vocabulary knowledge lies in the semantic networks which connect a word with the other information necessary to truly understand and use it (Hunston et al., 1997). It suggests that learners should have more than a shallow knowledge of useful frequent words. They should be familiar with other aspects as pronunciation, spelling, meaning, register, frequency, morphological, syntactic, and collocational properties (Qian, 1999).

Ordóñez, et al (2002,p.719), argue that “ although lexical knowledge is most commonly thought of and assessed as a number of words known , or breadth of vocabulary, it



is now increasingly clear that richness of the representation of the words known is also a key dimension of variability.”

In order to state what it is meant by knowing a word, researchers suggest a range of ideas. There is, however, an agreement that word knowledge must be viewed as a multi-dimensional construct. The nature of vocabulary learning and acquisition is complex and involves several components. In the view of Kelly (1991), lexical knowledge refers simply to “the ability of identifying words in their spoken and written form. However, a word is more than its meaning” (Cook , 2001. p. 61). “knowing a word requires more than just familiarity with its meaning and form” (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997, p. 4).

Read (2000) claims that besides recognizing words in speech and print, vocabulary knowledge involves identifying words' meanings, associations, usage constraints, syntactic behaviors, underlying forms and derivations, and semantic values.

Blum-Kulka (1981) maintains that learning a word entails mastery of four aspects:

1. Semantic mapping (linking words and their referents)
2. Morpho-semantic restrictions (accurate application of morphology and grammar in the use of vocabulary)
3. Collocational restrictions (collocational appropriacy)
4. Communicative functions (stylistic appropriacy)

Likewise, Nation (1990) states that in building vocabulary we need to make sure that each word is learned and understood thoroughly. When one is not certain about the correct spelling, pronunciation and contextual use of the words, one cannot give attention to higher level aspects of language as using accurate sentence structures and appropriate words for the

conversation that is going on (ibid). Hence, he generates a list that captures the key elements of word knowledge that are.

1. The spoken form of a word
2. The written form of a word
3. The grammatical behavior of the word
4. The collocational behavior of the word
5. The frequency of the word
6. The stylistic register constraints of a word
7. The conceptual meaning of a word
8. The associations a word has with other related word.

Then, Nation (2001) claims that knowing a word is an extremely complex process which involves the mastery of many word features receptively and productively. Nation distinguishes nine aspects of word knowledge which are: spoken form, written form, word parts, the relation between form and meaning, concept and referents, word associations, grammatical functions, collocations and constraints on use. The following table from Nation (2001, p.27) illustrates what is involved in knowing a word in details.

<b>Form</b>	Spoken	R What does the word sound like?
		P How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R What does the word look like?
		P How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R What parts are recognisable in this word?
		P What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
	Form and	R What meaning does this word form signal?

<b>Meaning</b>	meaning	P What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concept and referents	R What is included in the concept?
		P What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	R What other words does this make us think of?
		P What other words could we use instead of this one?
	Grammatical functions	R In what patterns does the word occur?
P In what patterns must we use this word?		
<b>Use</b>	Collocations	R What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints on use (register, frequency...)	R Where, when and how often would we expect to meet this word? P Where, when and how often can we use this word?

Note: R= receptive knowledge, P=productive knowledge.

**Table 02: Knowing a Word?**

Though Nation’s list of word knowledge (2000) is more detailed, precise, and recent, Nation's list of word knowledge (1990) is more practical for our research. So, it will be used as the basis for our thesis. That is why we provide literature for the eight types of word knowledge listed in Nation (1990).

**2.5.1. Phonological Knowledge**

Phonological knowledge of words engrosses being capable of analysing and recognizing the acoustic representation of words from a continuous flow of speech, in addition to being capable of articulating words in a clear way in connected speech. Being able

to manage these input/output processes necessitates an in depth knowledge of not only the pronunciation of words as a whole, but also its parts (Shmitt, 1997). Goldstein (1983) finds that EFL learners are required to take more advantage of acoustic clues than native learners, in view of the fact that they cannot compensate with natives' knowledge of semantic and syntactic constraints to guess and decode words.

### **2.5.2. Orthographical Knowledge**

Traditionally, orthographical knowledge was regarded as the lower level type of word knowledge. However, in recent times, there has been a growing awareness that orthographical knowledge is a major aspect of vocabulary knowledge and language learning in general. Spelling is a main concern for a lot of learners. Without spelling knowledge, any attempts to express their ideas are strictly limited. EFL learners face many problems with spelling.

Cook (1991, p.1) claims that “unlike native speakers, students may not know the actual system of English, and will appear to use the wrong letter.” For instance:

1. Deciding between two or three consonants [c, z and s] :eg. recognise or recognize.
2. Choosing between /e/ or /i/: eg. dicided or decided.
3. Skipping vowels by mistake, mostly (e) in particular when silent: eg. intresting and interesting.
4. Replacement of one sound by another: eg. cuikly and quickly.

Ellis and Beaton (1995) examine the effect of orthography on the process of learning EFL vocabulary. They find that orthography is easier if both the native and the foreign language have similar orthographies based on etymological or loanword reasons, make use of similar orthographic units that read in the same way (left-to-right, right-to-left, or up-to-

down), and make use of similar letters order (e.g. consonant clusters). They also find that the closer the correspondence between the graphemes and the phonemes they represent, the easier words are to be learnt and that shorter words are easier to learn than longer words.

Moreover, Ryan & Meara (1991) study Arabic-speaking students of English and find that students generally have troubles with English orthography. They suggest that these problems arise from the fact that Arabic is based on tri-consonantal roots, with vowels being of less importance. That is why they show an indifference to vowels in English which often results in misrecognized words.

### **2.5.3. Grammatical Knowledge**

The largest part of studies on vocabulary knowledge has focused on the four main word classes particularly, nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Odlin & Natalicio (1982) report that EFL students did not constantly know the word class of words they knew their meaning. They claim that this implies that the learning of the semantic content of words does not at all times involve the learning of their grammatical behavior.

Laufer (1989) considers morphology knowledge as an aspect of grammatical knowledge. She believes that inflectional features, such as irregularity of plural, gender of inanimate nouns, and irregular verbs make words more complex and, hence, difficult to learn. She believes that learning inflections is considered one of the major problems for EFL learners (ibid).

### **2.5.4. Collocations Knowledge**

The majority of researches that dealt with collocations have focused on discovering and explaining the collocational relationships between words. Only a small number of researches were done to explore how collocations are acquired (Shmitt, 1997). Van Roey

(1990, p. 46) defines a collocation as: “the linguistic phenomenon whereby a given vocabulary item prefers the company of another item rather than its 'synonyms' because of constraints which are not on the level of syntax or conceptual meaning but on that of usage”.

Two main types of collocations are distinguished: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. Grammatical collocations are collocations in which a main word (typically a noun, verb, or adjective) interconnects with a grammatical word, (e.g. a preposition). On the other hand, Lexical collocations are made of a combination of two words which both contribute to the meaning such as noun+ verb, verb+ noun, and adjective+ noun (Bahns, 1993).

Cowie & Howarth (1995) propose a four level scale of collocations' complexity:

1. Idiom e.g. Fill The Bill,
2. Invariable Collocation e.g. Break A Journey
3. Collocation With Limited Choice At One Point e.g. Give/Allow/Permit Access To  
[Noun Phrase]
4. Collocation With Limited Choice At Two Points e.g. Find/Experience  
Trouble/Difficulty In [Doing Noun Phrase]

Biskup (1992) identifies that collocational errors constitute a high percentage of all errors committed by EFL learners. Cowie (1981) states that one of the main approaches EFL learners make use of to study collocations is the use of reference materials as dictionaries. He suggested that specialised collocations' dictionaries, in particular, can be a good resource for learners to learn collocations.

### **2.5.5. Frequency Knowledge**

It is commonly acknowledged that the frequency of a word in language has an effect on how we use and process that word. Knowledge of frequency helps in register decisions. Words in a spoken register, for example, are generally more frequent than words in a written register. Formal words are less frequent than informal words. In addition, some words are old just because they have turned out to be uncommon and infrequent. Yet, we would not imagine that people can exactly record each occasion they had been exposed to a word (Howes, 1957 in Smitt, 1997).

Researches on frequency have primarily focused on native-speakers. Studies with EFL students are very rare. Ringeling (1984) studies advanced Dutch speakers of English and finds that although their frequency estimates for words were much lower than those of native-speakers. However, he believes in the possibility of advanced nonnative-speakers to develop native-like frequency intuitions.

### **2.5.6. Register Knowledge**

Register is the term that covers all of the stylistic variations which color the core meaning of a word. It comprises additional meaning information beyond the denotative meaning, which makes each word more or less appropriate for certain language situations or language purposes (Shmitt, 1997). Halliday (1978) claims that register competency is the knowledge of the different varieties of register that a word may have, and how to put it in practice to reach the effect one intends linguistically.

There exist different types of register variation: Temporal variation, Geographical variation, social variation, Social role variation, discourse variation, and mode of discourse variation. Temporal variation covers the continuum of how old or contemporary words are.

Geographical variation covers the varieties of words according to where they are spoken. It consists of language varieties which are varieties among countries which speak the same language as American English and Australian English and language dialects which are varieties within a country. The other kind of variation is social variation presented in the rather different lexis privileged classes' people in comparison to the less privileged classes. The fourth type of variation is called Social role variation that stands for the role of social power and relationship between interlocutors, which directly affects the level of formality each uses. This is indicated by the level of formality of words and directness of syntactical structures. The subject or topic discussed can also affect the type of language used as various fields have a genre, or style of discourse. This usually manifests in syntax, as the use passive voice in academic discourse, and word choice. This is referred to as discourse variation. The last register variation is termed mode of discourse variation; namely written vs. spoken variation. Written discourse is in general more structured and formal than spoken discourse (McCarthy & Carter, 1994).

### **2.5.7. Word Meaning Knowledge**

Meaning is regarded as the most important type of word knowledge. Researchers distinguished between core meaning that is what is known generally by people using the word. There is also peripheral meaning which is derived from personal experience, knowledge of the world, and native culture. Peripheral meaning can be unnecessary for a core definition of a word, but is indispensable for the understanding of the word's full meaning as words refer to different things in different contexts (Shmitt, 1997).

EFL studies demonstrated that learners learn the core meaning of words before peripheral meaning (ibid). Similarly, Ijaz (1986) and Blum & Levenston (1978) find that the



core meaning of polysemous words were better learned by advanced EFL learners than other meanings.

### 2.5.8. Word Associations Knowledge

Word associations generally fall into two main classes called syntagmatic associations and paradigmatic associations. Syntagmatic associations are those which form an obvious sequential link with the stimulus word (e.g. dog with, bark, spotted, naughty, or bite). Associations which are from the same grammatical form class as the stimulus word are classed as paradigmatic (e.g. dog, with, cat, wolf or animal) (Meara, 1983). Syntagmatic associations include Collocations for example Dog- bite, Phonological and Orthographical Links for example: dog – bog, and experiential links that include any link associated with a one’s previous experience. Paradigmatic associations include Coordination as antonyms, hyponymy for example: red, scarlet, crimson, and Synonymy for example: dog - canine (Wolter, 2001).

Carter (1998) states that words do not exist independently and their meanings are identified through the sense relations they have with other words. The main words’ associations are listed in the table below (from Slobin 1971 in Carter, 1998, p. 19).

Contrast or antonymy	Wet dry
Similarity or synonymy	Blossom flower
Subordinate classification	Animal dog
Coordinate classification	Apple peach
Superordinate classification	Spinach vegetable

**Table 03: The Main Words’ Associations.**

There has always been a restricted number of studies in the area of word association. Meara (1983) finds that there was a gradual progression in the learning of the associations of the vocabulary items taught in class, and claimed that the results of his study can be helpful in studying the incremental nature of vocabulary learning.

Van Ginkel & van der Linden (1996) compare the associations of Dutch learners of French with native French speakers. They find that native French students gave more associations than Dutch students. They also conclude that there was a correlation between the proficiency of the participants and the number of association they could produce. Likewise, Read (1993) concludes that students knowledge of word associations was associated with students' overall knowledge of words. In addition, Schmitt & Meara (1997) find that Japanese students of English in his study did not demonstrate good knowledge of word associations. They also find that word association knowledge correlated with overall vocabulary size.

## **2.6. Vocabulary Learning**

To EFL learners, one of the most essential factors to determine language proficiency is the vocabulary size. A poor vocabulary is a serious handicap (Nation, 1990). How to increase vocabulary knowledge effectively has been a sensitive area in the field of second language acquisition (De La Fuente, 2002).

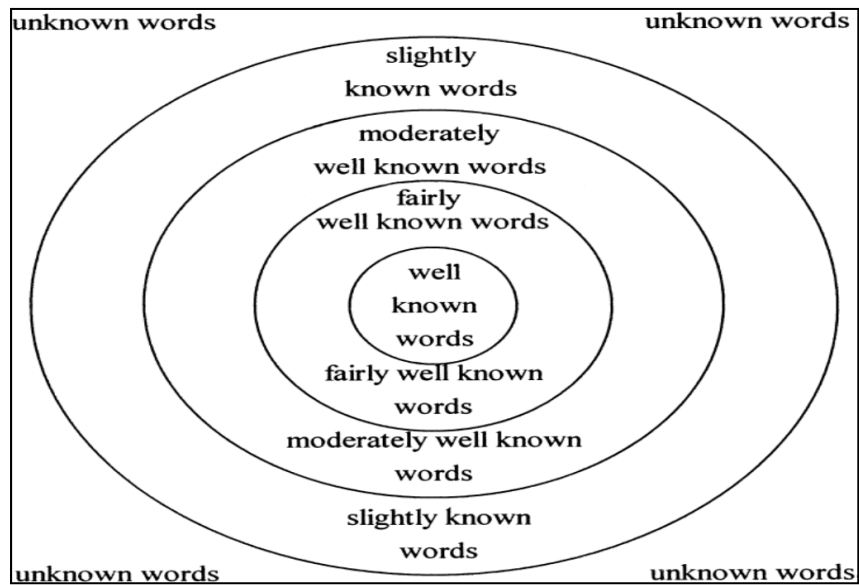
Ehri (1995) suggests that word recognition consists of five subsequent stages or psychological behaviors starting with the pre-alphabetic phase where learners see the words as signs or pictures. Then, comes the partial alphabetic phase, where learners start to recognize just partial letter-sound connections. After that, learners reach the full-alphabetic phase where they use their letter knowledge and phonemic ability to convert written words into speech (with some problems with irregular words). Later on, in the consolidated-

alphabetic phase, learners make use of a large number of words in larger units. Finally, in the automatic phase, learners' lexicon becomes rich and information retrieval and reading become easy.

The bottom up, top down and interactive ways of learning vocabulary are among the main theories that have tackled the ways of vocabulary learning. The bottom up theory states that vocabulary learning starts from the bottom element, the letters; whereas, the top down theory regards the beginning of vocabulary learning as a higher-level mental function. The interactive theory focuses on the interaction between mental activities and textual information. While the bottom up and top down theories emphasize on the linearity of vocabulary learning, the interactive theory stresses the cyclical process of vocabulary learning (Anderson, 2003).

Furthermore, Nation (2001) generates the noticing, retrieval and creative use process of lexical knowledge. He claims that learners primarily notice the word through listening, reading or teacher's instruction, then retrieve it receptively and productively which helps in its memorization, and finally reuse it in other new contexts.

Wolter (2001) claims that words are acquired individually and go through developmental shifts. Wolter states that the mental lexicon consists of core vocabulary, which contains well known words, and layers of peripheral vocabulary which consists of words that are known to varying degrees. Figure one shows Wolters Depth of word knowledge model of the mental lexicon.



**Figure 01: Model of the Mental Lexicon**

(Wolter, 2001, p. 48)

Hence, vocabulary learning is progressive in nature (Schmitt, 2000). It is “a continuum consisting of several levels of knowledge” (Laufer, 1998, p. 367). Vocabulary learning is not a direct swing from ignorance to awareness (Hatch & Brown, 1995). For example, Schmitt & Zimmerman (2002) find that it was rare for native English learners and non-native English university students to distinguish all or none of the four word forms (noun, verb, adjective, and adverb). In addition, Bauer & Nation (1993) notice that learners identified only some members of a word family mainly nouns and verbs.

### **2.6.1. Implicit vs. Explicit Vocabulary Learning**

Perspectives on EFL vocabulary mastery also vary from implicit naturalistic learning to explicit instruction (Ellis, 1995). According to Nation, incidental vocabulary learning is “the learning of vocabulary from reading or listening to normal language use while the main focus of the learners’ attention is on the message of the text (Nation, 2001, p.232). Learner

can recognize and guess the meaning of new words through extensive reading or listening without being provided with their definitions (Elley, 1991) and Groot (2000).

Nagy, Anderson, & Herman (1985) state that studies, on both first and foreign language, showed that learners could incidentally, through frequent exposures to words in various encounters during the different learning skills, learn many new terms and expressions, and not by learning brief explanations or translations.

A number of studies in first language acquisition have shown considerable vocabulary learning gains from reading (Jenkins et al., 1984). One of the studies is the study carried out by Saragi et al. (1978) in which twenty native English students read the novel *A Clockwork Orange* by Anthony Burgess and were subsequently tested on their knowledge of 90 words. The results of the study showed impressive learning gains of 76% of the target words. Likewise, Karp (2002) points out that research on reading in L1 shows that implicit vocabulary appears to be the main source of word knowledge.

Research in second/foreign vocabulary acquisition demonstrates that learners can acquire vocabulary while reading for meaning. Horst et al. (1998) find that while reading the simplified version of *The Mayor of Casterbridge* by Thomas Hardy, the participants learned the meaning of 20% of the unknown target words.

O' Harra (2004) claims that incidental vocabulary promotes deeper mental processing and better retention. The learners get themselves fully involved in the process of interpreting the meaning via the clues available in the text. They think and rethink about the new words involving cognitive process which helps the learners retain the words for a longer period of time. Hulstijn & Laufer (2001) claim that learners understand not only the meanings in the text but also the related grammatical patterns, common lexical sets and typical association of the word with the context.

Moreover, Williams (1986) believes that intentional vocabulary learning based on synonyms, antonyms, word substitution, multiple choice, scrambled words and crossword puzzles, regardless of context, is not so effective, because learners are more prone to rote learning. They pack the meaning of the new words without going through a cognitive process. He recommends that guessing should be taught by circling the unknown words and drawing across from other words that give clues to infer the meaning. The learners should also know how to break up unknown words into parts and check if the meaning of the parts matches the meaning of the unknown word as words made of prefixes and suffixes could be without difficulty understood by learners if they are already taught the major prefixes and suffixes.

Additionally, Goulden, Nation, & Read (1990) count the number of word families in Webster's Third New International Dictionary (1963), and after eliminating entries such as proper names and alternative spellings, they find that the dictionary includes about 54,000 word families. So, they argue that this large amount of words implies that both teachers and learners cannot learn/teach all of them explicitly and emphasize on implicit vocabulary learning.

On the other hand, Gass (1999) states that it is impossible to confirm if a word has been learned incidentally because still when the learner is paying attention to meaning, focus may be on understanding the meaning of unfamiliar words. Moreover, incidental vocabulary learning through extensive reading is a very slow and time consuming process that can discourage the learner from learning. It is not easy to guess which words will be learned, when and to what degree (Karp, 2002).

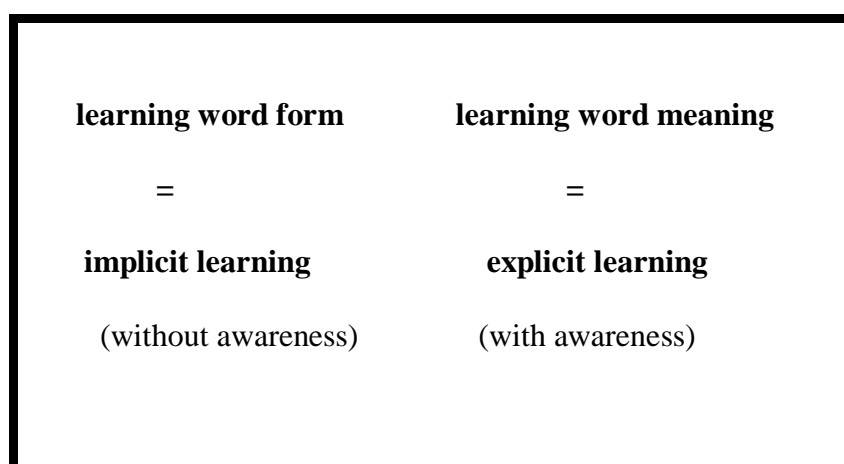
Kelly (1990) thinks that guessing from context cannot replace systematic vocabulary learning in classrooms. Through his study, he found that there was a low possibility for guessing from context, unless the context is very constrained. Correspondingly, Hulstijn,

Hollander & Greidanus (1996) mention that incidental learning can be inadequate as learners occasionally believe they know unfamiliar words, ignore them when the meaning is grasped from the context, or make erroneous inferences.

Laufer (1997) claims that EFL learners face three complications while learning vocabulary: **words they do not know** (as words with deceptive morphological structures, idioms, false friends, multiple meanings' words, and Synforms), **words they think they know**, and **words they cannot guess**. Unknown or tricky words may be less problematic as learners may check them in reference materials and may be more careful in making guesses. Words learners think they know are generally the main cause of troubles, especially if their word knowledge is mistaken, as a distortion of the meaning of a word may lead to learners' misunderstanding of the whole text.

As many linguists put it, Guessing from context is a complex and often a difficult strategy to carry out successfully and acquiring the vocabulary incidentally through reading has the following limitations: Firstly, students have less vocabulary than sufficient for successful incidental learning (Nation, 1990). He (ibid) argues that successful guessing in context occurs when about 95% of the lexical items in a text are already known. Secondly, even if one knows 98% of the words in a text, there is little chance of guessing the meaning correctly (Kelly, 1990). Thirdly, inferring word meaning is likely to be a very slow process (Hulstijn, 1989). Finally, inferring word meaning does not necessarily result in long-term retention. Even if a student has enough vocabulary and is exposed to a word in contexts rich with clues, acquisition does not automatically result at the first time. Learners should learn the words by analyzing them to ensure their subsequent retrieval (Anderson, 1990). Similarly Mayer (1992) and Wittrock (1992) conclude that the active elaboration of the words during learning affect their recall.

Additionally, Ellis (1995) develops a theory for L1 as well as L2 vocabulary acquisition on the basis of an extensive body of experimental psycholinguistic research in the fields of vocabulary and intelligence, implicit memory and global amnesia. He claims that while the acquisition of a word form, collocations and grammatical class information are said to involve implicit processes, acquiring a word's semantic properties and mapping word form to meaning are claimed to result from explicit learning processes (see figure 2).



**Figure 02: Ellis' view of implicit/explicit learning processes in incidental vocabulary acquisition**

Therefore, EFL learners cannot rely only on implicit learning (Nation, 2001). Explicit vocabulary learning through systematic instruction must go together with incidental learning to speed up and facilitate the process of learning (Harmon, 1998). Paribakht & Wesche (1993) argue that contextualized learning through reading is effective but that contextualized reading plus explicit instruction is superior. Consequently, they conclude that although reading for meaning does contribute to vocabulary knowledge, a supplementary regime with specific vocabulary exercises produces more significant gains. Johnson (2001) encourages teachers to increase learners' vocabulary and insists on spending extra time on developing learners' strategies for learning new words.



## 2. 7.Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Learning the vocabulary of a language is an impossible undertaking not only for EFL learners but native speakers too. The average amount of vocabulary natives have is great. An English graduate student, for example, has a vocabulary size of nearly 20,000 word families. Contrary to the unfeasibility of learning all the vocabulary of a language, EFL learners can reach a native-like vocabulary size through the effective use of vocabulary learning strategies (Nation & Waring, 1997). Vocabulary learning strategies are almost always investigated in researches on language learning strategies, and only few studies targeted vocabulary learning strategies particularly (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Learners usually use a number of specific actions in order to make their learning easy, fast, enjoyable, self-directed, and effective (Oxford, 1990). These actions or strategies are deliberately used by the learner in the mastery, storage, retrieval, and use of information (Cohen, 1998). That is to say, these strategies are used before, during, or after language performance (Oxford, 1990).

On the other hand, vocabulary learning strategies are strategies used exclusively while learning vocabulary (Takač, 2008). Although vocabulary learning strategies are considered a subclass of language learning strategies, Schmitt (1997), acknowledges that many vocabulary learning strategies can be used as language learning strategies too.

According to Oxford (1990), several factors affect the strategies EFL learners apply as learners' level, awareness, age , sex, in addition to nationality, personality, motivation, objective, task' type and teachers' expectations. Gu & Johnson (1996) distinguish five types of learners according to the vocabulary learning strategies they use as: **readers** (who favor incidental learning vocabulary), **active strategy users** (who consciously use a wide range of

strategies), **encoders** (who usually use mnemonics), **non-encoders** (who are very motivated to use strategies), and **passive strategy users** (who rely on memorization and careful study of new vocabulary).

Many scholars suggest different taxonomies of VLSs, which led Fan (2003, p. 223) to conclude that “no classification is perfect and any individual strategy may fall into one category or another, depending on the aspect in focus”.

Nation (2001, p. 218) classifies VLSs into three different classes which are **planning**, **sources**, and **processes** used to choose how and what to focus on, to find information about words, and to remember vocabulary for future use.

- **Planning:** choosing what to focus on and when to focus on it
- **Sources:** finding information about words
- **Processes:** establishing knowledge

Planning strategies are concerned with strategies of planning the learning experience namely choosing words, choosing the aspects of word knowledge, choosing strategies, and planning repetition. The second category deals with the process of searching the information about vocabulary items as analysing the word, using context, consulting a reference source in L1 or L2, using parallels in L1 and in L2. On the other hand, processes focus on the already explained processes of vocabulary acquisition specifically, noticing, retrieving and generating (Nation, 2001)

Wu (2005) investigates the vocabulary learning strategies used by about one thousand students in Taiwan. Through the results obtained, Wu creates fifteen strategies which are: rote repetition, reviewing often, flash cards, word lists, grouping, association / elaboration, placing

new words into a context, imagery, keyword method, rhyming, syllabification, phonics, physical responses or sensations, word formation, and phonetics.

Gu and Johnson (1996, p. 654-655) divide VLSs into three main types: beliefs, metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies. Beliefs about vocabulary learning entail that words should be memorized, acquired in context: bottom-up, and studied and put to use: top-down. Metacognitive strategies involve selective attention and self-initiation. Cognitive strategies are in turn subdivided into guessing strategies (as using background knowledge/wider context and using linguistic cues/immediate context), dictionary strategies (including dictionary strategies for comprehension, extended dictionary strategies, and looking-up activities), note-taking activities (as meaning-oriented note-taking strategies, and usage-oriented note-taking activities), rehearsal activities (as using word lists, oral repetition, and visual repetition), encoding strategies (as association / elaboration, imagery, visual encoding, using word-structure, semantic encoding, contextual encoding), and Activation strategies

In his research with Japanese intermediate students, Schmitt (1997) develops a comprehensive taxonomy of fifty eight vocabulary learning strategies based mainly on Oxford (1990) work who classified learning strategies into: social (communicating with other people), memory (linking new material to previous information), cognitive (handling of the target language), metacognitive (being aware of, organizing, observing and assessing the learning process) (ibid).

So, Schmitt distinguishes discovery strategies and consolidation strategies. Discovery Strategies are used for understanding the meaning of unfamiliar lexical items as Determination strategies which he (ibid, p. 205) defines as strategies used “when faced with discovering a new word’s meaning without recourse to another person’s expertise”. and social

strategies employed to understand word meaning by asking someone who knows it. Consolidation strategies entail trying to assimilate words that have been learnt so as to store them into the long-term memory. Apart from social strategies, there exist memory strategies which relate new materials to existing knowledge, cognitive strategies that is the manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learner and metacognitive strategies which refer to making decisions about planning, monitoring, or evaluating the best ways to study (ibid). Table 04 below is more comprehensive.

Dimension	Discovery	Consolidation
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Analyse part-of-speech</li> <li>➤ Analyse affixes and roots</li> <li>➤ Check for L1 cognate</li> <li>➤ Analyse any available pictures or gestures</li> <li>➤ Guess from textual context</li> <li>➤ Bilingual dictionary</li> <li>➤ Monolingual dictionary</li> <li>➤ Word lists</li> <li>➤ Flash cards</li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Study and practise meaning in a group</li> <li>➤ Teacher checks students' flash cards or word lists for accuracy</li> <li>➤ Interact with native-speakers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Ask teacher for an L1 translation</li> <li>➤ Ask teacher for paraphrase or synonym of new word</li> <li>➤ Ask teacher for a sentence including the new word</li> <li>➤ Ask classmates for meaning</li> <li>➤ Discover new meaning through group work activity</li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Study word with a pictorial representation of its meaning</li> <li>➤ Image word's meaning</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤</li> </ul>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Connect word to a personal experience</li> <li>➤ Associate the word with its coordinates</li> <li>➤ Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms</li> <li>➤ Use semantic maps</li> <li>➤ Use 'scales' for gradable adjectives</li> <li>➤ Peg method</li> <li>➤ Loci method</li> <li>➤ Group words together to study them</li> <li>➤ Group words together spatially on a page</li> <li>➤ Use new word in sentences</li> <li>➤ Group words together within a storyline</li> <li>➤ Study the spelling of a word</li> <li>➤ Study sound of word</li> <li>➤ Say word aloud</li> <li>➤ Image of word form</li> <li>➤ Underline initial letter</li> <li>➤ Configuration</li> <li>➤ Use keyword method</li> <li>➤ Affixes and roots/parts of speech,</li> <li>➤ Paraphrase</li> </ul>		
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word meaning, ➤ Use cognates in study ➤ Learn words of an idiom together ➤ Use physical action ➤ Use semantic feature grids		
<b>Cognitive</b>		➤ Verbal repetition ➤ Written repetition ➤ Word lists ➤ Flash cards ➤ Take notes in class ➤ Use the vocabulary section in your textbook ➤ Listen to tape of word lists ➤ Put English labels on physical objects ➤ Keep a vocabulary notebook
<b>Metacognitive</b>		➤ Use English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.) ➤ Testing oneself with word tests ➤ Use spaced word practice ➤ Skip or pass new word ➤ Continue to study word over time

**Table 04: Schmitt's taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies**

(Schmitt, 1997, p. 207-208)

Learners often make use of many strategies. They may employ more than one strategy, which vary from one learner to another, on the same vocabulary item. For example, words with affixes generally encourage students to concentrate on the meaning of the prefix or suffix. The spelling of a word may also easily trigger the associating of the meaning of the word with its spelling (e.g. sibling: a general term for brothers and sisters: SI of sisters and B of brothers) (Erten, 1998).

Gu & Johnson (1996) examine the vocabulary learning strategies of 850 Chinese learners of English at Beijing University, China and their effects on vocabulary size and general language learning. Gu & Johnson (ibid) intend to shed light on the strategies learners employ mostly, whether any of the strategies works better than others, and whether good strategies automatically improve language proficiency. They conclude that in contrast to popular images of Asian students, participants did not rely a great deal on memorization, but used a number of strategies as contextual guessing, skillful use of dictionaries, note-taking, paying attention to word formation, and activation of newly learned words. These strategies showed positive correlation with both vocabulary size and general language proficiency. However, other strategies as visual repetition of new words and semantic encoding and list learning, correlated negatively with one or both variables.

Lawson & Hogben (1996) observe the vocabulary learning strategies used by fifteen Australian university students while learning the meanings of new Italian words using the think-aloud protocol and interviews. The findings reveal that students regard repetition as the most important technique to acquire words deliberately. Students also use context to establish the meaning of new words. Conversely, they ignore the physical or grammatical features of words. They also find that high-scoring students use many strategies frequently whereas low-scoring students use a limited range of strategies inconsistently.

Likewise, in 2003, Fan examined the use of vocabulary learning strategies by 1,067 Hong Kong Chinese students in order to examine the relationship among the frequency of use, the perceived usefulness, and the actual usefulness of strategies through a questionnaire and a vocabulary test. The results show that students least frequently used memorization strategies, such as repetition, association, and grouping. They most frequently used strategies for reviewing known words and dictionary strategies. In addition, students who were more

proficient in English vocabulary used a wider range of strategies more often than the less proficient students (Fan, 2003).

Wen & Johnson (1997) make use of a questionnaire, three nation-wide language proficiency tests, interviews, diary studies, and on-task observation (reading) to examine learners' strategies to learn vocabulary. Wen and Johnson come to the following conclusions. First, vocabulary learning strategies and mother tongue avoidance strategies correlated positively with English language proficiency. Second, tolerating ambiguity or risk-taking strategies correlated negatively with general language proficiency. Third, management strategies, as planning, evaluation, and study habits distinguish proficient and non-proficient learners. Finally, learning purpose, attribution belief, management belief, form-focused belief, meaning-focused belief and mother tongue avoidance belief, have a strong effect on learning strategy variables.

Kemble (2003) studies first, second and third year students of German at Portsmouth University. The measuring instrument was a questionnaire that focused specifically on conscious vocabulary learning techniques such as note-taking, dictionary use, contextualization and structuring vocabulary items. The findings reveal that most of the students are unsuccessful vocabulary learners; they do not know what words knowledge mean. Some vocabulary learning strategies are transferred from one year into another and are gradually replaced by other kinds of strategies.

## **2.8. Dictionaries and Vocabulary Learning**



Recently, there has been an increasing agreement that learners, particularly at higher levels, face more troubles with the lexis of the foreign language than with its grammar or phonology (Nikolova & Taylor, 2003). In an EFL setting, where target language input is limited and opportunities to communicate in the target language and use authentic language materials are rare, learners turn to other self-directed options such as dictionaries to mend their language deficit (Kouraogo,1993) despite the common view among educationalists is that EFL learners are supposed to use dictionaries scarcely (Fraser, 1999).

Researchers have drawn little attention to EFL learners' dictionary use. Generally, researches targeted the way learners use their dictionaries and the effect of dictionary use on the different aspects of language learning. Studies on the relationship between dictionary use and vocabulary learning are considered the most important strands of research on dictionary effectiveness (Scholfield, 1997). Diverse views are hold on whether dictionaries must be used in EFL context or not and whether dictionary use is helpful, or is just a habit, encouraged by publishers to promote dictionary buy (Laufer 1993&Nesi,2000).

Traditional methods of EFL teaching emphasized on grammar, translation, and the reading of literary, rather than communicating with native speakers (Richards & Rodgers 2001). The learner's native language was considered as a "reference system" in EFL learning (ibid), and the use of bilingual dictionaries was unavoidable, and promoted by teachers. Then, educationalists reacted against the grammar-translation method to the point of banning dictionary consultation in classrooms at all. Canale and Swain stressed on learning how to communicate as a member of a specific socio-cultural community and emphasized that communicative competence does not only entail lexical knowledge, but also syntactic, pragmatic, and cultural knowledge (Canale & Swain 1980). The theory of communicative competence to the teaching of English as a foreign language led many teachers to use the target language in the classroom almost exclusively, to discourage dictionary use in

classrooms, and to neglect teaching learners effective skills of using their dictionaries, preferring students to guess meanings from contexts (Summers, 1988).

Recently, attitudes towards vocabulary teaching favor implicit, naturalistic approaches to learn vocabulary to ensure deep understanding of the lexemes (Sökmen, 1997). Prichard (2008) and Nation (1990), for instance, recommend EFL learners to use dictionaries scarcely, only as a last resort. Honeyfield (1977) states that learning vocabulary through consulting dictionaries is a form of rote learning and advised learners to avoid using dictionaries.

Similarly, Hosenfeld (1984) and Carnine, Kameenui & Coyle (1984) insist on training learners how to make guesses since unlike dictionary consultation, guessing from context does not disrupt the reading process. Miller & Gildea (1987) show how dictionary consultation is a lengthy procedure: precisely the learner has first to find the dictionary itself, then search for the intended word. Once the word is located, the right entry is found (taking account of the part of speech), and the various senses of the word are differentiated, the context of the original passage should be matched up with the contexts in the dictionary until the accurate decision is made. As a result, this long process can interrupt the continuity of the learner's thought and make him/her forget the context in which the unknown word occurred.

Another research by Tono (2001) suggests that students' use of dictionaries was not useful for reading. Still, he claimed that dictionary use might have a long term effect on students reading skill (ibid). The effectiveness of dictionaries for vocabulary learning was also the topic of a study by Rhoder & Huerster (2002) who conclude that dictionary definitions are short, abstract generalizations written in crowded, indistinct text with no concrete examples.

Moreover, McCreary & Dolezal (1999) examine the effectiveness of The American Heritage Dictionary for advanced EFL students through a multiple choice vocabulary test. The students were divided into three groups: The first group was allowed to use the

dictionary; the second group was given a short story to read t (in which the tested vocabulary was included) and was not allowed to consult their dictionaries; the third group had access to the dictionary and was given the story too. The groups scored 69%, 68%, and 79%, orderly. McCreary and Dolezal suggest that dictionaries alone are unhelpful to learn vocabulary, and that the presence of contextual information is important.

Likewise, Bensoussan et al. (1984) make use of ten different passages with multiple-choice questions to study the effects dictionary use have on 900 first-year Israeli students' reading comprehension. The results revealed that there was no noteworthy difference between dictionary users and students who did not use their dictionaries.

On the other hand, many researches demonstrate that relying on implicit vocabulary learning exclusively is insufficient. The limitations of implicit learning triggered researchers' interest in explicit vocabulary learning methods' as dictionary use. In their article on native students' dictionary use, exactly definitions, on receptive vocabulary learning, Nist & Olejnik ask: "Where has the idea come from that looking words up in a dictionary is the worst way for students to learn vocabulary" (1995, p. 172). In the past, people had a great homage to the dictionary. People believed that there exists a perfect form of language amid the wilderness of the possible forms and that dictionaries are the best source that make people closer to that perfect language. In some civilizations, the dictionary was regarded as a "lawgiver" So, teachers made great efforts to encourage and instil "the dictionary habit" in their learners.

Fan (2003) maintains that the dictionary is the most expansively used tool by EFL learners disregarding their learning backgrounds and individual differences; it is through it that the majority of them search out every detail about words. Dictionaries provide learners with precious data in every aspect of language which a non-native English teacher may not be able to supply in the clear and simple manner of a pedagogically oriented dictionary. They

contain phonological, morphological, syntactical and semantic information as well as etymological and usage information (Harmer, 2001).

Many researches demonstrate that consulting a dictionary is not detrimental to foreign language learning; dictionary use is one of the best ways to learn new words (Watanabe, 1997). Dictionary users, generally, learn more words than those who do not use a dictionary and approach the unknown words through guessing and ignoring (Laufer 1997). Words consulted in the dictionary revealed to be kept in mind better than words learnt incidentally (Mondria, 1993), or words whose meaning is given by the teacher (Hulstijn, Hollander & Greidanus 1996). Additionally, researchers find out that guessing does not work well in a number of contexts and that dictionary use is sometimes inevitable as with specialized jargons, idiomatic expressions, and low-frequency words (Nation, 2001&Parry, 1993).

Dictionary use facilitates autonomous learning, and so lessens students' dependence on teachers and parents when learning (Cubillo, 2002). Using a dictionary will also: help the learner develop autonomy: "A learner who makes good use of a dictionary will be able to continue learning outside the classroom, and this will give him considerable autonomy about the decisions he makes about his own learning" (Gairns & Redman, 2005, p. 79). Users, without training, have the ability and knowledge to search through their dictionaries and find what they need. Further, users will teach themselves how to use a particular dictionary by referring to the introductory pages at the front of the book, and be able to solve their problems. Finally, they will be so satisfied with the dictionary that they will continue using it in their learning (ibid).

Bergenholtz & Tarp (2003) state that the lexicographic function of a dictionary is to assist a specific group of users to cover the complex of needs that arise in a specific situation. Hence, language dictionaries help users in the processes of understanding language (text

reception), producing language (text production) and translating from one language into another (text translation).

Likewise, Nation (2001) regards dictionaries as an excellent resource for:

- Comprehension (decoding): looking up unfamiliar words while listening, reading or translating or confirming guesses about word meaning.
- Production (encoding): looking up words required to speak, write or translate, looking up spelling, pronunciation, meaning, etc. of known words...
- Learning: choosing words to learn or develop knowledge.

Summers (1988) states that even native learners need to use dictionaries sometimes and that the prohibition of dictionary use in classrooms was due to the mistaken view that most dictionaries used by learners are bilingual as a result of the Grammar Translation Method, which depended primarily on rote vocabulary learning, and grammar and translation exercises. Actually many researches confirmed that EFL learners constantly make use of their dictionaries and find them practical (Schmitt, 1997). Chi (2003, p. 8) claims that “the use of dictionaries is instrumentally linked to students’ academic studies and that most students believed that they could benefit from using dictionaries largely to assist learning”.

Black (1986) makes use of a test to examine the effects of dictionary use on reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge and finds that EFL learners with access to dictionaries scored better in both tests than learners who did not have access to dictionaries. Bogaards (1998) also finds that learners who used dictionaries retrieved the correct meaning more than learners who guessed the meaning from the context.

Correspondingly, Knight (1994) uses on-screen bilingual dictionaries to test dictionaries’ effectiveness on vocabulary learning and reading comprehension of intermediate university students of Spanish. The students were randomly divided into dictionary and no

dictionary users groups and were administered unexpected immediate and delayed tests after reading the article. Students' performance demonstrated that dictionary users did better than non-dictionary users. It was also found that lower-proficiency students benefited more from dictionary use than high-proficiency learners.

Contrary to researchers who claimed that dictionary consultation interrupts the continuity of the reading process can have a negative impact on both word and text comprehension, Watanabe (1997) finds that access to dictionaries or marginal glosses enhanced students' comprehension. In another study, Szczepaniak (2003) investigates the effectiveness of the third edition of the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English on advanced Polish learners of English' understanding of contextually modified idioms and finds a slightly positive influence of dictionary consultation on comprehension performance.

Schmitt (1997) investigates the vocabulary learning strategies of six hundred Japanese learners by means of a questionnaire Schmitt finds that using dictionaries was the most used strategy for vocabulary learning (85 %), while guessing from context was the second most used strategy with a percentage of (74%). Chen (1998) also examines the vocabulary learning strategies of more than two hundred Taiwanese students. The findings reveal that dictionary use was one of the most used and helpful strategies.

In addition, Chang (2004) finds, in his experiment with 117 university students, that dictionary use can improve vocabulary learning and retention. Similar results are found by Hulstijn, Hollander & Greidanus (1996) who discover that dictionary users in their study retained words more than learners without access to dictionaries. Furthermore, Scholfield (1999, p. 31) notes that "even if it were shown that guessing alone led to better retention than dictionary use, the latter would still have the advantage that what is being retained is likely to be more accurate".

Cowie states that “pedagogical dictionaries should help the learner to be aware of, and if possible avoid, common sources of error in the language he is attempting to acquire” (1979, p. 82). Consulting a dictionary is also indispensable for developing EFL learners’ sociolinguistic competence (Tseng, 2003). That is why, guidance and training on effective dictionary use is essential as dictionary consultation not only helps learners understand words, but a first step to learn these words (Gonzalez 1999).

However, Stahl & Fairbanks (1986) emphasize that definitional information (via access to a dictionary) together with contextual information (via access to words in context) are more effective than each independently to learn vocabulary. Actually, the combination of guessing meaning from context and dictionary use results in deeper processing, longer retention and successful learning of words (Nikolova, 2002).

Likewise, Fraser (1999) and Tang (1997) also stress that balancing dictionary use with other lexical processing strategies as guessing from context and ignoring unknown words. Sökmen (1997, p.239) states: “The pendulum has swung from direct teaching of vocabulary (the grammar translation method) to incidental (the communicative approach) and now, laudably, back to the middle: implicit and explicit learning”.

## 2.9. Electronic Dictionary Use

Traditional methods to vocabulary learning and teaching are confronted by modern and inventive methods taking advantage of technological development. Advanced computer tools, for instance, have enabled both teachers and students to use new techniques in vocabulary teaching/learning. Today, the electronic dictionary is no longer an innovation for EFL learners around the world. The literature on dictionary use included a lot of observations about the advantages of electronic dictionaries in respect of paper ones.

The use of electronic dictionaries is still a new phenomenon and studies in this area are few and recent though some 1980s experiments with online glosses were reviewed (Roby, 1999). Leffa (1992) is one of the pioneering researchers who examined the effects of using electronic dictionaries in comparison with paper dictionaries by 20 Brazilian learners of English while reading. The results showed that students were able to understand 86% of the passage with the electronic glossary and only 62% with the paper one. Additionally, the electronic dictionary users used 50% less time than the paper dictionary users. Leffa claims that while using the paper dictionary, the learner loses the context of the passage while searching for the dictionary entry whereas the speed of access with the electronic dictionary permits the context to remain in the short term memory.

Likewise, Koga (1995) examines the effectiveness of an online electronic dictionaries and paper dictionaries while reading. Forty Japanese advanced students were asked to read six texts under three conditions (no dictionary, paper dictionary, and electronic dictionary). Koga finds that the participants read more rapidly in the no-dictionary than the electronic dictionary, and at last at the paper dictionary condition. Koga also notes that the electronic



dictionary use minimize interference in the reading process which, in turn, will facilitate comprehension.

Inami, Nishikata, Nakayama, & Shimizu (1997) study the effectiveness of a CD-ROM dictionary in comparison with a paper dictionary in learning words' meaning and spelling. The scores in the CD-ROM dictionary users were higher than the paper dictionary users.

In addition, Tang (1997) studies electronic dictionary use by 254 Chinese students of English and 20 EFL teachers in Canada. Participants in the study considered their electronic dictionaries more advantageous because of their portability, speed, sound function, and L1 translations. Teachers, however, showed worries about their students' use of electronic dictionaries.

Fauss (2001) generates a wide-ranging list of advantages and disadvantages in electronic dictionaries. Advantages include

1. The spell check which automatically verify for learners if a word is misspelled.
2. The word search history which automatically records the lately searched words.
3. The memory that enables the user to archive needed words.
4. The jump function which enables the user to move from one dictionary to another within the same dictionary.
5. The English word search assists for more specifically focused searches.
6. Idiom and phrasal verb look-ups.
7. Compound word look-up.
8. English conversation phrasebook

## 9. Voice function for pronunciation with speaker and/or earphone.

Disadvantages include

1. Problems during installation.
2. Making some actions without request.
3. obligation of shortcuts in desktops
4. Need for key entry on first use
5. Need of reboot once setting up

The use of multimedia and hypermedia as a means of exemplification certainly distinguish electronic from paper dictionaries. “Verbal illustrations are not only used to supplement definitions, but are also employed to put the abstract information provided by grammar codes in concrete form” (Heuberger, 2000, p. 52). Learners generally find them useful and interesting (ibid).

Taylor & Chan (1994) state that the interest of innovation attracts students to consult electronic dictionaries, and if a learning tool is accepted by the students, it will be helpful for learning. Electronic dictionaries offer learners a great lexical data in any field in addition to definitions, syntactic information, examples, synonyms, hyponyms...etc. Exercises, pictures and games can also be provided. Moreover, they permit poor spellers to type in a “sound alike” version of the needed word and select from a range of near matches the dictionary suggests (Nesi 1999).

Although more learners appear to take advantage of these technologies, many educationalists are worried about their possible negative effects on language learning and claim that they may present users with the same traps if they are used improperly (Odlin, 2001). Many researchers are still in doubt of electronic dictionaries aid in learning and claim

that these apparent modernizations are just versions of lexicographically old traditional paper dictionaries. They believe that electronic dictionaries cause misunderstanding and dissatisfaction as they supply incorrect contents (Weschler & Pitts 2000).

Some think that the simplicity of use may result in superficial processing of the searched for words and will therefore be harmful to retention. Weschler & Pitts (2000) describe this fact as “the absorbing sponge syndrome... that ...is rarely squeezed”. Another problem with electronic dictionaries is that most EDs necessitate some knowledge of electronic devices as they may cause some technical troubles which can be a problem for students with unstable social conditions (Carr, 1997).

## **Conclusion**

Chapter two was devoted to review the literature related to vocabulary knowledge and the use of dictionaries to improve it. Vocabulary learning is an important area in EFL learning research. There exist different types of vocabulary and different strategies to learn vocabulary. Vocabulary learning strategies have long been recognized as processes of utmost importance when learning a foreign language. Dictionary use and guessing from context are considered the most commonly used strategies. Many researchers and teachers tend to encourage the guessing strategy and discourage the use of the dictionary. However dictionaries are also considered a useful reference tool to develop learners' word knowledge.

## **Part Two: The study**

### **Chapter three: Learner Questionnaire**

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## Introduction

Despite the dynamic growth of the research into dictionary use since its inspection, we are still far from getting definitive answers to many important questions regarding dictionary use. We still do not know much about how dictionaries are perceived and used by students. We are also ignorant of students' attitudes towards electronic dictionaries and how they incorporate them in their learning. So, this questionnaire seeks to identify students' beliefs about vocabulary learning and to gather information about dictionary use among second year students of English at the University of Frères Mentouri Constantine 1.

### 3.2. Description of the Learner Questionnaire

This questionnaire survey is designed to uncover students' views about vocabulary learning/teaching, ownership of dictionaries, monolingual English dictionary use, difficulties of dictionary use, and dictionary instruction among students at the University of Frères Mentouri Constantine 1. Most of the questions are multiple choice questions. The questionnaire also includes some open-ended questions. In addition, students are allowed to add any further comments, remarks and ideas they might find interesting as the questionnaire included an open question at the end (see Appendix I).

Care was taken to avoid ambiguity in the phrasing of questions. The questionnaire was in English. It consists of 20 questions categorized into five main parts.

- **Part One: Vocabulary learning/teaching (Q1 Q5)** This part is about vocabulary learning and teaching. The students are asked about the importance of vocabulary and vocabulary teaching, in addition to the difficulties they encounter and the strategies they use to learn

vocabulary as well as their opinions concerning using dictionaries as a strategy to learn vocabulary.

- **Part Two:** *Dictionary ownership (Q6 Q9)* In this part, respondents are asked to provide information about the number and types of dictionaries they own.
- **Part Three:** *Monolingual dictionary use(Q10 Q16)* This part contains questions about students ownership of monolingual dictionaries (when they first start using them, how often , where, and for which purposes they use them, which type of information they consult most often and how they really use them) .
- **Part Four:** *Difficulties of dictionary use (Q17 Q19)* This part enquires students' problems and difficulties in using monolingual dictionaries.
- **Part Five:** *Dictionary instruction (Q20 Q21)* This part asks whether respondents need to receive any instruction on dictionary use and if they had been taught how to use their dictionaries.

### **3. 3. Population and Sampling**

The sample consists of 80 second year students of English at the department of Letters and English language at the University of Frères Mentouri Constantine 1. The participants' English learning experience is homogeneous in general. They had at least 09 years of experience in studying English. They are both males and females (males 10 and females 70) and do not differ in terms of age very much. The reason for selecting this population was mainly easy accessibility.

### **3. 4. Administration of the Learner Questionnaire**

The learner questionnaire was distributed personally by the researcher at the beginning of the second term of the school year 2012-2013. The administration was conducted in regular

classes. The aim of this questionnaire was introduced to the participants. Students were also informed that they could ask any question, whenever required. The participants were also notified that their responses will be used only for research purposes and that it is important to answer each question as honestly as possible and to reflect on what they typically think and do. The students were requested to answer the questionnaire by ticking the appropriate box or making full statements whenever required. There was no fixed time for the subjects to answer the questions. It takes the students about 20 to 25 minutes to complete this questionnaire. The questionnaire was finished in class and collected immediately.

In line with the principle that anonymity should be respected, students were not asked for their names. Moreover, we do not believe that names are of any practical value of eliciting information. On the contrary, if we ask them for their names they may be cautious and hesitant to give us real information (Hartmann, 1999).

### **3.5. Results and Analysis of the Learner Questionnaire**

The return rate of the questionnaires was 100%. So, the total number of questionnaire copies was 80. Then, the percentages were calculated. After the analysis of the results of our questionnaire, we got data about students' vocabulary learning and dictionary use. In this light, students' ideas about vocabulary learning/teaching will be firstly presented. Then, a general profile of students dictionary ownership, use, skills, problems, and training will be portrayed. Below is an account of the results obtained.

Most of the questions in that questionnaire are multiple choice questions. However, some questions were open, and the degree of details given depended largely on the subjects. Although they were encouraged to provide as much detail as they can, it was quite frequent that in many cases learners did not answer these questions. A multiple choice format was not

a viable option for these questions because of the astounding number of potential choices and the space they would take.

## **I. Vocabulary Learning**

**1. Do you think that Vocabulary is an important aspect in language learning?**

- Yes
- No
- I do not know

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>96.25%</b>
<b>No</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3.75%</b>
<b>I do not know</b>	<b>00</b>	<b>00%</b>

**Table 05: Students' Perception of the Importance of Vocabulary in Language Learning**

About 96.52 % of the students reported that vocabulary is an important aspect in language learning. Only 3.75% of the respondents answered that vocabulary is not an important aspect in language learning. No student (00%) chooses the “I do not know” option.

For a large majority of learners (50), the importance of vocabulary is due to its role in communication in foreign language. Some participants (11) also acknowledged that a limited vocabulary leads directly to school and classroom troubles, and often subsequent failure. Some other students (07) stated that a rich vocabulary allows them to develop other skills and have a direct, positive impact on their capacity for building up their language proficiency as a whole. Other responses (09) observed the importance of vocabulary in improving chances of



employment (7) or enjoying travelling (2). On the other hand, the three students who responded that vocabulary was not important did not justify their answers.

**2. Do you think that English vocabulary is difficult to learn?**

- Yes
- No
- I do not know

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>71.25%</b>
<b>No</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>28.75%</b>
<b>I do not know</b>	<b>00</b>	<b>00%</b>

**Table 06: Students’ Difficulties in Learning Vocabulary**

Fifty seven students (71.25%) out of 80 respondents reported that English vocabulary is difficult to learn. On the other hand, twenty three students (28.75%) answered that they do not find learning English vocabulary complex. No responses included the option “I do not know”.

Among the difficulties reported a lot by students was recalling words (30). Other difficulties in learning English vocabulary were due to words combinations as collocations, phrasal verbs, idioms, compounds and proverbs (07). English usage was also considered a source of difficulty to eight students who assumed that it is hard for them to master informal vs. formal English vocabulary. Many participants (12) claimed that they feel too anxious when trying to express themselves in English and learn multiple sense words. The participants who answered that they do not find vocabulary learning difficult reported that English

vocabulary learning is easy and enjoyable especially if the way of learning and the material used is interesting.

**3. Do you think that vocabulary should be taught as a separate subject in the classroom? Why?**

- Yes
- No
- I do not know

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>63.75%</b>
<b>No</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>36.25%</b>
<b>I do not know</b>	<b>00</b>	<b>00%</b>

**Table 07: Students’ Opinions about Vocabulary Teaching**

It is noteworthy that 29 of the total number of the participants (36.25%) saw that Vocabulary is better learned in an indirect manner. Some students (06) reported that the role of a teacher consisted only in promoting learners’ autonomy by providing them with vocabulary learning strategies. Others (18) preferred incidental vocabulary learning through listening and reading. A number of participants (05) also showed preference for consulting dictionaries for unknown words.

On the other hand, the majority of the participants (51) believed that vocabulary should be taught in a clear and systematic way through a focused, conscious study. These participants believed that they should be explicitly taught both words and word learning strategies. For the majority of participants (50) this will help them better understand the vocabulary items. One student answered that direct vocabulary teaching will help better to retain the words for later use. No responses included the option “I do not know”.

#### 4. What are the strategies you use to learn vocabulary?

	Number	Percentage
<b>Determination Strategies</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>41.25%</b>
<b>Social Strategies</b>	<b>02</b>	<b>2.5%</b>
<b>Memory Strategies</b>	<b>00</b>	<b>00%</b>
<b>Cognitive Strategies</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>26.25%</b>
<b>Metacognitive Strategies</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>26.25%</b>
<b>No answer</b>	<b>03</b>	<b>3.75%</b>

**Table 08: Students' Vocabulary Learning Strategies**

To analyze this research question we made use of Schmitt (1997) taxonomy (p. 66) as we believe it is thorough and detailed. The most frequently applied strategies were determination strategies (41.25%) in particular guessing (15), analysing words' parts (10), and consulting the dictionary (09). An important percentage of students (26.25%) used cognitive strategies. Specifically, they reported that they liked repeating the new words in order to learn them either orally or in a written form. An equal percentage of students (26.25%) reported making use of metacognitive strategies as use of media (12), ignoring unknown words (05) and practicing on a regular basis (04). Only 2.5% of students resort to Social strategies. Two participants mentioned that they ask teachers and classmates to learn words. No student reported using memory strategies. Three students did not answer the question.

#### 5. Do you think that using dictionaries is a good strategy to learn vocabulary? Why?

➤ Yes

➤ No

➤ I do not know□

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>95%</b>
<b>No</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3.75%</b>
<b>I do not know</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1.25%</b>

**Table 09: Students' Perception of Dictionary Use as a Vocabulary Learning Strategy**

Overwhelmingly, subjects considered the dictionary a good strategy to learn vocabulary (95%). The majority of students (70) assumed that dictionaries provide them with all the types of information they need to know about words individually. Some participants (06) reported that dictionary use is the easiest and fastest way to learn new words independently

As it can be seen in table 09, only a small percentage of respondents (3.75%) felt that dictionary use is a bad strategy to learn vocabulary. These three participants reported that a dictionary is impractical to use, is too heavy to carry and pocket dictionaries do not meet their needs. The other student preferred to use inference skills and to be independent of the information provided by the dictionary. Here, students' opinions can be a reflection of their teachers' opinions that dictionary consultation must be the last resort student use to get the meanings of words.

## II. Dictionary Use

### Ownership of Dictionaries

#### 6. Do you own a dictionary? How many?

- Yes
- No
- I own more than one

	Number	Percentage
Yes	71	88.75%
No	9	11.25%
Yes, more than one	31	38.75%

**Table 10: Students' Dictionary Ownership**

About 88.75% of the students owned dictionaries. Only nine (11.25%) students had no dictionaries and (38.75%) students owned more than one dictionary. This can indicate that the subjects own different types of dictionaries, or they seem not to be satisfied with a certain dictionary and keep on searching for a better dictionary.

#### 7. What is your priority when you buy a new dictionary?

- Personal preference
- The information provided
- Recommendation by a teacher
- Recommendation by a bookshop, a friend, or parents
- Publication information

- The price □
- The size and design □
- others□

	<b>Number</b>	<b>percentage</b>
<b>Personal preference</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>56.25%</b>
<b>The information provided</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>37.5%</b>
<b>Recommendation by a teacher</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>18.75%</b>
<b>Recommendation by a bookshop, a friend, or parents</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>15%</b>
<b>Publication information</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>12.5%</b>
<b>The price</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6.25%</b>
<b>The size and design</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7.5%</b>
<b>Others</b>	<b>03</b>	<b>3,75%</b>

**Table 11: Students’ Conditions of Dictionary Purchase**

In this question, we asked students to choose among eight priorities: Personal preference, the information provided, recommendation by a teacher, recommendation by a bookshop, a friend, or parents, the name the publisher and the year of publication, the price, the size and the design, and others.

Personal preference (56.25%) tops the consideration list, closely followed by the information provided (37.5%). It can be seen that teachers play an important role in recommending which dictionary to be bought by students (18, 75%). Purchasing a dictionary at the recommendation of the bookshop, friend or parents came at the fourth rank (15%) before publication information (12, 5%). Size and design take the sixth place (7, 5%). Price came last (6.25).

The participants were also asked to specify any other reason, which did not appear on the list. Among written responses, students answered that they simply use the dictionary which has been used by other family members, or that their dictionaries were gifts, or that they could not remember.

**8. What type (s) of dictionary do you own? You can cross more than one box**

- Monolingual Dictionary
- Bilingual Dictionary
- Bilingualized Dictionary
- Electronic Dictionary
- Specialized Dictionary
- Others

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Monolingual</b>	55	68.75%
<b>Bilingual</b>	40	50%
<b>Bilingualized</b>	5	6.25%
<b>Electronic</b>	54	67.5%
<b>Specialised</b>	10	12.5%
<b>Others</b>	00	00%

**Table 12: Type(s) of Dictionaries Owned by Students**

The results showed that monolingual dictionaries occupied the first rank (68.75%). 50 % reported that they owned a bilingual dictionary. The bilingualized dictionaries were owned by only 6.25% of the students. Electronic dictionaries seem to have become a popular tool for

students as 67.5 % of the students reported they owned Electronic dictionaries. 12.5% of the students owned specialised dictionaries.

The reliance on monolingual dictionaries seems high among the participants. This can indicate that the bilingual dictionary does not meet all the lexical needs of advanced students. The nature of studying in the department of Letters and English language might also be the reason why students did not own bilingual, bilingualised, or specialised dictionaries. The results also demonstrate that the participants are aware of the new types of dictionaries as electronic ones.

**9. Which type(s) of dictionary do you use most often? You can cross more than one box.**

- Monolingual Dictionary
- Bilingual Dictionary
- Bilingualised Dictionary
- Electronic Dictionary
- Specialized Dictionary
- Others

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Monolingual</b>	40	50%
<b>Bilingual</b>	20	25%
<b>Specialised</b>	5	6.25%
<b>Electronic</b>	45	56.25%
<b>Bilingualized</b>	10	12.5%
<b>Others</b>	00	00%



**Table 13: The Dictionary Used Most Frequently by Students**

Here, the students were asked to indicate the dictionary types they use most frequently. Again the monolingual dictionary took an advanced rank among students with a percentage of (50%). In addition, the majority of students are very active electronic dictionary users. The electronic dictionaries were the most used type with 56.25% of the respondents. Bilingual dictionaries were frequently used by 25% of the participants. The bilingualised dictionaries were used by 12.5% of the students. Looking at the results, we notice that specialized dictionaries are only used by 6.25% of the students.

The percentage of reported use of monolingual and electronic dictionaries looks radically high compared to the other dictionary types. It is also clear that the types owned correspond to the ones used to a great extent. Again, the nature of a student's learning and the amount of English involved can be a determining factor in students' use of the different types of dictionaries. It may also be due to the primacy of encoding needs of the subjects over their decoding needs. In addition, students' vocabulary at that level is extensive enough to be able to use a monolingual dictionary.

### **III. Monolingual English Dictionary Use**

**10. If, you use a monolingual dictionary, provide the following details about your dictionary: Title, Publisher Name , Date of publication, edition, compiler(s),**

	<b>Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary</b>	<b>Cambridge Advanced Learner's dictionary</b>	<b>Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English</b>	<b>Collins COBUILD Dictionary</b>
<b>Number</b>	67	11	2	00

<b>Percentage</b>	83.75%	13.75%	2.5%	00%
	<b>Publisher Name</b>			
<b>Number</b>	61	8	2	00
<b>Percentage</b>	76.25%	10%	2.5%	00%
	<b>Date of Publication</b>			
<b>Number</b>	21	4	2	00
<b>Percentage</b>	26.25%	5%	2.5%	00%
	<b>Edition</b>			
<b>Number</b>	13	3	1	00
<b>Percentage</b>	16,25	3.75%	1.25%	00%
	<b>Compiler(s)/ Author(s)</b>			
<b>Number</b>	8	1	00	00
<b>Percentage</b>	10%	1.25%	00%	00%

**Table 14: Students' Dictionary Identification**

Subjects' recall of such dictionary features was very poor, except titles and publisher names. The whole identification of dictionaries was fully unachievable except by some oxford dictionary users. The most popular monolingual English dictionaries among the students were oxford advanced learner's dictionaries (83.75%). Cambridge Advanced Learner's dictionaries were the second most popular dictionaries among students (13.75). Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English was owned by two students and Collins COBUILD Dictionary was not owned by any respondent. In many cases, the exact titles of the dictionaries and publishers' names were not reported and most of the students simply wrote down brand names, such as Oxford, Longman, etc.

**11. When did you first start using your monolingual English dictionary?**

- At primary school
- At middle school
- At secondary school
- At university
- I do not remember

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>At primary school</b>	1	1.25%
<b>At middle school</b>	6	7.5%
<b>At secondary school</b>	20	25%
<b>At university</b>	47	58.75%
<b>I do not remember</b>	3	3.75%

**Table 15: Students' Start to Use Dictionaries**

Four choices were offered, and ticked as follows: at university (58, 75%), at secondary school (25%), at middle school: (7.5%) at primary school: (1.25%). In addition, 3.75% of the subjects claim that they do not remember when they started using dictionaries.

It was not surprising to find that most students started using their English monolingual dictionaries at university. This might be mainly due to student's branch of learning. 20% of students indicated that they acquired their English dictionaries in secondary school which means that these students reach the university level equipped with some experience of using this type of dictionary. The low percentage of monolingual dictionary use at the middle school can be explained by the use of bilingual dictionaries at that stage of EFL learning. At the primary school, we do not believe that children need such a type of dictionaries and know

how to use them. They often depend on their parents and teachers to learn words of their native language.

**12. Where do you often use your monolingual English dictionary?**

- At home
- In class
- At the library
- Others (Specify) .....

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>At home</b>	52	65%
<b>In class</b>	23	28.75%
<b>At the library</b>	5	6.25%
<b>Others</b>	00	00%

**Table 16: Students’ Contexts of Dictionary Use**

The majority of students (65%) use their dictionary at home. Only 28.75 % and 6.25% of the participants reported they use their dictionaries in class and at the library respectively. In view of the general rule that dictionaries are not usually appreciated by teachers, the lack of libraries and students limited time to visit them, these findings were expected.

**13. For which purposes or learning activities do you use your monolingual English dictionary?**

- Reading
- Writing
- Speaking
- Listening

- Translation
- Others (Specify) .....

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Reading</b>	56	70%
<b>Writing</b>	49	61.25
<b>Speaking</b>	22	27.5%
<b>Listening</b>	13	16.25%
<b>Translation</b>	40	50%
<b>Others</b>	05	6.25%

**Table 17: Students’ Purposes of Dictionary Use**

The dictionary is a multipurpose reference book but in the case of foreign learners it is mainly used for pedagogical purposes. We were interested in knowing for what purposes our subjects use their dictionaries. The results show that dictionaries are used by students for different activities. The main activity where subjects quite frequently use their dictionaries was reading (70%) followed by writing (61.25) and translating (50%). Fewer students used them for speaking (27.5), and listening (16.25). Five students used their dictionaries for other activities. They used them for other purposes like homeworks, entertaining activities, and revision. Two students reported that they read their dictionaries without looking for anything in particular to enrich their vocabulary and general knowledge. These figures show that students are more involved in decoding activities such as reading and translation rather than encoding ones like listening and speaking.

**14. Which type of information do you consult most often in your monolingual**

**English dictionary?**

- Meaning
- Spelling
- Pronunciation
- Grammar
- Usage
- Collocations
- Etymology
- Frequency
- Introduction And Appendices
- Others

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Meaning</b>	45	56.25%
<b>Spelling</b>	18	22.5%
<b>Pronunciation</b>	9	11.25%
<b>Grammar</b>	2	2.5%
<b>Usage</b>	1	1.25%
<b>Collocations</b>	1	1.25%
<b>Etymology</b>	1	1.25%
<b>Frequency</b>	00	00%
<b>Introduction and Appendices</b>	00	00%
<b>Others</b>	6	7.5%

**Table 18: Students' Reference Needs**

Dictionaries provide different types of information, so we wanted to know whether the information that is available is exploited and which category receives the main focus. Three types of information appear to form the core of users' reference needs which are meaning, and spelling and pronunciation to a less degree.

Meaning was found to be the type of information most frequently sought by students (56.25%). The results also show an interest among monolingual dictionary users in spelling (22.5%) and pronunciation (11.25%). We notice low figures for grammar (2.5%), usage (1.25%), collocations (1.25%), and etymology (1.25%). Frequency was not selected at all.

We also wanted to know whether our subjects make use of the front matters and the appendices of their dictionaries. The results showed that 00% percent of the subjects consulted the front matter and the appendices.

These figures assert clearly students' preoccupation with meaning rather than other types of information. This interest in meaning suggests that for students the dictionary is basically an inventory of words. The somehow high percentage for spelling may be due to the fact that spelling information is inherently and implicitly present in dictionary entries. This finding can also be attributed to the nature of the English spelling which includes silent letters, double consonants that may represent difficulties for EFL students. The percentage for pronunciation can be attributed to the fact that this language aspect is very important to communicate in the foreign language. But it seems that students do not take advantage of the other riches found in dictionaries. Though grammar, usage, collocations, etymology, etc constitute a major problem for foreign learners, we found that learners rarely consult them.

#### **15. How would you check a word in your monolingual English dictionary?**

- **Method 1:** Open the dictionary and read the definition of the word.

- **Method 2:** Analyse the context of the unknown word, find the correct entry, choose the right sub-entry, and apply the meaning to the original context in order to decide if the search is effective.
- **Method 3:** A more detailed and sophisticated way. (Explain)

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Method 1</b>	47	58.75%
<b>Method 2</b>	29	36,25%
<b>Method 3</b>	4	5%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 19: Students Reference Skills**

It is worth noting that 47 respondents choose the first option, ie they simply open the dictionary and read the definition of the word. Analysing the context of the unknown word, finding the correct entry, choosing the right sub-entry, and then applying the meaning to the original context in order to decide if the search is effective was the process used by 36,25 % of the participants in the study to check words in their dictionaries. 5% of students said they used other detailed methods. These students added that if they were not satisfied, they would further search for examples, usage' information, other word' categories and related words as antonyms and synonyms.

#### **IV. Difficulties of Dictionary Use**

**16. Do you think you are an efficient dictionary user? Are you confident about your dictionary skills?**

- Yes
- No



- I do not know

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>62.5%</b>
<b>No</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>37.5%</b>
<b>I do not know</b>	<b>00</b>	<b>00%</b>

**Table 20: Students' Dictionary Use Problems**

This question produced a dominance of 'yes' answers (62.5%) over 'no' answers (37.5%), which may suggest a feeling of self-confidence and a tendency of students to blame the dictionary rather than themselves for any shortcomings in the look-up process.

**17. What problems do you face while using your dictionary?**

- The information you look for is not present in the dictionary .
- The information provided by the dictionary is not thorough and comprehensive .
- You have poor or no skills in dictionary use .
- You have no difficulty .
- Others (please specify)  .....

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>No information</b>	31	38.75%
<b>Incomplete and incomprehensive information</b>	34	42.5%
<b>Poor reference skills</b>	7	8.75%
<b>No difficulty</b>	5	6.25%
<b>Others</b>	3	3.75%

**Table 21: Students' Sources of Dictionary Use Problems**

Here, the students were asked to choose from a list of difficulties they may encounter when using dictionaries. The answers give an interesting overview of the problems.

The information provided by the dictionary is not thorough and comprehensive was the common problem the students face while using their dictionaries (42.5%). The next difficulty was the lack of the information they are looking for reported by 38.75%. This can be due to the students being unable to locate what they are looking for. Seven subjects (8.75%) stated that their unskilled use of dictionaries was the source of their difficulties. This may imply that student's problems in using their dictionaries can be solved by more practice and proper training. Only 5% of the participants claimed to have no difficulty at all when they use their dictionaries.

In addition to these dictionary use problems, one student said that it takes too much time to consult the dictionary as s/he faces problems with the alphabetical order. Another student stated that it is difficult to find the right sense in polysemous words and that it is also difficult to check an unknown word with a wrong spelling. another said that the examples provided are not sufficient and that s/he experienced problems when looking up special words as technical terms and idioms.

This indicates that students attribute the bulk of their difficulties to the dictionary rather than their inadequate use, skills or knowledge as only few participants acknowledged that they have problems with their dictionary skills. This can reflect that students seem to be unaware of their dictionary use problems.

**18. Do you think that electronic dictionaries are easier to use than paper ones? How?**

➤ Yes

- No
- I do not know

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>82.5%</b>
<b>No</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>10%</b>
<b>I do not know</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7.5%</b>

**Table 22: Students Perception of Electronic Dictionaries**

The majority of students answered that electronic dictionaries are easier to use than paper dictionaries (82.5%). The main reasons were easiness and speed to search entries (20), availability of a sound function (voiced pronunciation) (09), and ability to look up a word whose spelling is unknown and uncertain (09). Students also pointed out the facility of recording the words looked up for learning or for comparing them to the context (07), the availability of idioms collocations and examples search function (11), and simultaneous accessibility to several dictionaries (10).

On the other hand, 10% answered that paper dictionaries are easier to use than electronic ones. Five participants claimed that they are accustomed to their paper dictionaries. The other three students claimed that searching through printed dictionaries is less tiring than staring at screens or that electronic dictionary use needs some special knowledge in computing. Some other students (7.5%) reported that they do not know as they do not own an electronic dictionary.

## **V. Dictionary Instruction**

### **19. Do you think that you need instruction on how to use your dictionary?**

- Yes

- No
- I do not know

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>21.25%</b>
<b>No</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>67.5%</b>
<b>I do not know</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>11.25%</b>

**Table 23: Students' Need for Dictionary Instruction**

This question was concerned with the instruction of reference skills. 21.25 % of the student maintained that they need instruction on how to use their dictionaries, while 67.5% answered negatively, leaving 11.25% undecided and not certain whether they need the training.

Those who answered positively may be still unfamiliar with the dictionary, and want to know how to use their dictionaries more effectively. For those who answered negatively, it seems that there is an extreme view that dictionary consultation is what everyone knows. They may think that dictionary use is an easy task and that dictionaries are user-friendly.

**20. Have you ever been taught how to use your dictionary at university?**

- Yes
- No
- A little

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>18.75%</b>
<b>No</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>21.25%</b>
<b>a little</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>60%</b>

**Table 24: Students' Receiving Dictionary Instruction at University Level**

We wanted to elicit data on whether students have received any instruction regarding English dictionary use. 18, 75% of the participants reported they have received guidance on the use of their dictionaries. 21.25 % answered that they did not receive any training. 60% of the subjects answered that they have received only little instruction on how to use their dictionaries. So, it seems that training on dictionary use provides only superficial instructions and may be concluded in just one or two lessons.

**Add any other points you want to make about your experience with dictionaries**

This open question provided respondents with the opportunity to include any further remarks or ideas about vocabulary learning and dictionary use. This question was only answered by 14 students out of the whole sample. That is, only 6% of the respondents took advantage of the opportunity.

Some commentators (05) focused on how vocabulary should be taught. Three participants reported that they had found new ways to develop their vocabulary on their own by listening to songs in English, watching TV, and making notebooks. Two other students wished that their dictionaries include proper nouns, and pictures. One commented that Monolingual Learner's dictionary is a powerful tool to study English in that it forces you to

forget your native language. Two students complained about education at the university and maintained that lessons are boring. One respondent wished good luck.

### **3.6. Discussion**

Vocabulary is no longer a neglected aspect in language learning. Learners, teachers, and researchers agree that vocabulary is a crucial aspect in the process of learning a language, because words are the prime conveyors of meaning and carry the main information while communicating. As Wilkins (1972) states, “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (p. 111).

Vocabulary development is considered a big challenge for learners and academic success (Nagy et al, 1985). Likewise, Questionnaire data indicated that most of the participants (96.52 %) appear to consider vocabulary an important aspect in language learning. They believed that a rich vocabulary has a direct, positive impact on their learning and life in general.

Participants in this study were aware of the fact that vocabulary learning is a complex task. 71.25% of the respondents reported that English vocabulary is difficult to learn. They stressed some difficulties associated with recalling and using words as well as words combinations. That is why; many participants believed that vocabulary is better learnt in a direct manner. These participants believed that they should be explicitly taught both words and vocabulary learning strategies as Nation (2001) points out that EFL learners need to know some words in order to understand unsimplified texts. Consequently, he states that direct vocabulary learning is important for EFL learners as a result of the limitation of time they can spend on English learning. So, vocabulary deserves to occupy a substantial part of teaching and learning programmes.

Concerning the approaches to learning vocabulary, the results provide a range of procedures that students access when attempting to acquire new words. The most popular strategies were determination strategies (41.25%) in particular guessing, analysing words' parts, and consulting the dictionary, followed by cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

When trying to discover the meaning of a word, normally, the teacher is often the primary source of information by providing an example of use, a synonym, a definition or the equivalent term in the L1. In addition, classmates or friends may also help learners fill knowledge gaps (Schmitt, 1997). However, these social techniques were scarcely reported by the participants in this study.

The popularity of inferencing from context is therefore in accordance with the literature and the research studies mentioned in the review of literature (Neubach and Cohen (1988), O' Harra (2004), Goulden, Nation, and Read (1990) ). The results suggest that lexical guessing from the context is a useful process, whose importance has not only been identified by researchers but also accepted by learners themselves. Although learning from context may be a good way to enhance work knowledge, we cannot guarantee that the student guessing is always correct. This process is really dangerous and leading to many pitfalls (Nation, 1990). The learner has to possess an adequate level of vocabulary as well as sufficient background knowledge of the content for guessing to be effective. Moreover, if the context is not rich enough in clues, the learner will be in trouble (Schmitt, 1997: 209).

Word part analysis is also a dangerous strategy (Laufer, 1997). Laufer contends that a word is not always the sum of its parts, i.e. "shortcomings" does not mean short visits, but faults. What is even worse is that some students go on reading ignoring the difficult word which may leave a gap in their understanding of the subject at hand.

Dictionaries were considered a helpful strategy to learn vocabulary by most students. The participants considered the dictionary one of the most valuable sources of input for learning vocabulary. They considered dictionaries a good resource for decoding, encoding, and learning purposes. 88.75% of the students owned dictionaries. The primary consideration in purchasing these dictionaries was personal preference (56.25%), more than the information provided, teachers' recommendation, or publication information. Participants seem to follow Samuel Johnson saying "Dictionaries are like watches: the worst is better than none". However, it should be noted that to use a dictionary successfully, learners must have enough knowledge to differentiate between useful and unhelpful dictionaries and know about the different functions and facilities of different dictionaries. Hence, teachers' instructions on how to choose and use dictionaries are indispensable.

Monolingual dictionary ownership exceeded other types of dictionaries. 68.75% of the students owned monolingual dictionaries, compared to 50 % of bilingual dictionary owners. The bilingualized dictionaries were owned by only a small proportion of learners (6.25%). The results also showed little interest in special dictionaries (12.5%) and a high ownership of electronic dictionaries. Most of the participants (50%) also reported that they used their monolingual English dictionaries most frequently though the preference for bilingual dictionary use by all EFL dictionary users has been repeatedly confirmed in the previous studies of dictionary use. The results also indicated that students used their electronic dictionaries most frequently (56.25%).

To a large extent dictionary use depends on the tasks students use dictionaries for. The nature of the study and the level of the participants seem to be the main reasons for these results. That is why, Laufer & Melamed (1994) state that at lower levels, bilingual dictionaries serve as the main entrance to the foreign language; monolingual dictionaries, on



the other hand, are particularly indicated for intermediate or advanced learners. At lower levels, bilingual dictionaries are especially useful for production and comprehension; at intermediate levels, bilingual dictionaries are more efficient for production, whereas monolingual ones are more useful for comprehension; and at advanced levels, monolingual dictionaries tend to be the most efficient both in terms of production and comprehension.

In recent years, a lot of technological developments appeared and spread around. The invention of electronic dictionaries has taken place in the operational processes of teaching and learning in ESL/EFL. Students find them very tempting and valued the ease of using them. That electronic dictionaries were the most regularly used type of dictionaries is not surprising, since electronic dictionaries are easily and quickly accessed as they are nowadays available on students' electronic devices as mobile phones, laptops, and ipods which can encourage dictionary use and, hence, develop students vocabulary knowledge.

Most of the subjects started using their monolingual dictionaries at university level. This can be the reason why most of the participants had little detailed knowledge of their monolingual dictionaries to the point that many students failed even to report the exact titles of their dictionaries. In addition, the results show that students commonly use their dictionaries at home, in particular while reading (70%)

Habitually, the dictionary is consulted by students rather than read. The learners' aim is generally to elucidate specific information as fast as possible, such as one word's pronunciations, spellings, usage, and so on. Findings of the questionnaire have revealed that the most common use of a dictionary was to find the meaning of words (56.25%). The results also show an interest among the participants in spelling (22.5%) and pronunciation (11.25%). The other types of dictionary information received less importance as grammar (2.5%), usage (1.25%), collocations (1.25%), and etymology (1.25%). Frequency was not considered at all.

Likewise 00% percent of the subjects consulted the front matter and the appendices. These results are similar to those of previous research on dictionary use, which showed the users' excessive preoccupation with meaning (Hartmann, 1999).

It is believed that the participants consult dictionaries most frequently for the meanings of words as they consider the most important function of dictionaries is to provide word meanings. That why, they give low priority to other aspects as pronunciation, grammatical information, usage, collocations and etymology of words.

These results suggest that students perception of dictionaries as a language learning tool is very restricted. Participants mostly consult their dictionaries because they want to know words' meanings though there are other important reasons for consulting monolingual dictionaries. Aspects like spelling, pronunciation, grammar, collocation, idiomatic expression, and words' use are generally ignored. These results can be a consequence of some methods of vocabulary teaching as The Grammar Translation which is widely practiced by teachers especially at early stages. Such methods can influence students to focus on meaning more than the other aspects of word knowledge.

00% of the participants searched for frequency information though a central fact about a word is how common it is. The information is particularly valuable for language learners, as it immediately indicates how important it is to learn a word. Scholfield (1997) indicates that since students may encounter numerous unknown words in extensive reading, many of which will be quite rare, it is very useful to have a guide to what to skip.

It is also worth noting that no participant reported they consulted dictionary' front matter and appendices in spite of the valuable information they contain. The front matter and the appendices of the dictionary include many types of information that are worth reading and

save time and space. They include useful information such as the guide to the use of the dictionary, list of phrasal verbs, usage, phonological and encyclopedic information. In addition, much work is spent to compose the front matter and the appendices of good dictionaries. That is why there is a need to encourage learners from an early stage to refer to the introductory and back pages. Kirkness' (2004) claims that "this material is undoubtedly useful, but it is unlikely that learners will consult it, let alone use it systematically, unless teachers explicitly refer to it" (p.300). Students may benefit from getting more information if they knew what exists in their dictionaries and if they are trained in consulting all information in their dictionaries.

When it comes to the way participants check words in their monolingual English dictionaries, participants appeared to simply repeat the same process, while using their dictionaries. The following strategy was noticeable: guessing the meaning of the word before dictionary look-up, analyzing words' forms, reading all the definitions in an entry, testing the meaning in the original context, with one or two other strategies added or missed. When using a dictionary, however, the main thing is to be aware of the information it contains. Teachers have to reveal and elucidate to students how to use a dictionary and benefit from the riches it contains.

Though the majority of the students found themselves effective dictionary users (62.5%), when asked about the difficulties they encounter when using the dictionary, the participants reported many problems. The quality of the information the dictionary provides was generally reported to be the most common problem for most of the students, followed by the lack of the information. Only some students (8.75%) blamed their poor skills in dictionary use for their difficulties. So, most students experience some kinds of difficulty while using their dictionaries. This result may give rise to possible points of focus on dictionary training.

Given the fact that dictionaries are usually considered familiar tools, students assume that they know how to use a dictionary even if that is not always the case. Though 67.5% of the participants in that questionnaire answered that they do not need instruction on how to use their dictionaries, and 60% of the subjects answered that they have received only little instruction on how to use their dictionaries, dictionary use is considered a complex activity. According to Atkins (1985, p. 23) a dictionary “is not a front-line pedagogical instrument in the same way as a course book, language-lab tape or even a grammar book and learners do not a dictionary and proceed to learn the language from cold”. So, students need to be taught explicitly how to use them.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter mainly investigated English Monolingual Dictionary use among second year students of University of Constantine 1 using a questionnaire. The purpose of the learner questionnaire was to establish an understanding of students’ attitudes about vocabulary learning/teaching, their dictionary ownership, their monolingual dictionary use, difficulties of dictionary use, and dictionary instruction. The results of the study revealed that the dictionary is particularly fundamental for foreign language learners. The respondents generally lacked the skills to use their dictionaries effectively. Their knowledge of their dictionaries was limited. Most students have not received any instruction on dictionary use. Teachers, therefore, have to equip students with the necessary reference skills which, in turn, will have a positive influence on students’ vocabulary learning.

## **Chapter Four: The Teacher Questionnaire**

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## 4.1. Introduction

This chapter examines how teachers at the University of Frères Mentouri Constantine 1, department of Letters and English language perceive the use of dictionaries in vocabulary learning and teaching. It presents the setting in which the teacher questionnaire was conducted, identifies the participants in the questionnaire, the data collection procedure and the analysis of the results.

## 4.2. Description of the Teacher Questionnaire

In total, 20 questions cover a number of issues, basically teachers' attitudes towards vocabulary learning/ teaching and dictionary use. The teacher questionnaire (See Appendix II) consists of three parts:

**Part One:** (Q1- Q7) aims at exploring teachers' attitudes towards the importance of vocabulary in language, students' problems with vocabulary learning, the different techniques teachers use when teaching vocabulary and their attitudes towards using dictionaries in vocabulary learning.

**Part two:** (Q8- Q15) comprises eight questions that investigated teachers' beliefs about students' use of dictionaries in class and its effect on the teaching process.

**Part Three:** (Q16- Q20) intends to reveal teachers awareness of students' difficulties in using dictionaries and training them reference skills.

Teachers were also invited to give any further comments, if they wish, on dictionaries and their use in EFL vocabulary learning and teaching.

### **4.3. Population and sampling**

The questionnaire was conducted at the University of Frères Mentouri Constantine 1 Algeria, department of Letters and English language. It was conducted during the second semester of the academic year 2012-2013. The participants were nineteen teachers of English.

### **4.4. Administration of the teacher Questionnaire**

Twenty copies of the questionnaire were distributed by the researcher. However, only nineteen copies were returned (95% return percentage). The questionnaires were collected by the researcher for a week. The questionnaire was then analyzed by counting frequencies and calculating percentages.

### **4.5. Results and Analysis of the Questionnaire**

To analyse the data, frequencies and percentages were calculated. Open-ended questions were analyzed through the categorization of the responses.

#### **I. Vocabulary Learning and teaching**

##### **1. Do you think Vocabulary is important in the process of learning English?**

- Yes
- No
- Justify your answer.....

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	19	100%
<b>No</b>	00	00%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 25: Teachers' Opinions about the Importance of Vocabulary in the Process of Language Learning**

100% of the participants argued that vocabulary is an important aspect in the process of learning the English language. Most participants (12) who answered positively stated that a rich vocabulary is a prerequisite for the basic learning skills as reading, writing, listening, and speaking the foreign language. A good number of teachers (07) also stated that vocabulary is important for communication. They reported that one would communicate reasonably without many problems if she/he uses appropriate vocabulary in context.

**2. Do you think that your students have a poor English Vocabulary?**

- Yes
- No
- Justify your answer.....

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	11	57.89%
<b>No</b>	6	32.10%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 26: Teachers' Opinions about Students Lexical Competence**



More than half of the teachers (57.89%) stated that most students have a poor vocabulary. Five teachers believed that this is due to the fact that vocabulary is the most difficult aspect of English for foreign students to master thoroughly. Others (04) claimed that learning vocabulary needs practice and time and this is a problem for students because of their overloaded agenda. Another reason reported by two teachers was the lack of exposure to the foreign language. They said that sources of input are not sufficient to guarantee vocabulary learning. On the other hand, some participants (32.10%) reported that students do not face that problem of poor vocabulary at that level as they have normally developed their vocabulary considerably.

**3. Do you think that your students face problems while learning English vocabulary?**

- Yes
- No
- Justify your answer.....

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	11	57.89%
<b>No</b>	8	42.10%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 27: Teachers Beliefs about Students’ Problems while Learning Vocabulary**

Out of nineteen teachers, eleven subjects claimed that students face problems while learning vocabulary such as polysynonymous words, idiomatic expressions, false cognates, homophones, and homographs. Wrong assumption or understanding is also among the problems reported by teachers. Other answers included unsuccessful learning strategies, lack of dictionary skills, poor memory and lack of production and opportunities to use newly learnt words.

Conversely, 42.10% of the participants claimed that most students do not face problems while learning English vocabulary and considered vocabulary learning one of the easiest processes in language learning. They reported that one has only to read extensively, watch TV or listen to songs, and communicate in the foreign language to develop his vocabulary.

**4. Do you explain unfamiliar words to students during lessons? If yes, how?**

- Yes
- No
- How.....

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	15	78,94%
<b>No</b>	04	21,05%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 28: Teachers who explain Unfamiliar Words to Students during lessons**

The majority of the teachers (78, 94%) said that they do explain unknown words to their students. 21, 05% said that they do not. Teachers, who said they explain the unknown words to their students, claimed that they provide definitions (09) for the most part or give examples (03), synonyms (2), and translations in the student native language (01).

**5. What do you think are the best techniques for students to improve their vocabulary knowledge?**

<b>Strategies</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Determination Strategies</b>	9	47,36%
<b>Social Strategies</b>	00	00%
<b>Memory Strategies</b>	6	31,57%
<b>Cognitive Strategies</b>	4	21,05%
<b>Metacognitive Strategies</b>	3	15,78%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 29: Teachers Opinions about the Best Vocabulary Learning Strategies**

The strategies preferred most frequently were determination strategies (47, 36%) specifically learning words in context (05), and analyzing words forms and morphemes (4). The next most popular strategies mentioned by teachers were memory strategies (31, 57%) in particular use the new word in sentences (03), using the keyword method (02), and associating the word with its coordinates (01). Others reported some cognitive (21, 05%) and metacognitive strategies (15, 78%) as taking notes in class, keeping a vocabulary notebook, and using English language media. Even playing word games was reported by one teacher.

**6. Do you think that it is worth spending class time teaching student's vocabulary?**

- Yes
- No
- Justify your answer.....

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	3	15.87%
<b>No</b>	16	84.21%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 30: Teachers Opinions about Explicit vs. Implicit Vocabulary Teaching**

Teachers in favor of explicit vocabulary instruction did not go beyond 15.87%. They stated that explicit vocabulary teaching is highly effective and that students should be explicitly taught both words and word-learning strategies. One teacher insisted on intentional instruction of vocabulary items just in specific texts and scientific and technical ones.

In contrast, the majority of Orooms. Teachers appear to take a negative attitude towards vocabulary teaching, often regarding vocabulary learning as the work of students themselves. They claimed that most vocabulary is learnt incidentally through indirect exposure to words through reading, listening and communicating in the target language. Words, they say, could only be learnt through multiple exposures to words in contexts provided by authentic texts which take too much time.

**7. Do you think that using dictionaries is a useful strategy to learn vocabulary?**

- Yes
- No
- Justify your answer.....

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	13	68.42%
<b>No</b>	7	36,84%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 31: Teachers' Opinions about Dictionary Use in Vocabulary Learning**

This questions inquired teachers' attitudes towards using dictionaries to learn vocabulary. The majority of the respondents (68.42%) answered that using dictionaries is a useful strategy to learn vocabulary. They mainly perceive dictionaries as pedagogical tools that can support vocabulary learning due to the valuable information they contain. Two teachers reported that dictionaries help students work without teachers' assistance and outside the classroom. Another teacher stated that dictionary use makes students feel more comfortable in class.

The other 36, 84% had negative attitudes towards dictionaries and claim that dictionary use is detrimental to the learning process. Five teachers reported that dictionary use interferes with short-term memory and believed that the meaning quickly discovered is very quickly forgotten whereas vocabulary that is deduced in a logical, cognitively challenging way will not be forgotten so easily. Other two respondents to the questionnaire, pointed out that by using dictionaries, students will not develop other skills, especially guessing meaning from context, which would allow them to function in the target language without having access to their dictionaries.

## **II. Dictionary Use in Classrooms**

### **8. Do your students bring dictionaries into classroom?**

- Yes

➤ No

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	14	73.68%
<b>No</b>	4	21.05%
<b>No answer</b>	1	5.26%

**Table 32: Teachers Recording that Students Bring Dictionaries to Classrooms**

Most of the respondents answered this question, reporting 73.86% saying ‘Yes’ and 26.31% ‘No’. One respondent did not answer the question which perhaps suggests that s/he does not really know whether their students bring dictionaries to class or not.

**9. What proportion of students brings dictionaries into classroom?**

- Proficient Students
- Average Students
- Non-proficient Students
- No difference

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Proficient Students</b>	2	10.52%
<b>Average Students</b>	4	21.05%
<b>Non-proficient Students</b>	5	26.31%
<b>No difference</b>	8	42.10%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 33: Teachers Beliefs about which Proportion of Students Brings Dictionaries into Classroom**

42.10% of the respondents reported that there is no relation between students proficiency level and bringing dictionaries to classrooms. 26.31% felt that non-proficient students are more likely to bring their dictionaries to classrooms. 10, 52% claimed that it's rather competent students who carry their dictionaries to classrooms. 21.05% felt that dictionaries are brought by average students. These results indicate that the majority of students whatever their proficiency level bring dictionaries into classrooms.

**10. How often do your students consult dictionaries in classrooms?**

- Always
- Sometimes
- Never

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Always</b>	7	36.84%
<b>Sometimes</b>	10	52.63%
<b>Never</b>	2	10,52%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 34: Teachers' Perception of Students Dictionary Use' Frequency**

About half of the participants 52.36% reported that their students use their dictionaries “sometimes”. 36.48% of teachers reported that their students always consult their dictionaries. Only two teachers (10, 52%) stated that their students never used their dictionaries in classrooms. These results may point out that the majority of students are active dictionary users in classrooms.

**11. What type of dictionaries do your students use most?**

- Monolingual Dictionary
- Bilingual Dictionary

- Bilingualized Dictionary
- Electronic Dictionary
- Specialized Dictionary
- Others

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Monolingual</b>	14	73.68%
<b>Bilingual</b>	7	36,84%
<b>Bilingualised</b>	8	42.10%
<b>Electronic</b>	13	68.42%
<b>Specialised</b>	00	00%
<b>Others</b>	00	00%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 35: Teachers' Beliefs about the Most Used Dictionary Types by Students**

It can be seen from table 35 that monolingual dictionaries are on the top of the five types of dictionaries provided (73.68%), followed by electronic dictionaries (68.42%), and then bilingualised and bilingual dictionaries (42.10% and 36, 84% respectively). No teachers reported that specialized dictionaries are the most used type by students. These results match to a great extent with the answers obtained from the learner questionnaire.

**12. Which type of dictionaries do you prefer your students to use? Why?**

- Monolingual Dictionary
- Bilingual Dictionary
- Bilingualized Dictionary
- Electronic Dictionary



- Specialized Dictionary □
- Others □

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Monolingual</b>	19	100%
<b>Bilingual</b>	2	10,52%
<b>Bilingualised</b>	10	52.63%
<b>Electronic</b>	6	31.57%
<b>Specialised</b>	3	15.78%
<b>Others</b>	0	00%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 36: Types of Dictionaries Teachers Preferred their Students to Use**

When asked what types of dictionaries they preferred their students to use, 100% teachers were in favor of monolingual dictionaries. 52, 63 % of teachers also reported that they preferred bilingualised dictionaries. All other types of dictionaries were less popular; only about 31.57%, 15, 78%, and 10.52% would like their students to use electronic, bilingual and specialized dictionaries respectively.

Teachers who preferred their students to use monolingual dictionaries claimed that these dictionaries are easy to use and are useful. They stated that monolingual dictionaries are complete, comprehensive and provide all information needed by the student. With monolingual dictionaries “students are more likely to pay attention to other aspects as collocations and associations”. Respondents supporting the use of bilingualised dictionaries claimed that using such type of dictionaries encourage students to function with the foreign language, but with the help of the translations available which provide a psychological

reassurance that supports understanding and avoid confusion. Teachers in favor of electronic dictionaries stated that electronic dictionaries are easy, fast and very convenient.

In addition, teachers believed that nowadays students are more familiar with electronic dictionaries than traditional paper dictionaries. Respondents in support of specialized dictionaries, generally, claimed that they provide students with information on aspects of language which tend to be problematic for foreign learners as phrasal verbs, pronunciation, and collocations. Finally, teachers who preferred their students to use bilingual dictionaries maintained that the information they provide is brief and simple which makes the looking process quick and easy.

**13. What criteria do you consider when recommending English-English dictionaries to your students?**

- The brand of the dictionary
- The information provided by the dictionary
- The layout and structure of the dictionary
- Others

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>The brand of the dictionary</b>	13	68.42%
<b>The information provided by the dictionary</b>	11	57.89%
<b>The layout and structure of the dictionary</b>	3	15.78%
<b>Others</b>	2	10,52%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 37: The Criteria Considered by Teachers when Recommending Dictionaries to Students**

The most part of the respondents (68.42%) assumed that the brand of the dictionary is very important while recommending a dictionary to students. The information provided by the dictionary was ranked second (57.89%). The layout or structure of the dictionary ranked last with 15.78%. One teacher answered that an informed recommendation depends on what students needs. Another one said that the originality and newness of the dictionary is an important criterion when recommending a dictionary to students.

**14. Does students' use of dictionaries in classrooms disturb you while teaching?**

- Yes
- No
- Somehow

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	7	57,89%
<b>No</b>	3	36,84%
<b>Somehow</b>	9	47,36%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 38: Teachers' Opinions about Dictionary' Use in Classroom**

The results show that 57, 89% of the respondents did say that students' use of dictionaries has a disturbing affect on their teaching. On the other hand, the majority of respondents do not feel that dictionaries disturb them while teaching (36, 84%). 47, 36% said that students' dictionary use in classrooms disturbs them somehow. This may well relate to the overuse of dictionaries by some addicted dictionary users who are unable to study without

the presence of the dictionary, or the use of electronic dictionaries that make sounds which can be disturbing.

**15. Have you ever told students not to bring/ use dictionaries during your class?**

- Yes
- No

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	2	10.52%
<b>No</b>	17	89.47%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 39: Teachers' Allowance of Dictionary Use during Class**

Only 10.52% of the participants said that they had told their students not to use their dictionaries during class time. Conversely, the overwhelming majority of teachers reported that they had not told their students not to use their dictionaries during class time. This may suggest that it is not dictionary use in classrooms that disturbs teachers but rather the way students use them.

### **III. Dictionary Instruction**

**16. Do you think that your students are skilled dictionary users?**

- Yes
- No
- Somehow

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	5	26.31%
<b>No</b>	12	63.51%
<b>Somehow</b>	2	10.52%
<b>No answer</b>	0	00%

**Table 40: Teacher’s Opinions about their Students’ skills in Using Dictionaries**

The majority of teachers (63.51%) claimed that their students are not efficient dictionary users. Only 26.31% and 10.52% of the participants reported that their students are skilled or somehow skilled in using their dictionaries. This may indicate that teachers did not expect their students to know how to use a dictionary and that students do not arrive at their classes with the required skills on how to use dictionaries.

**17. What do you think are the difficulties students face while using their dictionaries?**

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Problems due to the dictionary itself</b>	00	00%
<b>Problems due to students reference skills</b>	17	89.47%
<b>No answer</b>	2	10.52%

**Table 41: Teachers’ Opinions about the Source of Students Difficulties in Using Dictionaries**

It is worth noting that unlike students, most teachers (89.47%) attributed the bulk of their difficulties to students’ reference skills. No teacher (00%) believed that students problems in using dictionaries refer to inadequacies in the dictionaries themselves neither in

the layout of the dictionary, nor the amount of information they provide or any other aspect.

Two respondents did not answer the question at all.

**18. Have you ever taught students how to use dictionaries?**

➤ Yes

➤ No

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	6	31.57%
<b>No</b>	12	63.51%
<b>No answer</b>	1	5.26%

**Table 42: Teachers' Reporting they Taught Students how to Use Dictionaries**

Only 31.57% of the 19 respondents to this question said they had taught their students to use dictionaries. 63.51% had not. One teacher did not answer the question. This can be interpreted mainly by the nature of subjects taught by the teachers and the overloaded syllabus and lack of time.

**19. If yes, what did you teach them?**

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>General advice</b>	03	50%
<b>Lookup techniques</b>	1	16.66%
<b>How to read entries</b>	1	16.66%
<b>Others</b>	1	16.66%
<b>No answer</b>	0	00%

**Table 43: Teachers' Dictionary' Training to Students**

Three teachers (50%) stated that they did not teach students how to use dictionaries exclusively but only gave them advice on how to use their dictionaries in general. One participants mentioned that they taught students how to read entries in the dictionary. Another teacher claimed that s/he taught students the look-up techniques. Another teacher said s/he provided students with information on types of dictionaries and dictionary use in translation. This teacher believed that it is impossible to incorporate training on dictionary use into the already tight syllabus.

**20. Do you think that electronic dictionaries involve the teaching of some special skills?**

- Yes
- No
- I do not know

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	2	10.52%
<b>No</b>	15	78.94%
<b>I do not know</b>	2	10.52%
<b>No answer</b>	00	00%

**Table 44: Teachers' Opinion about the Teaching of Special Skills to Use Electronic Dictionaries**

In response to that question, 78.94% of the participants answered that there is no need to teach students any special skills to use electronic dictionaries. They believed that electronic dictionaries contain the same contents of hard copy dictionaries and that the only difference between them is the presentation of such contents. Teachers approving that electronic dictionaries involve the teaching of some special skills (10.52%) said that electronic

dictionary use necessitates some knowledge of electronic devices. Two teachers answered they did not know which might be related to lack of familiarity with these modern reference tools or were not even aware of the existence of such type of dictionaries. Two teachers did not answer at all.

**Add any other points you want to make about your experience with students' use of dictionaries in classrooms**

Only three respondents make use of that opportunity. Two indicated that lack of time and the nature of the subjects they teach prevents him or her from teaching vocabulary and dictionary use. One added that s/he had not been really interested in electronic dictionaries until a few years ago when s/he began observing the rapid advance of technology in every area of life, including education and believed that modern technologies will have tangible effects on how vocabulary is taught in the future.

#### **4.6. Discussion**

Vocabulary is the body of words that make up a language, and the importance of vocabulary in learning cannot be overestimated. It is argued that lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence and according to Verhallen & Schoonen (1998), this lexical competence can be a “prediction of school success” (P. 452). Likewise, not surprisingly most teachers believed that vocabulary is a crucial aspect in the process of EFL learning. Teachers believed that learning a foreign language is impossible without a good working knowledge of its vocabulary, and that both their written and verbal communication will be poorly understood.

For most of the participants in the teacher questionnaire, however, most students have poor vocabularies and face many problems while learning English vocabulary. That is why,



most teachers responded that they explain unfamiliar words to their students during lessons by providing definitions, for the most part, or giving examples, synonyms, and translations. This corresponds to the results of Horst, Collins & Cardoso (2009) who carried out a study that investigated the attention given to vocabulary by classroom teachers by analysing 118,000 words of teacher talk from three different teachers over four lessons each. They found that the teachers prioritized meaning over all other aspects of word knowledge. Other aspects of word knowledge were not addressed.

In addition to teaching aspects like meaning, however, teachers need to cultivate in their students the idea that knowing a word goes beyond meaning to spelling, pronunciation, collocations, frequency...etc. Learners should be well aware of the importance of each aspect of word knowledge. Such attitudes should be stemmed in users to use their dictionaries thoroughly.

Teachers generally considered determination strategies specifically learning words in context, and analyzing words forms and morphemes (47, 36%) to be the best strategy that helps learners to develop and enrich their vocabulary. Teachers also preferred memory strategies (%31, 57%) in particular the use of the new word in sentences, using the keyword method, and associating the word with its coordinates. Moreover, teachers preferred some other strategies as taking notes in class, keeping a vocabulary notebook, and using English language media.

Some teachers proposed that words are to be learned through direct instruction and emphasizes on conscious learning to develop the vocabulary. Conversely, other teachers believed that there are more words to be learnt than can be directly taught. They thought that vocabulary will be learned simply through wide exposure to listening and reading. Some believed that the best methodology employs both direct and indirect teaching and provides opportunities for both receptive and productive learning to occur.

According to the data obtained from the teacher questionnaire, most of the teachers seem to have positive attitudes towards dictionaries. They valued the precious data good dictionaries provide. They also believed that dictionary use develops students self confidence and autonomy and encourages them to continue learning outside the classroom. On the other hand, other teachers claimed that dictionary use can also interfere with short term memory and hamper the development of other good strategies, especially guessing meaning from context. This goes well together with most studies on the effectiveness of dictionaries in vocabulary learning that favors the contextual guessing approach than dictionary use.

When it comes to using dictionaries in classrooms, however, teachers' responses show variation to their attitudes towards students use of dictionaries, in general. For some respondents, dictionary use generally disturbs them in classrooms. Here, it should be noted that it is through teachers' attitudes and perceptions that "dictionary culture" could be taught to students which, in turn, will produce dictionary users and, then, informed dictionary users. So, how can we encourage our students to use their dictionaries and grow the "dictionary culture" in our society, if teachers have an objection to their use in classrooms?

Almost the majority of our participants reported that their students whatever their proficiency level bring dictionaries into classroom and use them. The debate of what dictionaries should be used has always been a lively one amongst language teachers and lexicographers. This survey also revealed insights into what dictionary types teachers prefer their students to use. It is clear that most teachers preferred them to use monolingual or at least bilingualised dictionaries that essentially provide translations in addition to the good features of monolingual dictionaries. Electronic, bilingual, and specialized dictionaries were not generally preferred by teachers.

Students often look to their English instructors for suggestions on which is the best dictionary to help them better understand and learn the language. Considering the multitude and variety of English-English dictionaries currently on the market, teachers' job in recommending dictionaries to their students is difficult as Samuel Johnson noted "Books like friends should be few and well-chosen". The brand of the dictionary and the size of word bank were considered the most important criteria participants reported when recommending a dictionary to their students. Instructors must, first, familiarize themselves with the numerous types and brands of dictionaries available to students and the facilities they provide. This suggests that familiarising teachers with the modern dictionaries and the facilities they offer should, first, target the teachers in order to enable them know more of the modern reference books and impart this knowledge to their students. As Murison-Bowie, (1993,p. 6) pointed out "teachers need to be inquisitive about the world in which they and their students live a world that includes technology and make connections between this world and their teaching" .

This questionnaire also revealed that teachers believe that students have poor reference skill that is why they experience many problems while using their dictionaries. However, 63.51% said they had not taught their students to use dictionaries. However, it should be noted that convenience of information does not automatically mean a simple easy learning for students. It is through good dictionaries in relation to good reference skills that the learner will be more comfortable and successful with dictionary use.

The results suggest that teachers seem to over-estimate the usability of dictionaries. Still, as seen in the literature on training learners to use their dictionaries, Dictionary skills cannot be developed fully via informal learning and individual experience. For modern learners' dictionaries to be used successfully, learners are obliged "to have full understanding

of what today's dictionaries seek to offer and how they do so" (Tickoo, 1989, p.184). Basic retrieval skills only are insufficient to benefit from what is presented in modern dictionaries.

Although students may possess a dictionary or dictionaries, it does not follow that they know how to use it or them. Due to the 'inherent impediment' of such a 'deaf and dumb teacher', students need to make much effort and learn special skills in order to understand, or to learn from the dictionary,

So, training must give attention to the way to use the dictionary to learn. Underhill (1985, p.103) claims that, "most teachers would agree that one of their main tasks is to help learners to help themselves, and one way of working towards this is to train them to be effective users of a good MLD".

The skills have to be taught formally or teachers should at least give their students high-quality training on how to use their dictionaries than merely counting on their initiative and skills. This is well supported by Battenburg (1991, p. 115) who states that,

Skills and strategies for using dictionaries should be taught in every second and foreign language classroom, for students are not only learning about dictionaries but also about language. Such instruction should continue throughout students' academic careers rather than being relegated to a class period or two at the beginning of the term.

The participants, who have instructed their students on dictionary use suggested that they gave them general advice on how dictionaries are used. This is far from the structured instruction of dictionary use. As Roberts (1997, p. 1) points out, "[i]n order to be able to use dictionaries efficiently, one has to be aware of (a) the various categories of information that can be found in dictionaries; (b) the overall ordering of these categories; (c) dictionary types; and (d) the specific categories of information found in different dictionary types".

Hartmann (2001) and many others (e.g. Taylor and Chan 1994, Fan 2000, Sobkowiak 2002, Wingate 2004,) point out that in order to help students reap the benefits of good dictionaries, the students need to be explicitly taught how to use them. Likewise Bejoint (1994, P. 168), stated that "The most efficient way to educate dictionary users is no doubt through the educational system, in class, as part of the normal curriculum. This is not much practised in educational establishments, but some experimental results indicate that it works".

In addition, 78.94% of the participants answered that there is no need to teach students any special skills to use electronic dictionaries. They believed that electronic dictionaries contain the same contents of hard copy dictionaries and that the only difference between them is the presentation of such contents. However, many studies suggest that learners need to become familiar with electronic dictionaries and that learners need to be taught explicitly how to use because "without some training..., any user will find it difficult to exploit all the information, the facilities and features such an electronic dictionary could offer" (Winkler, 2001).

Electronic dictionary use might necessitate more than one's knowledge of technological developments in EFL lexicography. In order to use these up to date reference materials skilfully, learners need to have full understanding of what today's dictionaries offer and how they do so. What comes to mind now is how teachers are capable of instructing their students the appropriate reference skills if they do not know, like, and advise their students to use them. That is why, McKean suggested that, 'Better teacher training would, in time, lead to better dictionary consumers – a boon, not only for makers of school dictionaries, but for makers of commercial adult dictionaries as well (McKean 2000, P.87)

## **Conclusion**

The preeminent way to benefit from the riches of dictionaries is accurate reference skills. Since teachers play a vital role in developing those skills, a teacher questionnaire was used to examine how teachers at the University of Frères Mentouri Constantine 1, department of Letters and English language perceive the use of dictionaries in vocabulary learning and teaching and training in dictionary use. The previous chapter presented the findings of a questionnaire that investigated teachers' attitudes towards vocabulary learning and dictionary use in language learning. The questionnaire revealed the different opinions of teachers with regard to dictionary use. Insufficient assistance given to students to optimise the use of dictionary is the apparent finding. Teachers give their students more than minimal advice about the relative merits of monolingual dictionaries. Hopefully this study may open the eyes of teachers in Algeria that reference skills teaching is an urgent necessity.

## **Chapter Five: The Experiment**

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## **Introduction**

People are naturally interested in their progress when they are studying a foreign language. Teachers are likewise interested in their students' improvement. Since one of the key elements in learning a foreign language is mastering its vocabulary, there has been interest in testing vocabulary from the earliest times in which foreign languages were formally studied.

It is an undisputable fact that dictionaries are essential tools for effective development of vocabulary knowledge. Using dictionaries and taking advantage of the information on all types of vocabulary knowledge they provide is a good strategy to develop vocabulary knowledge. Though the study of vocabulary learning through dictionary' use is not exactly a new area; previous research has failed to produce a clear image that adequately describes it. This is partly b..cause of the complexity of the subject of vocabulary learning. Read (2000) argues that one method of reducing the complexity is to work with the individual components of vocabulary knowledge, in an attempt to understand the whole by, first, better understanding the parts.

There exist two major approaches to measure depth of vocabulary knowledge: the developmental approach and the dimensional approach. The developmental approach uses scales to illustrate the stages of learning a word. On the other hand, the dimensional approach describes the level of mastery of the different aspects of word knowledge (Read, 1997).

Schmitt (1998) states the dimensional approach is of more significance and importance. Studying many vocabulary knowledge aspects can take a lot of time and would limit the number of words. However, such an approach has several advantages, making it well merit the effort.



The present study focuses on the effects of using English monolingual learners dictionaries on students' vocabulary knowledge. In particular, this experiment investigates the degree to which 80 students developed in depth knowledge of 08 target words from reading an English text without and with dictionary access (paper and electronic). This chapter explores the data gathering instrument, namely, the vocabulary tests, and the materials used in this study. It also reports on the procedure and the subjects of the experiment. In the rest of the chapter, the data gathered is presented and analyzed.

## **5.2. Description of the Test**

In the pretest the participants had to complete a receptive vocabulary check list. The checklist consisted of 37 words taken from the reading material that will be used in the experiment. The checklist was developed by deleting extremely frequent and easy words that would be known by students. The test consisted of a number of exercises. The first exercise involved the completion of partial spellings of the target words. The second exercise involved the underlining of the correct pronunciation from two pronunciation options of the target words. Exercises three involved the determination of the target words' word class or parts of speech. In the fourth exercise, students were asked to choose the exact frequency value among three quite different frequencies one of which was the correct one. In the fifth exercise, students were provided with the list of target words and were asked to match them with their collocates. The sixth exercise involved matching words with their corresponding meanings. The seventh exercise required students to put each word in the corresponding list of association responses. In the last exercise, the participants were required to select an appropriate answer from two choices (synonyms), based on the context provided.

In designing the tests, six dictionaries were consulted: Collins Cobuild Advanced Dictionary, Longman Pronunciation Dictionary, Oxford Collocations Dictionary, Oxford Learners' thesaurus, Oxford Fowlers' Modern English Usage, A Frequency Dictionary of Contemporary American English in addition to the British National Corpus (BNC) and "wordassociation.org" the world's largest database of word associations.

### **5.3. Participants and Setting**

The experiment was conducted at the department of Letters and English language, University of Frères Mentouri Constantine 1, Algeria. The number of participants was 60 students. They were divided into three groups: No dictionary group, paper dictionary group, electronic dictionary group.

### **5.4. Procedure**

The participants were pretested by the administration of a receptive vocabulary checklist of 37 words (taken from the text to be used in the experiment) to each subject prior to the experiment. The pretest aims to identify the words which no student had prior knowledge of and that would subsequently be used for the test. The pretest was administered to the participants at the end of the class time. From the results of this test, a list of difficult items was created to be used in the experiment. Only the words never known were taken. The pretest was conducted a week before the experiment.

Approximately one week prior to the experiment, students were asked to bring their paper and electronic dictionaries if they own both or either if they only own one type of dictionary. The day of the experiment, the participants were divided equally into three groups; group 1 (no dictionary group- 20 students), group 2 (paper dictionary group- 20

students), and group 3 (electronic dictionary group- 20 students). Then the two groups were asked to read a text under the three conditions.

Then in order to examine whether there will be any differences between the groups in terms of learning the target vocabulary items, nine exercises were administered. These exercises aim at assessing all aspects of word knowledge stated by Nation (1990). The researcher provided a detailed explanation of the test and the aim of the experiment. Each time the participants had possession of one exercise only so that students can not change answers or refer to earlier exercises. The order of the tests was based on the amount of information each exercise provides and was as follows: spelling, pronunciation, grammar, collocations, frequency, register constraints, meaning, and word associations. It should be noted that the participants were provided with a short introduction to dictionary use before the experiment.

## **5.5. Materials**

### **5.5.1. The dictionaries**

The dictionaries used by learners were all monolingual learners' paper or electronic dictionaries on CD ROM (in laptops). Since most dictionaries were brought by the students themselves, students seemed familiar with the dictionaries they used in the test. Because the dictionaries were owner-supplied, they were not homogeneous. However, it is believed that the dictionaries of each group will have more in common with each other than the dictionaries in the other group.

### **5.5.2. The text**

The text for the reading task is taken from an article from the BBC site (travel), the 7<sup>th</sup> of March 2013. Only the first seven paragraphs were chosen by the researcher due to time limits. The paragraphs chosen for reading are 659 words in length. The text describes a desert area in South Africa. It is all authentic and although it is restricted to the first paragraphs, it could be read as a complete text. The researcher did her best to ensure that the reading passage is difficult and is likely to provide vocabulary which is challenging enough to make dictionary consultation necessary for the participants without asking them directly to do that to ensure the incidental design of the experiment. The reading material was the same for all students.

## **5.6. The Reading Time**

In regard to reading times, there was a significant difference in reading' time between the three groups. Both the electronic and paper dictionary groups spent more time reading than the no dictionary group. There was also a significant difference between the electronic dictionary group and the printed dictionary group. So, the paper dictionary group took the most time to read the text followed by the electronic dictionary group and then the no dictionary group. This indicates that because of the difficulty of the text and the presence of a considerable amount of unknown vocabulary, most of the dictionary group participants made use of their dictionaries and hence spent considerably more time on the reading task. The results are presented in table 45 below.

<b>Groups</b>	<b>Reading Time (minutes)</b>
<b>No Dictionary Group</b>	20
<b>Paper Dictionary Group</b>	46
<b>Electronic Dictionary Group</b>	31

**Table 45: Reading' Time of the Different Groups**

### **5.7. The Checklist**

To find out unknown vocabulary in the reading material, the participants were given a receptive vocabulary checklist test (RVC) one week prior to the experiment. The checklist consisted of 37 words taken from the reading material that will be used in the experiment the checklist was developed by deleting extremely frequent and easy words that would be known by students. Inflections were eliminated. Then the finalized checklist was administered to students (Appendix III). The form of the checklist used in the pretest was Adapted from Beck, I.L., McKeown, M.G., & Kucan, L. (2002).

The aim of this receptive vocabulary checklist was to provide the list of words that should be used in the experiment, and to make sure that the words to be used in the test will be unknown for all the participants and that any change in students' vocabulary knowledge will be due to other factors. Learning vocabulary from the pretest should be difficult because of the large number of words tested and the time of testing. The results are presented in Table 46.

Words	Know it well, can explain it, and use it		Know something about it, can relate it to a situation		Have seen or heard the word		Do not know the word	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1. Enchanting	16	20%	23	28.75%	23	28.75%	18	22.5%
2. Ranges	20	25%	24	30%	16	20%	20	25%
3. Tumbleweed	08	10%	14	17.5%	22	27.5%	36	45%
4. Linger	00	00%	00	00%	00	00%	80	100%
5. Succulent	00	00%	00	00%	00	00%	80	100%
6. Remote	23	28.75%	23	28.75%	16	20%	18	22.5%
7. Topography	11	13.75%	12	15	30	37.5%	27	33.75%
8. Pioneering	19	23.75%	24	30%	30	37.5%	17	21.25%
9. Cradled	07	8.75%	10	12.5%	14	17.5%	49	61.25%
10. Latticework.	04	05%	05	6.25%	17	21.25%	54	67.5%
11. Canvas	03	3,75%	03	3,75%	09	11,25%	65	81,25%
12. Reptile	10	12.5%	10	12.5%	34	42.5%	26	32.5%
13. Period	61	76.25%	17	21.25%	2	2.5%	00	00%
14. Surreal	09	11.25%	06	7.5%	49	61.25%	26	32.5%
15. Cactus	11	13.75%	18	22.5%	47	58.75%	06	7.5%
16. Arid	13	16.25%	23	28.75%	32	40%	12	15%
17. Labyrinth	33	41.25%	27	33.75%	13	16.25%	07	8.75%
18. Trigger	08	10%	08	10%	22	27.5%	42	52.5%
19. tuck in	00	00%	00	00%	00	00%	80	100%
20. proprietor	36	45%	33	41.25%	10	12.5%	01	1.25
21. Cobalt	08	10%	07	8.75%	12	15%	53	66.25%
22. Tangible	04	05%	05	06,25%	17	21,25%	54	67,5%
23. Eccentric	00	00%	00	00%	00	00%	80	100%
24. Hub	00	00%	00	00%	00	00%	80	100%
25. Rugged	00	00%	00	00%	00	00%	80	100%
26. Thatched	08	10%	09	11.25%	13	16.25%	50	62.5%
27. Restore	43	53.75%	23	28.75%	12	15%	02	2.5%
28. Fossil	40	50%	21	26.25%	13	16.25%	06	7.5%
29. Parsonage	04	05%	06	7.5%	50	62.5%	20	25%
30. Refined	46	57.5%	28	35%	5	6.25	01	1.25%
31. Quirk	00	00%	00	00%	00	00%	80	100%
32. Thriving	02	02,5%	04	05%	05	06,25%	69	86,25%
33. Prickle	40	50%	21	26.25%	13	16.25%	06	100%
34. Maze	13	16.25%	14	17.5%	22	27.5%	31	38.75%
35. Engender	07	07,5%	00	00%	13	16,25%	60	75%
36. Meditative	28	35%	34	42.5%	16	20%	02	2.5%
37. Shank	00	00%	00	00%	00	00%	80	100%

Table 46: Results of the Checklist

Most words were “seen or heard” by most participants as enchanting, tumbleweed, topography, pioneering, reptile, surreal, cactus, arid parsonage. Words participants answered they “Know them well, can explain them, and use them” were period, labyrinth, proprietor, baked, restore, fossil, and refined. Seldom the participants crossed the box “Know something about it, can relate it to a situation” as range and meditative. Words unknown by most students were cradled, latticework, trigger, cobalt, thatched, and maze. The words unknown by all students and which will be used in the test are: linger, eccentric, succulent, hub, rugged, quirk, tuck into, shank.

## 5.8. The Test (The Results)

The following formula was used to calculate percentages: Percentage = number of answers×100 / number of participants.

### 5.8.1. Assessing Spelling Knowledge

The table below summarizes the results of the exercise assessing spelling knowledge.

Linger						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
P.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
E.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
Eccentric						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	09	55%	11	45%	00	00%
P.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
E.D.G.	11	45%	09	55%	00	00%
Succulent						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	08	40%	12	60%	00	00%
P.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
Hub						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
P.D.G.	14	70%	06	30%	00	00%
E.D.G.	15	75%	05	25%	00	00%
Rugged						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage

	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
P.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
Quirk						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
P.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
E.D.G.	15	75%	05	25%	00	00%
Tuck into						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
P.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
E.D.G.	14	70%	06	30%	00	00%
Shank						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
P.D.G.	14	70%	06	30%	00	00%
E.D.G.	16	80%	04	20%	00	00%
The Average Percentage						

**Table 47: Students’ Answers to Exercise 01**

The table shows that there was a slight difference between the results of the groups in the exercise assessing the development in students’ spelling knowledge. In addition, the type of the dictionary itself electronic or printed did slightly affect the results as the electronic dictionary group did somehow better than the printed dictionary group (61, 87% vs. 68,12% of correct answers). One exception was the word” linger” where the percentage of correct answers was the same for all groups. For the word “rugged”, there was also the same percentage of correct answers for both the printed and the electronic dictionary groups.

So, it seems that there was an important development in students’ knowledge of the target words’ spellings. Nonetheless, we believe that students are less likely to look up spellings in their dictionaries while reading as they are originally provided in the text except if the printing is not clear which is not the case in our study. We also believe that dictionary use for spelling takes place only when the printed word is not available during dictionary access.



So, learning words' spellings may be mainly due to noticing the words in the reading material rather than dictionary consultation in both groups. Students' dictionary access for other types of information may have reinforced their spelling knowledge as words' spellings are provided as entries, and in electronic dictionaries spelling is presented in a clear manner in bold or in colour.

### 5.8.2. Assessing Pronunciation knowledge

The table below summarizes the results of the exercise assessing pronunciation knowledge.

Linger						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	09	45%	11	55%	00	00%
P.D.G.	15	75%	05	25%	00	00%
E.D.G.	18	90%	02	10%	00	00%
Eccentric						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	04	20%	16	80%	00	00%
P.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
Succulent						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	4	20%	16	80%	00	00%
P.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
E.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
Hub						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
P.D.G.	16	80%	04	20%	00	00%
E.D.G.	19	95%	01	05%	00	00%
Rugged						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
P.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
E.D.G.	16	80%	04	20%	00	00%
Quirk						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
P.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
E.D.G.	15	75%	05	25%	00	00%
tuck into						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
P.D.G.	16	80%	4	20%	00	00%
E.D.G.	17	85%	03	15%	00	00%
Shank						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	06	30%	14	70%	00	00%
P.D.G.	15	75%	5	25%	00	00%
E.D.G.	18	90%	02	10%	00	00%
The Average Percentage						

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**Table 48: Students' Answers to Exercise 02**

The results of exercise two indicate that there was a significant difference between the three groups' answers. The number of students giving correct answers in the no dictionary group was very low; 69, 13% of students answered wrongly. On the other hand, 66.87% of the answers in the printed dictionary group and 79.37% of the answers in the electronic dictionary group were correct. Comparing these results, we note that the electronic dictionary group resulted in the highest percentage of correct responses followed by the printed dictionary group, and finally the no dictionary group.

These results suggest that the phonological information for unknown words is very difficult to guess. Students were unable to find the correct pronunciation of even very simple words whose pronunciation corresponds their spelling. On the other hand, the high percentage of correct answers in the dictionary groups either paper or electronic suggests that dictionary consultation is helpful. Students seem to have no difficulty in looking up pronunciation and understanding phonetic transcriptions in their dictionaries. We believe that this is due to the fact that the participant in the study are advanced students and have attained some knowledge of the principles of phonetics in the course of their language learning. In addition the sound option in the electronic dictionary might be used by the participants and seems to be very functional in learning words' pronunciations.

### 5.8.3. Assessing Grammatical knowledge

The table below summarizes the results of the exercise assessing grammatical knowledge.

Linger						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
P.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
Eccentric						

	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	14	70%	06	30%	00	00%
P.D.G.	16	80%	04	20%	00	00%
E.D.G.	17	85%	03	15%	00	00%
Succulent						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	15	75%	05	25%	00	00%
P.D.G.	16	80%	04	20%	00	00%
E.D.G.	17	85%	03	15%	00	00%
Hub						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
P.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
Rugged						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
P.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
Quirk						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
P.D.G.	11	55%	9	45%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	7	35%	00	00%
tuck into						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	16	80%	04	20%	00	00%
P.D.G.	17	85%	03	15%	00	00%
E.D.G.	18	90%	02	10%	00	00%
Shank						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
P.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
The Average Percentage						

**Table 49: Students' Answers to Exercise 03**

The results for exercise three indicate a difference among the participants in the three groups. 60, 62 % of the participants in the no dictionary group were able to indicate the correct word class. In the paper and electronic dictionary groups, the subjects were also largely relatively successful in naming word class. According to the results in the table, the electronic dictionary group's correct answers (71,18%) were slightly higher than the correct answers of students in the paper dictionary group (66.87%).

This demonstrates that the large proportion of results was correct rather than wrong in the groups. The results can be explained by the fact that the context in which the word occurs can be helpful in determining its function and hence its word' class. Sometimes, some words such as “rugged”, and “quirk” were confusing. For example, "rugged" can be regarded as verb instead of an adjective. Quirk can be seen as a noun or an adjective. Here, it seems that dictionary use has helped to identify the words correctly.

#### 5.8.4. Assessing Collocational knowledge

The table below summarizes the results of the exercise assessing collocational knowledge.

Linger						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
P.D.G.	08	40%	12	60%	00	00%
E.D.G.	16	80%	04	20%	00	00%
Eccentric						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
P.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
E.D.G.	14	60%	06	40%	00	00%
Succulent						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	09	45%	11	55%	00	00%
P.D.G.	09	45%	11	55%	00	00%
E.D.G.	16	80%	04	20%	00	00%
Hub						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	06	30%	14	70%	00	00%
P.D.G.	09	45%	11	55%	00	00%
E.D.G.	14	70%	06	30%	00	00%
Rugged						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
P.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
E.D.G.	14	70%	06	30%	00	00%
Quirk						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	08	40%	12	60%	00	00%
P.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
E.D.G.	17	85%	03	15%	00	00%
tuck into						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
P.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
E.D.G.	18	90%	00	00%	00	00%
Shank						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	06	30%	14	70%	00	00%
P.D.G.	09	45%	11	55%	00	00%
E.D.G.	17	85%	3	15%	00	00%

The Average Percentage					

**Table 50: Students' Answers to Exercise 04**

A typical collocation activity requires learners to match collocates with given terms (Coady & Huckin, 1997). The present study also adopted this method to test students' knowledge in this area. Students were given a list of words to match with their collocates. The results indicate that 64.38% of the answers in the no dictionary group were inappropriate; only 35, 62% were correct. The average percentage of correct answers in the printed dictionary group was 44, 37%. The electronic dictionary group was the best. Namely, the average percentage of correct answers in the electronic dictionary group was (79.37%).

The results may indicate that collocations cannot be easily learnt implicitly while reading and that dictionary consultation may provide the users with such type of information. However, the way paper dictionaries provide information on collocations is not systematic (either in the entries themselves or in the dedicated collocation boxes) which can make problems for users. The use of corpora in compiling electronic dictionaries and the clear and salient presentation of collocational information in electronic dictionaries can be the main reason for the high number of correct answers in the electronic dictionary group.

### 5.8.5. Assessing Frequency Knowledge

The table below summarizes the results of the exercise assessing frequency knowledge.

Linger						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	06	30%	14	70%	00	00%
P.D.G.	08	40%	12	60%	00	00%
E.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
Eccentric						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	09	45%	11	55%	00	00%
P.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
E.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
Succulent						

	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	08	40%	12	60%	00	00%
P.D.G.	09	45%	11	55%	00	00%
E.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
<b>Hub</b>						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
P.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	75%	07	35%	00	00%
<b>Rugged</b>						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
P.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
E.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
<b>Quirk</b>						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
P.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
<b>tuck into</b>						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
P.D.G.	09	45%	11	55%	00	00%
E.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
<b>Shank</b>						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
P.D.G.	08	40%	12	06%	00	00%
E.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
<b>The Average Percentage</b>						

**Table 51: Students' Answers to Exercise 05**

The main step in designing this exercise on frequency was first to fix objective frequency values to the words used in the study. The British National Corpus (BNC) consisting of about 100 million words was used for this purpose. Students were then asked to choose the exact frequency among three quite different frequencies one of which was the correct one.

In total 39.37% of the answers in the no dictionary group gave the accurate frequency rating to the various words in the test. Subjects in both dictionary groups did slightly better. 40.00% and 56.87% of correct responses were reached by students in the paper and electronic dictionary groups orderly. So, subjects in the electronic dictionary group were the best in providing frequency value.

It is noticeable that there was not a big difference in the overall percentages of the groups in the study. It also noticeable that the responses of the no dictionary group matched the responses of the paper dictionary group in correct responses for the word “rugged”. In addition, it was noticed that most subjects overestimated the frequency of low frequency words as “shank” and “tuck into” because they may have been hesitant to give very low frequency values.

So, it seems that most paper and electronic dictionaries do not seem to provide words’ frequency values and that the participants all groups (no dictionary group, paper dictionary group, and electronic dictionary group) would have used just their frequency intuitions or L1 frequencies to answer the exercise. Although, providing word frequency information in some electronic dictionaries may have affected in some way students’ frequency knowledge and answers in that group.

### 5.8.6. Assessing Word’ Meaning Knowledge

The table below summarizes the results of the exercise assessing spelling word meaning knowledge.

Linger						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	04	20%	16	80%	00	00%
P.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
E.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
Eccentric						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
P.D.G.	14	70%	06	30%	00	00%
E.D.G.	14	70%	06	30%	00	00%
Succulent						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	06	30%	14	70%	00	00%
P.D.G.	13	65. %	07	35%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
Hub						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	08	40%	12	60%	00	00%
P.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
E.D.G.	16	80%	04	20%	00	00%
Rugged						

	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
P.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
E.D.G.	14	70%	06	30%	00	00%
<b>Quirk</b>						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
P.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
E.D.G.	14	70%	06	30%	00	00%
<b>tuck into</b>						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	06	30%	14	70%	00	00%
P.D.G.	09	45%	11	55%	00	00%
E.D.G.	17	85%	03	15%	00	00%
<b>Shank</b>						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
P.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
E.D.G.	15	75%	05	25%	00	00%
<b>The Average Percentage</b>						

**Table 52: Students' Answers to Exercise 06**

As it is evident from the results, there was a significant difference in the results of subjects in the no dictionary group, in comparison to the paper dictionary group, and the electronic dictionary group (29.37%, 68.12%, and 71.87% of correct answers orderly). The results also indicated that the type of the dictionary, whether computerized or printed has well affected students' responses. The electronic dictionary group did better than the paper dictionary group. The percentage of correct answers for the words "eccentric", "succulent" and "rugged" was the same for the paper and electronic dictionary groups.

Although inferring unknown word meanings from context does indeed involve conscious cognitive operations, i.e. selective attention, hypothesis formation and strategy application, it could not help the participants guess words' meanings. This suggest that guessing words from context did not help students learn words' meaning either because the surrounding context contained too many unknown words or the participants made erroneous inferences, or tried to ignore the unknown words while reading. So, it goes without saying that dictionaries are among the best resources used by EFL learners to learn words' meanings.



The presentation of the information and the provision of pictures and media may have helped the electronic dictionary users to be the best.

### 5.8.7. Assessing Word' Associations

The table below summarizes the results of the exercise assessing word association knowledge.

Linger						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	04	20%	16	80%	00	00%
P.D.G.	06	30%	14	70%	00	00%
E.D.G.	08	40%	12	60%	00	00%
Eccentric						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
P.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	07	65%	00	00%
Succulent						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	02	10%	18	90%	00	00%
P.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
E.D.G.	15	75%	05	25%	00	00%
Hub						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
P.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
E.D.G.	19	95%	01	05%	00	00%
Rugged						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	06	30%	14	70%	00	00%
P.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
E.D.G.	17	85%	3	15%	00	00%
Quirk						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	03	15%	17	85%	00	00%
P.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
E.D.G.	12	60%	08	40%	00	00%
tuck into						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	03	15%	17	85%	00	00%
P.D.G.	04	20%	16	80%	00	00%
E.D.G.	19	95%	01	05%	00	00%
Shank						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	04	20%	16	80%	00	00%
P.D.G.	06	30%	14	70%	00	00%
E.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
The Average Percentage						

Table 53: Students' Answers to Exercise 07

The word associations' exercise asked students to put each word in the corresponding list of association responses. This exercise was completed using "wordassociation.org" by Simon Holliday which is considered the world's largest database of word associations. As the table indicates, responses of the electronic dictionary group were much better than the other two groups' responses (69.37% were correct answers). Only 29.37% of the respondents of the paper dictionary group answered correctly in that exercise. As can be seen from the table, most of the wrong answers are found in the no dictionary group (20.00% of wrong answers).

We believe that in most cases, students did not attempt to use their paper dictionaries to check for words association in particular as it is not important for the reading process and that words' associations' learning can be only a by-product of words' meaning or other aspects consultation. The modern and clear presentation of words' associations in electronic dictionaries seems to be helpful.

### 5.8.8. Assessing Register Knowledge

The table below summarizes the results of the exercise assessing register knowledge.

Linger						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	08	40%	12	60%	00	00%
P.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
E.D.G.	14	70%	06	30%	00	00%
Eccentric						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
P.D.G.	09	45%	11	55%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
Succulent						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	07	35%	13	65%	00	00%
P.D.G.	09	45%	11	55%	00	00%
E.D.G.	15	75%	5	25%	00	00%
Hub						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	06	30%	13	65%	00	00%
P.D.G.	08	40%	12	60%	00	00%
E.D.G.	16	80%	04	20%	00	00%
Rugged						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	05	25%	15	75%	00	00%
P.D.G.	06	30%	14	70%	00	00%

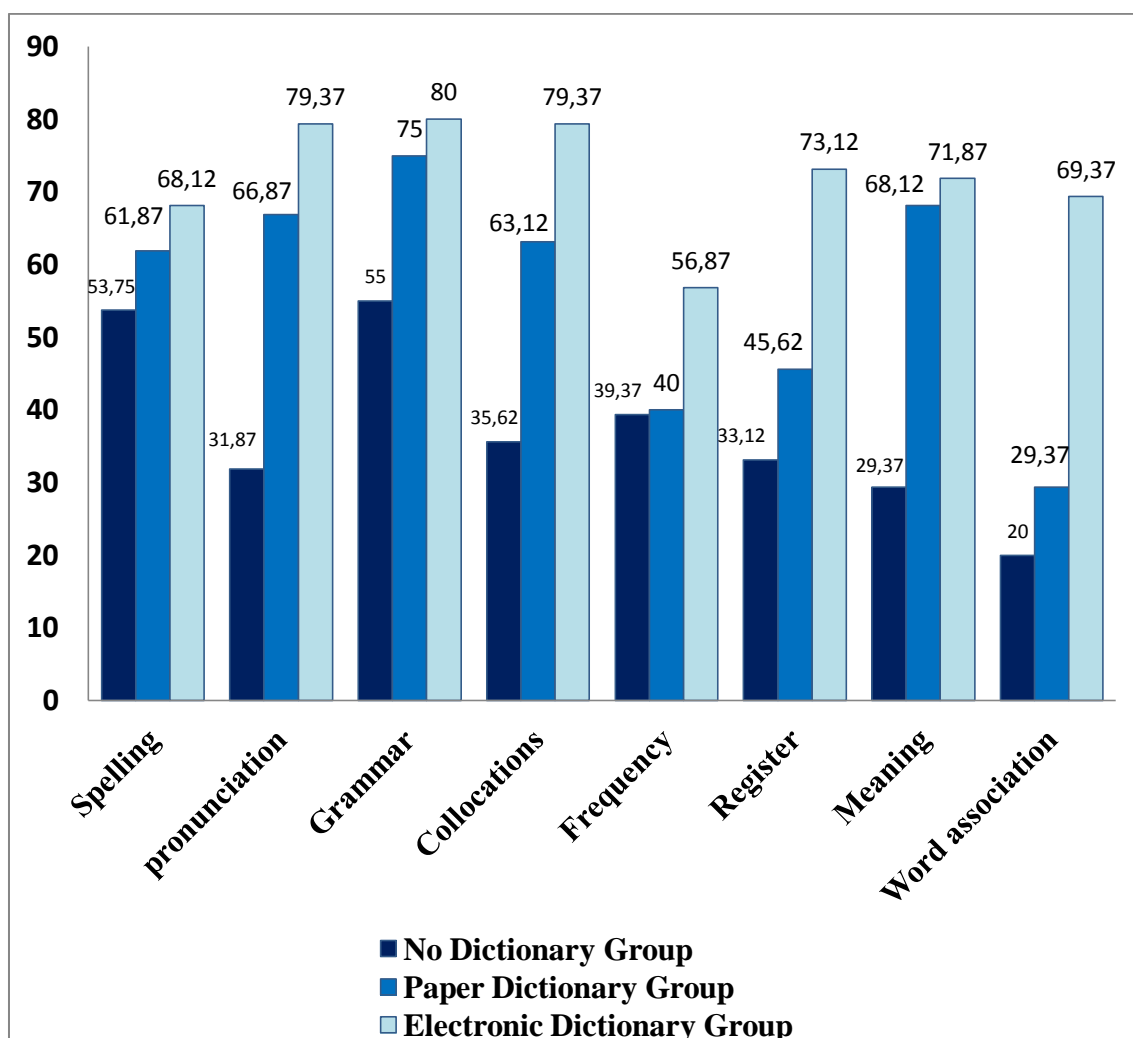
E.D.G.	15	75%	05	25%	00	00%
<b>Quirk</b>						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	09	45%	11	55%	00	00%
P.D.G.	11	55%	09	45%	00	00%
E.D.G.	13	65%	07	35%	00	00%
<b>tuck into</b>						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	07	35%	13	75%	00	00%
P.D.G.	08	40%	12	60%	00	00%
E.D.G.	14	70%	06	30%	00	00%
<b>Shank</b>						
	correct answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
N.D.G.	06	30%	14	70%	00	00%
P.D.G.	10	50%	10	50%	00	00%
E.D.G.	17	85%	03	15%	00	00%
<b>The Average Percentage</b>						

**Table 54: Students' Answers to Exercise 08**

In this exercise students were required to select an appropriate answer from two choices (synonyms), based on the context provided. The exercise focuses on discovering whether students were aware to apply the words appropriately in the context provided. The results provided in the table above indicate that there was a significant difference in students' answers in the three groups. Most participants in the no dictionary group failed in their choice of words, and so made inappropriate choices for the contexts provided. The percentage of correct answers in the no dictionary group was 33.12%. Comparing the performance of the dictionary groups, it is evident that participants in the electronic dictionary group did better than participants in the printed dictionary group (45.62% and 73.12% of correct answers orderly).

These results may suggest that words usage restrictions cannot be acquired through reading. Printed dictionaries were not also functional. This can be due to the asystematic way paper dictionaries provide usage information (in examples, in definitions, etc). Electronic dictionary use was particularly helpful; maybe due to generally providing such kind of information separately in notes on usage.

The graph below summarizes the results of all exercises.



**Figure 03: Students' Developments in the Different Aspects of Word Knowledge**

## 5.9. Discussion of the Results

According to Nation (1990) knowing words is a process that involves learning the spoken form of the word, the written form of the word, the grammatical behavior of the word, the collocational behavior of the word, the frequency of the word, the stylistic register constraints of the word, the conceptual meaning of the word, and the associations the word has with other related word. Dictionary consultation can be considered a good strategy to do that (Gonzalez 1999). Dictionaries provide learners with precious data in every aspect of

language (Harmer, 2001). The present study investigated the effect of using dictionaries on students' vocabulary knowledge during reading. The study revealed some results.

The common view that dictionary use is a negative behavior to learn words seems to be weakened by the results of the present study. The findings of our study revealed that dictionary use, in general, resulted in more vocabulary knowledge than reading the text without a dictionary. The development of vocabulary knowledge of the no dictionary group was in the main low and insignificant in most aspects of word knowledge which suggest that reading alone is not a sufficient source for vocabulary learning. What students could learn from reading the text without dictionary access was merely some target words' spellings and parts of speech.

On the other hand, there was a better percentage of correct answers in the paper dictionary group in the different exercises. This denotes that most students seem to have used their dictionaries while reading the text and that students did not feel bored or not excited to check the unknown words in their dictionaries. This was also clear from the time spent while reading (table 45).

Many studies provide evidence on the superiority of one type of the dictionary over the other. They pointed out that the electronic dictionary has a greater affect on the vocabulary acquisition than the printed one. Correspondingly, the results of this study indicate that electronic dictionary users were able to achieve higher percentages of correct answers than students who used printed dictionaries in the exercises. The amount of the advantages of the "electronic" dictionary is probably what makes it better, compared to the paper dictionary. As Sharpe (1995, p. 49) puts it, "the advantage of the electronic dictionary and the familiarity of today's young people with electronic devices will eventually relegate the printed notion of 'dictionary' to a secondary sense."

The increased look-up speed in electronic dictionaries may result in more consultations and, thus, more vocabulary gains. In addition, most electronic dictionaries with their different multimedia effects may enable students to hear the words, and provide them with relevant words, grammatical structures, connotations, and collocations which may improve students' vocabulary knowledge. Aside from the value of the information found in electronic dictionaries, the way the screen is structured and how information is actually presented help in ending with fast and accurate comprehension. With the help of multi-coloured layouts, clear arrangement of windows containing, compilers attempt to make their electronic dictionaries as easily accessible as possible (Galitz, 2002).

In the spelling task, the results of students in the three groups were not significantly different. Students might not use their dictionaries to look up words' spellings while reading as they were originally provided in the text. Learning words' spellings may be mainly due to noticing the words in the reading material rather than dictionary consultation. This does not minimize the importance of dictionary use in learning words' spellings.

English is not a phonetic language, i.e. it does not have closer phoneme – grapheme correspondence. "There is no one – to – one correspondence between sounds and letters"(Taylor, 1981, p.317). Differences between spelling and pronunciation were mainly due to changes in pronunciation that were not reflected in changes in spelling since the seventeenth century (Taylor, 1981). Therefore, EFL students may face some spelling problems when learning English and the dictionary can help. Moreover, spelling is very important for dictionary consultation and spelling knowledge is a powerful basis for students reading and their vocabulary development as the structure of words can be clues to knowing their meanings.

The results of the exercise assessing students' pronunciation knowledge indicate that there was a significant difference between the no dictionary group and the paper and electronic dictionary groups. These results may suggest that the phonological information of unknown words is very difficult to guess. This is a major problem as the mastery of the English pronunciation is key to successful communication in all contexts of English use. It is also widely argued that failure to produce correct English pronunciation can undermine learners' self-confidence, restrict social interactions, and negatively influence estimations of speaker's credibility and abilities'. Learners cannot guess pronunciation since pronunciation is an intrinsic characteristic of the individual word and context is not expected to help students overcome problems pertaining to it (Florez, 1989). Hence, students must be encouraged to check unknown words' pronunciations in their dictionaries while reading and to make use of front matter and the appendix which contain phonological information carefully.

The majority of monolingual dictionaries present phonological information using IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet). It is helpful if teachers try to instruct their students the IPA to help them learn the pronunciation of the foreign language as learners generally reject it because of its technical character (Herbst & Klotz, 2003). The provision of the pronunciation information with the IPA transcription and the native speaker' recorded pronunciation can result in more ease of use of electronic dictionaries to the learners. An authentic correct pronunciation of the word can be very helpful for oral purposes especially EFL learners who have little exposure to the English (Heuberger, 2000, p. 109/110). However, it should be noted that the recorded pronunciation found in electronic dictionaries is not used by learners to supplement the phonetic transcription but rather to replace it (ibid).

The results of the study also indicate that the students who used their dictionaries (paper and electronic) achieved a slightly higher number of correct answers in the grammar

exercise. Students in all groups frequently succeeded to identify parts of speech. This is very positive, as information about word parts can sometimes help figure out the meanings of words in text. This also demonstrates that the context in which the word occur can be so helpful in determining its function and hence its word' class and that dictionary use would help in the confusing situations.

This does not bury the importance of Learners' dictionaries as a resource of grammatical information. The fact that such information is included implies that the learner is going to use the dictionary in order to foster his productive use of language, rather than just as an aid to comprehension. Dictionaries indicate the headword's word class and provide the learner with other grammatical information. Because the abbreviation of the part-of-speech can cause some problems to some students, in most modern electronic dictionaries parts of speech are totally spelled (Svensén, 1993).

Collocation is a difficult area for EFL learners because while it is sometimes possible to predict the collocations of a word, this may not always be the case. The findings of our study indicate that 64, 38 % of the answers in the no dictionary group were inappropriate. The results highlighted the importance of dictionary use in learning collocations. Recently, as a result of technology advancement and the development in corpus linguistics, dictionary compilers are now able to provide more information on collocations in language use. Collocational information is considered to be of great importance to EFL users and it is now considered as a crucial element of the core knowledge that MLDs must impart to users. This seems to be very useful in the process of learning vocabulary.

Collocations, however, are generally presented in examples in printed dictionaries. So, students may find it difficult to distinguish the collocation from the example. There is no explicit strategy in presenting collocations as distinct from examples. Boogards noted that this is



due to the fact that examples provide a number of information at a time. So, “it is not impossible that this accumulation of functions is damaging for each” (Boogards, 1996, p. 310).

Drysdale(1987) sums up the various functions of examples as follows:

- Providing the information in a definition.
- Illustrating the entry word in context.
- Discriminating different meanings.
- Demonstrating grammatical patterns.
- Showing collocations.
- Specifying appropriate registers.

Atkins and Rundell (2008) consider collocations one of the problematic multiword expressions to deal with in lexicography as it is difficult to decide which word to treat as the headword. Although dictionary appendices can assist learners with collocations (Béjoint 1981), learners seldom consult such information (Learner questionnaire results).

The results for exercise five revealed that the percentages of correct answers were low but somehow encouraging, especially in the no dictionary group, as the information on frequency is particularly valuable for language learners, as it immediately indicates how important it is to learn a word as students may encounter numerous unknown words while reading, many of them can be quite rare. So, it is very useful to have a guide on to what to skip.

Recently, as a result of technology advancement and the development in corpus linguistics, lots of dictionaries are compiled on the basis of large text corpora and more and more information about the frequency is provided in both paper and electronic dictionaries

which provides students with very useful insights into the way the vocabulary of English works and can serve as a guide to what is worth trying to learn. Consequently students should be taught how and encouraged to check their dictionaries for such type of information.

Concerning the exercise assessing participants meaning knowledge, the no dictionary group could reach only 29, 37% of correct answers. The results indicated that there was also an effect of the type of the dictionary used, whether computerized or printed on students' responses. The electronic dictionary group did better than the paper dictionary group (71, 87% vs. 68, 12 % of correct answers). This suggests that guessing words from context did not help students learn words' meaning either because the surrounding context contained too many unknown words or the participants made erroneous inferences, or tried to ignore the unknown words while reading. Here, we can say that students' attitude towards dictionary use, as an aid to check words 'meanings seems to be clear from the results. These findings support previous research studies stating that a high percentage of dictionary users use this resource to look up word definitions.

In the word association exercise, the electronic dictionary group did much better than the paper and no dictionary group (69, 37% vs. 29, 37%). No dictionary users mostly failed in learning such information. Dictionary use to check words associations must be encouraged since the associations play an important role in the structure of the lexical system of the language. The more words students know, the more likely they are to learn new words easily. When a student does not have a good vocabulary he/she may struggle to gain meaning from text while reading. This was pointed out Hatch and Brown (1995) saying that the better learners used the dictionary extensively to learn not just the word they originally started to look up but also related words.

Appropriateness is connected with where we expect to meet a word and where the word can be used. Nation (1990, p. 39) states that:

Inappropriate usage occurs when a second language learner uses an old-fashioned word instead of the more usual one, an impolite word instead of a polite one, American usage where British usage would be more appropriate, or formal language when more colloquial usage would be useful.

The results for exercise six indicate that there was a significant difference between students in the different groups. Most participants in the no dictionary group failed in their choice of words, and so made inappropriate choices for the contexts provided which denote a serious incompleteness of communicative competence.

The results in this study revealed that words' usage restrictions cannot be acquired through reading and that dictionary use in particular electronic dictionary use was extremely helpful in providing such kind of information as this information has now been made available in most modern dictionaries. However, we believe that it stays difficult to find usage information once it is provided especially in examples.

Cowie points out that “examples can be used to flesh out a range of sentence patterns or to point up stylistic contrasts” (1983, p. 140). Yet, “labelling practices currently used in MLDs are far from optimal because, as with general monolingual dictionaries, there is no standardization of terms nor agreement as to how they should be applied” (Battenburg, 1991, p. 74).

Attracting the attention of students on usage constraints is imperative EFL students because, as Battenburg (*ibid*, p.75) points out:

Recording and describing taboo words in dictionaries may help users avoid embarrassment in certain situations. At the very least, MLDs should be able to assist students in comprehending these terms. Second and foreign language learners need this information because it is often difficult to understand the exact meaning of taboo words in another language, and this material is rarely covered in the classroom. In addition, it is not always possible to ask native speakers about such usage.

So, we conclude that dictionaries, especially electronic ones, are an effective strategy to widen students' vocabulary knowledge. Although learners primarily use dictionaries for word meanings, they use dictionaries for other information such as spellings, pronunciation, ...etc. Participants seem to benefit from all information types provided by the dictionary, in varying degrees, which contradicts the findings of previous studies suggesting that users narrow down the dictionary' function to providing meaning only.

Yet, these results do not suggest that guessing word meaning and using a dictionary are not mutually exclusive. We believe that students can, guess word meaning first, then consult a dictionary to check on their guesses and other lexical aspects. Consequently, they may avoid the negative effects of inaccurate guessing and reinforce their impression of the words. However, it should be noted that all innovations in pedagogical lexicography cannot be totally useful and constructive if the learner is not competent to use the dictionary.

So, it appears that the results confirm our hypotheses stating that students use of monolingual English dictionaries while reading would improve their in-depth vocabulary knowledge and that students use of electronic monolingual English dictionaries while reading would improve their in-depth vocabulary knowledge better than while they use paper dictionaries.

Finally, it is worth noting that to help students deepen their vocabulary knowledge effectively, we should all be aware of the importance of using a dictionary in language learning. As Leaney (2007, p.1) says “There is tremendous amount of information in a good learner’s dictionary – sometimes an overwhelming amount. Helping students tap into that information efficiently is one of the best ways to help them become independent, lifelong language learners.”

## **Conclusion**

The current experiment aimed at investigating the effect of dictionary use, electronic and printed, on the development of students' in-depth vocabulary knowledge through a dimensional approach. The results showed that consulting a dictionary is a good strategy for developing students' in- depth word' knowledge. It was also concluded that dictionary type can influence students' vocabulary knowledge. The results of the experiment showed that the electronic dictionary was the group which performed better than the rest of the groups. Hence, students should be encouraged to use their dictionaries to develop their vocabulary knowledge and need to be trained to make maximum use of their dictionaries.

## **Chapter Six: Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations**

This chapter begins with the presentation of some pedagogical implications. Then, it addressed the limitations of the study and recommendations for future studies.

### **6.1. Pedagogical Recommendations**

First, vocabulary is an essential skill for learning, so teachers should determine a good time to develop and robust students' vocabularies and exploit successful effective teaching programs and strategies that target students' development of word knowledge in particular the use of dictionaries.

It is very important to clarify to the students the idea that knowing a word involves not only knowledge of its meaning but other aspects of knowledge concerning the word rather than meanings or synonyms and call the student's attention to these different aspects. It is the teacher's responsibility to help students to find this information in their dictionaries and encourage them to make full use of the dictionary and raise their awareness of the usefulness of the dictionary. This can be through effective dictionary training.

Training on dictionary use, can involve helping students develop dictionary skills as reference works are not just tools to be taken for granted, but sophisticated instruments that need deliberate, explicit instruction. More important, students need to be taught when and how to use the dictionary and what to check out from it if need of dictionary use arises in addition to appropriate dictionary strategies which may involve choices of target vocabulary items, dictionary choices, search of target words in the dictionary, checking out target information from the dictionary entry, and note-taking. Teachers can also facilitate dictionary

use in the classroom by familiarizing students with developments in pedagogical lexicography and the various dictionaries available. Training in dictionary use can also be supported with activities to assess students' needs skills. These activities can focus on spelling, parts of speech, definitions, meanings, register, pronunciation, collocations, antonyms-synonyms, American vs. British English, etc. Teachers should also encourage students to play with words and dictionaries and promote the practice of the use of dictionaries in regular class. Better dictionary provision as electronic and internet dictionaries that have a strong appeal to students should be made available for learners.

Nowadays, Electronic dictionaries are very popular among students due to their user-friendliness. Still this type of dictionaries can be problematic to some students and it is the teacher job to train students to use them.

Moreover, teachers should teach their students how to choose a good dictionary that includes the advantages stated by Nation (2008) which are:

- Provision of a lot of words.
- Unambiguous definitions.
- Provision of example sentences.
- Provision of information about grammar and collocations.
- Provision of pronunciation.
- Provision of the spelling of inflected and derived forms.
- Provision of information on register constraints.
- Provision of frequency information.
- Provision of word' association.



Teachers, however, need to value the significance of EFL learners' dictionary as a basic resource EFL learning, be more aware and well-informed of the possibilities of pedagogical lexicography to advise on dictionary purchase, warn of the pitfalls.

## **6.2. Limitations of the Study**

Like any other research work, the current study inevitably contains some limitations. The most noteworthy limitation is time. Because of time limits, it was only feasible to deal with a limited number of students. The study focused on the dictionary use of a relatively small number of EFL learners (80 Second year LMD students of English). These participants represent only a small proportion of advanced learners. Also, all the participants were students of the same year, the same department, and the same university. Thus, the outcome may not well be generalized to all students from different ages and learning contexts. Better settings would have incorporated a great number of students even from different levels. Longer time might also have permitted us broaden the investigation to prove if dictionary use helped in vocabulary retention and reading comprehension too. There were also only 08 target words to be tested in the study. If there were larger number of words, the reliability of the study could be promoted.

The students' and teachers' responses to the questionnaire present a generalised view about dictionary use removed from reality. Their responses may indicate what they think rather than what they actually do. Other means of research can lead to more precise results.

Moreover, it is not Real book-size dictionaries but mini or pocket dictionaries that were used in the experiment. Complete dictionaries could have led to different results due to the amount of information they can provide. Because of the means of research used in that study, it was unfeasible to examine the strategies employed unconsciously. Additionally

another limitation of this study is that no classroom observation was carried out by the researcher to understand how the participants actually used their dictionaries.

### **6.3. Suggestions for Further Research**

Based on the findings of the study, still there are other possibilities for further research on the same topic. This study could be replicated with a larger sample population, and with an increased number of words and texts. Future studies can even use different types of texts and dictionaries. Additionally, further research should be conducted to examine vocabulary developments after students training on dictionary use and dictionary training by the EFL teacher and its effect on students dictionary use. It would also be interesting to compare results across languages and levels or to investigate students' use of dictionaries while speaking, writing, and translating. Future studies can also shed more light on dictionary use' research and involving technology in such area.

Finally, by estimating the results of this study, it appears probable that dictionary users would still have an advantage over students reading without dictionaries and that electronic dictionaries might be more helpful than printed dictionaries. To confirm this there is still, however, a need to repeat similar experiments with modifications to weak points in the design, procedures and materials of the current study.

## General Conclusion

Since one of the key elements in learning a foreign language is mastering its vocabulary, there has been interest in using dictionaries from the earliest times in which foreign languages were formally studied. Dictionaries provide learners with precious data on every aspect of language. However, until now, most studies have failed to create a clear image of how dictionaries are used to develop vocabulary knowledge. Thorough studies on the role dictionaries play in improving vocabulary knowledge are important especially because EFL learners increasingly depend on new types of reference materials such as electronic dictionaries. The study departs from three principal research questions:

- 1) Do students and teachers make full use of the information provided by dictionaries?
- 2) What effects do dictionaries have on students' in depth vocabulary knowledge?
- 3) Which dictionary' type, paper or electronic, leads to better in depth vocabulary knowledge development?

On the basis of the above research questions, we hypothesized that:

- If students used monolingual English dictionaries while reading, their in depth vocabulary knowledge would improve.
- If students used electronic monolingual English dictionaries while reading, their in depth vocabulary knowledge would improve better than while using paper dictionaries.

To answer the previous research questions and test our hypotheses, a study was conducted at the department of letters and English language, University of Freres Mentouri

with teachers and second year students of English during the second semester of the academic year 2012-2013. The study employed two questionnaires and an experiment.

The questionnaires aimed to investigate students and teachers attitudes towards the use of dictionaries in particular monolingual ones as a source for vocabulary development. The experiment studied the effects of using monolingual English learner's dictionaries (paper and electronic) while reading on students in-depth vocabulary knowledge. The experiment was carried out with three groups (no dictionary group, paper dictionary group, and electronic dictionary group).

The most important conclusions reached from the questionnaires data indicated that

- Most of the participants (teachers and students) appear to consider vocabulary an important aspect in language learning.
- Most of the participants have positive attitudes towards dictionaries, however, the most popular vocabulary learning strategies were determination strategies.
- Monolingual dictionary ownership among students exceeded other types of dictionaries and there has been a high ownership of electronic dictionaries.
- Participants do not make full use of the riches found in the dictionaries
- There was an excessive preoccupation with meaning while learning or teaching new vocabulary items. There is a clear ignorance of the other aspects of word knowledge
- Dictionaries were considered familiar tools that do not need much instruction on how to use them.

The view that dictionary use is a negative behavior to learn words seems to be weakened by the results of the experiment. The results of the study have been in the direction

of our hypotheses. The findings revealed that dictionary use while reading , in particular electronic dictionary use resulted in more in-depth vocabulary gains than reading without a dictionary. The results of our experiment highlighted the importance of dictionaries especially electronic ones in learning particularly words' pronunciations, collocations frequencies , usage, meanings and word associates. Hence, students should be trained to use their dictionaries to develop their in-depth vocabulary knowledge and teachers should be encouraged to profit the maximum of this learning resource.

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# Appendices



## Appendix I: Learner Questionnaire

### VI. Vocabulary Learning

1. Do you think that Vocabulary is an important aspect in language learning?

Justify your answer .

- Yes
- No
- I do not know

.....

.....

2. Do you think that English vocabulary is difficult to learn? Justify your answer .

- Yes
- No
- I do not know

.....

.....

3. Do you think that vocabulary should be taught as a separate subject in the classroom? Why?

- Yes
- No
- I do not know

.....

.....

4. What are the strategies you usually use to learn vocabulary?

.....  
.....  
**5. Do you think that using dictionaries is a good strategy to learn**

**vocabulary? Why?**

- Yes
  - No
  - I do not know
- .....  
.....

## **VII. Dictionary Use**

### **Ownership of Dictionaries**

**6. Do you own a dictionary? How many?**

- Yes
- No
- I own more than one

**7. What is your priority when you buy a new dictionary?**

- Personal preference
- The information provided
- Recommendation by a teacher
- Recommendation by a bookshop, a friend, or parents
- Publication information
- The price
- The size and design
- others



**8. What type (s) of dictionary do you own? You can cross more than one box**

- Monolingual Dictionary
- Bilingual Dictionary
- Bilingualized Dictionary
- Electronic Dictionary
- Specialized Dictionary
- Others

**9. Which type(s) of dictionary do you use most often? You can cross more than one box.**

- Monolingual Dictionary
- Bilingual Dictionary
- Bilingualised Dictionary
- Electronic Dictionary
- Specialized Dictionary
- Others

**VIII. Monolingual English Dictionary Use**

**10. If, you use a monolingual dictionary, provide the following details about your dictionary:**

- Title:
- Publisher Name:
- Date of publication:
- Edition:
- Compiler(s):

**11. When did you first start using your monolingual English dictionary?**

- At primary school
- At middle school
- At secondary school
- At university
- I do not remember

**12. Where do you often use your monolingual English dictionary?**

- At home
- In class
- At the library
- Others (Specify) .....

**13. For which purposes or learning activities do you use your monolingual English dictionary?**

- Reading
- Writing
- Speaking
- Listening
- Translation
- Others (Specify) .....

**14. Which type of information do you consult most often in your monolingual English dictionary?**

- Meaning
- Spelling
- Pronunciation
- Grammar
- Usage

- Collocations
- Etymology
- Frequency
- Introduction And Appendices
- Others

**15. How would you check a word in your monolingual English dictionary?**

- **Method 1:** Open the dictionary and read the definition of the word.
- **Method 2:** Analyse the context of the unknown word, find the correct entry, choose the right sub-entry, and apply the meaning to the original context in order to decide if the search is effective.
- **Method 3:** A more detailed and sophisticated way.  (Explain)

.....

**IX. Difficulties of Dictionary Use**

**16. Do you think you are an efficient dictionary user?** Are you confident about your dictionary skills?

- Yes
- No
- I do not know

**17. What problems do you face while using your dictionary?**

- The information you look for is not present in the dictionary .
- The information provided by the dictionary is not thorough and comprehensive .
- You have poor or no skills in dictionary use .
- You have no difficulty .
- Others (please specify)  .....

**18. Do you think that electronic dictionaries are easier to use than paper ones? How?**

- **Yes**
- **No**
- **I do not know**

**X. Dictionary Instruction**

**19. Do you think that you need instruction on how to use your dictionary?**

- **Yes**
- **No**
- **I do not know**

**20. Have you ever been taught how to use your dictionary at university?**

- **Yes**
- **A little**
- **Never**

**Add any other points you want to make about your experience with dictionaries**

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

## Appendix II: Teacher Questionnaire

### I. Vocabulary Learning and teaching

1. Do you think Vocabulary is important in the process of learning English?

- Yes
- No
- Justify your answer

.....  
.....

2. Do you think that your students have a poor English Vocabulary?

- Yes
- No
- Justify your answer

.....  
.....

3. Do you think that your students face problems while learning English vocabulary?

- Yes
- No
- Justify your answer

.....  
.....

4. Do you explain unfamiliar words to students during lessons? If yes, how?

- Yes
- No

➤ How.....

**5. What do you think are the best techniques for students to improve their vocabulary knowledge?**

.....  
.....  
.....

**6. Do you think that it is worth spending class time teaching student's vocabulary?**

- Yes
- No
- Justify your answer

.....  
.....

**7. Do you think that using dictionaries is a useful strategy to learn vocabulary?**

- Yes
- No
- Justify your answer

.....  
.....

**8. Dictionary Use in Classrooms**

**9. Do your students bring dictionaries into classroom?**

- Yes
- No

**10. What proportion of students brings dictionaries into classroom?**

- Proficient Students
- Average Students
- Non-proficient Students
- No difference

**11. How often do your students consult dictionaries in classrooms?**

- Always
- Sometimes
- Never

**12. What type of dictionaries do your students use most?**

- Monolingual Dictionary
- Bilingual Dictionary
- Bilingualized Dictionary
- Electronic Dictionary
- Specialized Dictionary
- Others

**13. Which type of dictionaries do you prefer your students to use? Why?**

- Monolingual Dictionary
- Bilingual Dictionary
- Bilingualized Dictionary
- Electronic Dictionary
- Specialized Dictionary
- Others

**14. What criteria do you consider when recommending English-English dictionaries to your students?**

- The brand of the dictionary

- The information provided by the dictionary
- The layout and structure of the dictionary
- Others

**15. Does students' use of dictionaries in classrooms disturb you while teaching?**

- Yes
- No
- Somehow

**16. Have you ever told students not to bring/ use dictionaries during your class?**

- Yes
- No

**17. Dictionary Instruction**

**18. Do you think that your students are skilled dictionary users?**

- Yes
- No
- Somehow

**19. What do you think are the difficulties students face while using their dictionaries?**

.....

.....

.....

**20. Have you ever taught students how to use dictionaries?**

- Yes
- No



**21. If yes, what did you teach them?**

.....  
.....

**22. Do you think that electronic dictionaries involve the teaching of some special skills? Why?**

- Yes
- No
- I do not know

**Add any other points you want to make about your experience with students' use of dictionaries in classrooms**

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

## Appendix III: The Checklist

*Please complete the table by crossing the answer presenting your knowledge of the words presented.*

Words	Know it well, can explain it, and use it	Know something about it, can relate it to a situation	Have seen or heard the word	Do not know the word
<b>Enchanting</b>				
<b>Ranges</b>				
<b>Tumbleweed</b>				
<b>Linger</b>				
<b>Succulent</b>				
<b>Remote</b>				
<b>Topography</b>				
<b>Pioneering</b>				
<b>Cradled</b>				
<b>latticework.</b>				
<b>Canvas</b>				
<b>Reptile</b>				
<b>Period</b>				
<b>Surreal</b>				
<b>Cactus</b>				
<b>Arid</b>				
<b>Labyrinth</b>				
<b>Trigger</b>				
<b>tuck in</b>				
<b>Proprietor</b>				
<b>Cobalt</b>				
<b>Tangible</b>				
<b>Eccentric</b>				
<b>Hub</b>				
<b>Rugged</b>				
<b>Thatched</b>				
<b>Restore</b>				
<b>Fossil</b>				
<b>Parsonage</b>				
<b>Refined</b>				
<b>Quirk</b>				
<b>Thriving</b>				
<b>Prickle</b>				
<b>Maze</b>				
<b>Engender</b>				
<b>Meditative</b>				
<b>Shank</b>				

## Appendix IV: The Reading Material

### South Africa's arty eastern Karoo

The Karoo, a semi-desert covering a third of South Africa, is one of the country's most enchanting areas. In this sparsely inhabited region of brown plains, rocky mountain ranges and cobalt skies, *tolbos* (tumbleweeds) roll down dusty roads between sheep farms the size of small European countries. A tangible sense of the past lingers in the eccentric little *dorpië* (towns), where family restaurants serve the Karoo's famously succulent lamb.

Two neighbouring Karoo *dorpië*s are blessed with a surprisingly large helping of art and culture, and are excellent stopping points on a tour of the region. Graaff-Reinet and Nieu Bethesda are located in the eastern Karoo, roughly 700km northeast of Cape Town. Although not the only towns in the desert with galleries and museums, they do offer a particularly large helping of art – and it is a pleasant surprise to find these cultural hubs in one of the Karoo's most remote corners. Surrounded by the rugged topography. Graaff-Reinet is known as the “jewel of the Karoo” for its well-preserved historic buildings. Established by the Dutch in 1786, Graaff-Reinet is South Africa's fourth-oldest town and has been a trading centre, a frontier town, a *drostyd* (seat of local government), and a staging post for the Voortrekkers (pioneering Afrikaners).

On its tidy streets, cradled in a bend of the Sundays River, are more than 220 buildings designated as national monuments, many of which now house museums, galleries, guesthouses and restaurants. A fascinating mix of styles can be seen on its broad avenues: Cape Dutch, with its distinctive thatched roofs; flat-roofed Karoo cottages; and shops and houses built by British settlers in the Victorian era, featuring covered *stoeps* (verandas) and latticework. In the main square, the 19th-century Dutch Reformed Church, one of South Africa's finest examples of Victorian Gothic architecture, surveys the atmospheric town.

A few museums and galleries are located within five minutes' walk of the main square, notably the Hester Rupert Art Museum, one of South Africa's finest collections of 20th-century art. Founded by Dr Anton Rupert, a tobacco billionaire, conservationist and critic of apartheid who was born in Graaff-Reinet in 1916, the museum is housed in a beautifully restored early 19th-century mission church, with mostly expressionistic and abstract canvases by South African artists, including Irma Stern and Maud Sumner.

The Old Library Museum, 50m northwest towards the Dutch Reformed Church, is home to a broad collection, ranging from fossils found in the Karoo – including 230-million-year-old reptile skulls – to Khoe-San rock art and a display on Robert Sobukwe. The anti-apartheid struggle hero, founder of political party the Pan Africanist Congress, was born in Graaff-Reinet in 1924. Interesting museum houses include Reinet House, a grand Cape Dutch parsonage (of the Dutch Reformed Church) with period pieces from the late 18th and early 19th Centuries, including cloth dolls and clothing worn by Victorian settlers and Voortrekkers; and the adjacent Old Residency, another refined Cape Dutch house, containing historic firearms and photos of the town in the 19th Century.

Graaff-Reinet also has plenty of the surreal and fun quirks that characterise the Karoo. The Obesa Nursery is one of the world's largest privately owned cacti and succulent nurseries, with 10 hectares of plants thriving in the arid climate. To relax among the prickles, walk Obesa's cacti labyrinth. Walking these labyrinths – built from low-lying stones or plants, as opposed to mazes with high walls or hedges that obscure your view – supposedly triggers the creative right brain and engenders a meditative state.

For a more musical kind of therapy, one of the town's best restaurants, Ambience, hosts monthly musical soirees. The proprietor, Chris Bouwer, a trained opera singer who has performed across Europe, sings with local guest performers while you tuck into the house speciality of Karoo lamb shank. The restaurant also doubles as an antiques shop; everything is for sale, right down to the salt and pepper pots.

**Article by James Bainbridge  
BBC travel  
07 March 2013**

## Appendix V: The Test

### Exercise 01

These are partial spelling of some words that existed in the text you read. Please, fill in the gaps with the appropriate letter or letters.

1. Lin g/i er
2. Ec c/s entric
3. Succul e/a nt
4. H u/a b
5. Ru gg/g ed
6. Quir k/ck
7. t u/a ck into
8. s/c hank

### Exercise 02

Underline the correct pronunciation of the following words

- |                     |              |                   |
|---------------------|--------------|-------------------|
| 1. <b>linger</b>    | 'lɪŋ gə      | 'lɪŋ gə    -g ə r |
| 2. <b>eccentric</b> | ɪk 'sentr ɪk | ɪ 'sentr ɪk       |
| 3. <b>succulent</b> | 'sʌk jʊl ənt | 'səʊk jʊl ənt     |
| 4. <b>hub</b>       | hʌb          | h ɑ: b            |
| 5. <b>rugged</b>    | 'rʌg ɪd      | 'aɪg ɪd           |
| 6. <b>quirk</b>     | kwɜ:k        | kwɜ: rɪk          |
| 7. <b>tuck into</b> | tʌk 'ɪn tu:  | t ɑ:k 'ɪn tu:     |
| 8. <b>shank</b>     | ʃæŋk         | ʃæŋ               |

### Exercise 03

Provide the parts of speech that each word can take: noun, verb, adjective, adverb

1. **Linger**
2. **Eccentric**
3. **Succulent**
4. **Hub**
5. **Rugged**
6. **Quirk**
7. **tuck into**
8. **shank**

### Exercise 04

Match each word of group (A) with a word in group (B)

1. **Linger**                      Lamb

2. <b>Eccentric</b>	landscape
3. <b>Succulent</b>	Steak
4. <b>Hub</b>	Strange
5. <b>Rugged</b>	Sheet
6. <b>Quirk</b>	Airport
7. <b>tuck into</b>	Habit
8. <b>Shank</b>	Long

## Exercise 05

Underline the accurate frequency of the following words.

1. <b>Linger</b>	<u>244</u>	9951	18
2. <b>Eccentric</b>	6898	<u>599</u>	68
3. <b>Succulent</b>	<u>125</u>	5989	604
4. <b>Hub</b>	26	4875	<u>287</u>
5. <b>Rugged</b>	9781	<u>346</u>	10
6. <b>Quirk</b>	3612	789	<u>128</u>
7. <b>tuck into</b>	583	<u>24</u>	4317
8. <b>shank</b>	1004	893	<u>60</u>

## Exercise 06

Decide which word in each pair is more suitable to be used in the following sentences

1. Inflation **stayed/ lingered** below 4% for a month.
2. This chocolate cake is **succulent/delicious**.
3. His comments provided a **focus/ hub** for debate.
4. Follow the path along the **rugged/ craggy** beautiful mountains.
5. The **eccentricities/ quirks** of genius.
6. Grazing animals **ingest/ tuck into** dioxins through eating contaminated plants.
7. I felt a sharp pain in my **shank/leg**.

## Exercise 07

Match each word with its corresponding definition

1. <b>Linger</b>	Start eating hungrily
2. <b>Eccentric</b>	Juicy and good to eat
3. <b>Succulent</b>	Different and unusual
4. <b>Hub</b>	Continue to exist for a long time
5. <b>Rugged</b>	Lower parts of the leg
6. <b>Quirk</b>	Strange behaviour
7. <b>tuck into</b>	Very important centre
8. <b>shank</b>	Uneven and rocky

## Exercise 08

Complete these sets with the words provided

tangible, linger, eccentric, succulent, hub, , rugged, canvas, quirk, thriving, engender, tuck into, shank.

1. swallow/ taste/consume/.....
2. different/ atypical/ out of ordinary/.....
3. lumpy/ bumpy/rough/.....
4. luscious/ moist/ juicy/.....
5. trunk/ /stalk /.....
6. centre / heart/ focal point/.....
7. remain/ stay/keep/.....
8. habit/ foible/idiosyncrasy/.....

## Appendix VI: Correction of the Test

### Exercise 01

These are partial spelling of some words that existed in the text you read. Please, fill in the gaps with the missed letter or letters. Underline the correct spelling in the following pairs

1. linger
2. eccentric
3. succulent
4. hub
5. rugged
6. quirk
7. tuck into
8. shank

### Exercise 02

Underline the correct pronunciation of the following words

- |                     |              |
|---------------------|--------------|
| 1. <b>linger</b>    | 'lɪŋ gə      |
| 2. <b>eccentric</b> | ɪk 'sentr ɪk |
| 3. <b>succulent</b> | 'sʌk jʊl ənt |
| 4. <b>hub</b>       | hʌb          |
| 5. <b>rugged</b>    | 'rʌg ɪd      |
| 6. <b>quirk</b>     | kwɜ:k        |
| 7. <b>tuck into</b> | tʌk 'ɪn tu:  |
| 8. <b>shank</b>     | ʃæŋk         |

### Exercise 03

Provide the parts of speech that each word can take: noun, verb, adjective, adverb

1. Linger == V.
2. Eccentric == ADJ. or N.
3. Succulent == ADJ.
4. Hub == N.
5. Rugged == ADJ.
6. Quirk == N.
7. Tuck into == V.
8. Shank == N.

### Exercise 04

Match each word of group (A) with a word in group (B)

1. **Linger**                      Long

2. <b>Eccentric</b>	Habit
3. <b>Succulent</b>	Steak
4. <b>Hub</b>	Airport
5. <b>Rugged</b>	landscape
6. <b>Quirk</b>	Strange
7. <b>tuck into</b>	Sheet
8. <b>Shank</b>	Lamb

## Exercise 05

Underline the accurate frequency of the following words.

1. <b>Linger</b>	244
2. <b>Eccentric</b>	599
3. <b>Succulent</b>	125
4. <b>Hub</b>	287
5. <b>Rugged</b>	346
6. <b>Quirk</b>	128
7. <b>tuck into</b>	24
8. <b>shank</b>	60

## Exercise 06

Decide which word in each pair is more suitable to be used in the following sentences

1. Inflation **stayed** below 4% for a month.

(linger is used when something such as an idea, feeling, or illness continues to exist for a long time)

2. This chocolate cake is **delicious**.

(succulent is exclusively used with meat and vegetables)

3. His comments provided a **focus** for debate.

(hub is usually used to describe a place that is very important)

4. Follow the path along the **rugged** beautiful mountains.

(Rugged is used to describe rough, romantic beauty; whereas craggy suggests an area of land which is impressive, but which contains sharp points that would be dangerous)

5. The **eccentricities** of genius.

(Eccentricities are stranger than quirks. Even ordinary people may have their little quirks . Eccentricities tend to belong to more unusual people)



6. Grazing animals **ingest** dioxins through eating contaminated plants.

(tuck into is rather informal; it is used to mean start eating enthusiastically or hungrily, ingest is used in technical contexts to mean to take sth into your body, usually by swallowing; whereas,)

7. I felt a sharp pain in my **leg**.

(shank refers to the lower part of the leg with reference to meat)

## Exercise 07

Match each word with its corresponding definition

1. <b>Linger</b>	Continue to exist for a long time
2. <b>Eccentric</b>	Different and unusual
3. <b>Succulent</b>	Juicy and good to eat
4. <b>Hub</b>	Very important centre
5. <b>Rugged</b>	Uneven and rocky
6. <b>Quirk</b>	Strange behaviour
7. <b>tuck into</b>	Start eating hungrily
8. <b>shank</b>	Lower parts of the leg

## Exercise 08

Complete these sets with the words provided

1. remain/ stay/keep/ **linger**
2. different/ atypical/ out of ordinary/ **eccentric**
3. luscious/ moist/ juicy/ **succulent**
4. centre / heart/ focal point/ **hub**
5. lumpy/ bumpy/rough/ **rugged**
6. habit/ foible/idiosyncrasy/**quirk**
7. swallow/ taste/consume/ **tuck into**
8. trunk/ /stalk / **shank**

## Words Used In This Study With Number of Occurrences in the 100 Million Word British National Corpus

(taken from wordassociation.org began as an experiment by simon holliday, and has now become the world's largest database of word associations)

## Résumé

L'apprentissage du vocabulaire est un aspect important dans l'apprentissage des langues. L'apprentissage de nouveaux mots est une préoccupation majeure pour la plupart des étudiants d'anglais comme langue étrangère. Cependant, l'amélioration de la connaissance des mots est une activité complexe. En conséquence, de nombreux étudiants dépendent de dictionnaires anglais-anglais, papier et électronique, afin d'améliorer leur connaissance du vocabulaire. Les années précédentes ont connu une éclosion de nombreux dictionnaires modernes qui utilisent de grands corpus, par conséquent, rendant le dictionnaire un moyen essentiel dans l'apprentissage et l'enseignement d'anglais comme langue étrangère à l'égard de la première génération de dictionnaires. Le but de cette étude, avec dix-neuf enseignants et quatre-vingts étudiants de deuxième année Anglais à l'Université des Frères Mentouri, Constantine 1 en tant que sujets, est d'enquêter les attitudes des étudiants et des enseignants à l'égard de l'utilisation de dictionnaires comme un outil d'apprentissage par l'utilisation de deux questionnaires. En outre, une expérience a été réalisée pour examiner l'effet de l'utilisation de dictionnaires monolingues sous forme électronique et imprimé sur la connaissance du vocabulaire des étudiants. Plus précisément, cette expérience a utilisé une approche dimensionnelle pour enquêter sur le degré auquel les étudiants ont amélioré la connaissance approfondie de 08 mots, grâce à l'aide de dictionnaires monolingues sous forme imprimée et électronique, tout en lisant un texte. Les résultats montrent que la connaissance approfondie du vocabulaire des étudiants a été améliorée quand ils utilisent leurs dictionnaires, en particulier ceux électroniques. Ainsi, en utilisant des dictionnaires comme un outil d'apprentissage mérite plus d'attention dans le contexte d'apprentissage et l'enseignement d'anglais comme langue étrangère .

**Mots-clés:** Connaissance du vocabulaire, Dictionnaire, Dictionnaire électronique.

## ملخص

يشكل تعلم المفردات جانباً مهماً في تعلم اللغة. و يعتبر تعلم كلمات جديدة الشغل الشاغل لمعظم طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. لكن تعلم المفردات هو نشاط معقد. ونتيجة لذلك يعتمد العديد من طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية على المعاجم الإنجليزية-الإنجليزية، الورقية والإلكترونية لتحسين معرفتهم للمفردات. وقد عرفت السنوات السابقة ازدهاراً كبيراً في صناعة القواميس الحديثة التي تستخدم المجاميع الكبيرة، مما جعل القاموس وسيلة أساسية لتعلم و تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية بالمقارنة مع الجيل الأول من القواميس. لذلك كان الغرض من هذه الدراسة، مع تسعة عشر أستاذاً وثمانين طالباً في السنة الثانية بقسم اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة منتوري، قسنطينة معرفة مواقف الأساتذة والطلاب تجاه استخدام القاموس كوسيلة أساسية لتعلم و تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية من خلال استبيانين. وبالإضافة إلى ذلك، تم إجراء تجربة لدراسة أثر استخدام القواميس الورقية والإلكترونية على تعلم الطلاب للمفردات وأظهرت النتائج أن معرفة الطلاب للمفردات تتحسن عندما تستخدم القواميس وعلى وجه الخصوص الإلكترونية وهكذا فإن استخدام القواميس كأداة تعليمية يستحق المزيد من الاهتمام في سياق التعلم والتدريس.

الكلمات المفتاحية: معرفة المفردات، قاموس، قاموس إلكتروني