



**UNIVERSITETI I EVROPËS JUGLINDORE**  
**УНИВЕРЗИТЕТ НА ЈУГОИСТОЧНА ЕВРОПА**  
**SOUTH EAST EUROPEAN UNIVERSITY**

FAKULTETI I GJUHËVE, KULTURAVE DHE  
КОМУНИКИМИТ ФАКУЛТЕТ ЗА ЈАЗИЦИ, КУЛТУРИ И  
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## POSTGRADUATE STUDIES – SECOND CYCLE

THESIS:

**ELECTRONIC DICTIONARIES, PRINTED DICTIONARIES AND NO  
DICTIONARIES: THE EFFECTS ON VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AND  
READING COMPREHENSION - A CASE STUDY OF THE HIGH SCHOOL "17  
SHKURTI" IN OBILIQ - KOSOVO**

CANDIDATE:

Verona

Sylejmani Stullçaku

MENTOR:

Assoc. Prof. Dr.

Veronika Kareva

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*This thesis is dedicated to*  
*My darling and beloved daughter, Malza.*  
*I dearly love you.*

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## Abstract

Vocabulary learning needs appropriate strategies in language learning. The use of dictionaries is a great help in vocabulary learning and nowadays the need of dictionaries is a beneficial resource for vocabulary learning. The present study describes an experiment with high school students about the receptive and productive vocabulary achieved from reading a text with printed dictionaries, electronic dictionaries and no dictionaries.

Vocabulary knowledge was tested with a pre-test, reading and post-test with three different classes at the same time. Comprehension was measured with true/false questions translated into students' first language.

On the Productive Vocabulary Definition Selection (PVDS) and Receptive Vocabulary Checklist (RVC) pre-test, immediate two-week post-test, post-tests, and comprehension test the ranks of the group mean scores from the lowest to the highest were: no text and no dictionary (NTND) < no dictionaries (ND) < printed dictionaries (PD) < electronic dictionaries (ED). Students who used dictionary were able to gain significantly higher scores than student without dictionaries

Dictionary usage tended to result better on the comprehension and vocabulary knowledge rather than students who read the text without dictionaries. On the other hand, electronic dictionary usage tended to result in superior achieves on the comprehension and vocabulary measures than printed dictionary usage. However, both groups of dictionary users required naturally more time to read the text than students who had not used dictionaries.

**Keywords:** *printed dictionaries, electronic dictionaries, no dictionaries, vocabulary knowledge, comprehension*

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## CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

With a developing need for English as an international language among non-native English speakers, a good direction of the language is deemed essential to operate in a globalized world. For second speakers of English, learning English has turned into important thing that it cannot just be limited to formal school curriculum, it is an activity that people realize that they need to engage in through their lives, especially in a self-learning mode. Nevertheless, English teachers are unavailable outside the schools and learners need to find reliable information that they can refer to when they face a variety of problem related to English. The dictionary is certainly one of the most commonly used, readily accessible, and cheapest learning resources (Wright, 1998).

English dictionaries can fill out this vacuum. According to Cubillo (2002), dictionaries provide students with useful cultural and linguistic information, particularly when teachers are unavailable and the learners are responsible for their own learning. Dictionaries are good companions to language learner, particularly to foreign language learners because they can provide a direct access to the meaning of an unknown word. On the other side, the training of dictionary skills is reviewed important and necessary because EFL learners may not be able to make good use of dictionaries without clear instructions (Fan, 2000).

People from different fields of life use dictionaries for their professional enrichment. The use of dictionary plays a great importance in language learning. Dictionaries are now readily available both electronic and paper. Electronic dictionaries may be either online or can be available for apps on devices and smart phones, and can be helpful and efficiently used to facilitate reading comprehension and vocabulary for both young and adult learners of a foreign language (Shi, 2008). The reasons why people choose to use a dictionary can be better understand through the needs of the users. Hartmann & James (1998), defined needs as “the circumstance that drive individuals to seek information in reference work such as dictionaries” (p.117).

Based on Huang (2003) EFL learners think that dictionaries are useful and fairly common tools in language acquisition and have clearly been long time assistance to many foreign language students. In reality the dictionary is perceived to be a crucial source of data concerning vocabulary and related information, and is not simply a classroom tool but an item of life-long use (Fan, 2000).

As Li (1998) claimed dictionaries are between the most successful and predominant books associated to languages because they play an important role not only in native language acquisition but also in foreign language learning, since foreign language learning usually involves considerable use of dictionaries that this study investigates the different kinds of dictionaries used as well as the lexical information learner are looking for from their dictionaries. Nakamura (2000), pointed out that a dictionary is a mine of information for language learners which provides them with the knowledge about vocabulary, ranging from the most significant things such as meaning, pronunciation, parts of speech, collocation and structure, to specific information such as etymology and register. Its function does not stop at supplying information about vocabulary, but expands to assisting language learners in the comprehension and production of the text (Nation, 2001). Aldosari and Mekheimer (2010), noted that EFL learners “utilize all available information provided by the online dictionary before deciding on the main of the new word” (p.550).

Notwithstanding the importance of English dictionary for EFL learners, study on English dictionaries and dictionary use has taken the attention of language theorists and educators in recent generations (Li, 1998).

Vocabulary knowledge is an important aspect of learning a second language. Vocabulary size is also significant factor of learning proficiency. However, knowing a word brings out knowing many attributes of a word. According to Nielsen (2010), to know a word entails knowing its form and meaning and a words often includes many arrays of meaning. Ooi (1996), pointed out that “lexical competence implies more than just knowing what a word means” (p.54).

Acquiring new words is very concern for most EFL learners in order to be a proficient language learner. As Wesche and Paribakht (1999), researchers and language learners believe that owing to the prime importance of vocabulary learning, learners have to boost their vocabulary size and learn as many words as they can. Moreover, McCarthy (1990) claimed that when words are expressed in a wide range of meanings are not used, it is impossible for create a meaningful communication.

There is evidence that vocabulary learning is appreciated from learners who use dictionaries to find the meaning of words while they engage in reading and listening (Luppescu and Day, 1993). Current literature on vocabulary learning strategies mark that language learners can learn new vocabulary on their own by using dictionaries. Moreover, new studies show that the use of

dictionary on the part of the learner speed vocabulary learning as well as text comprehension (Luppescu and Day, 1993).

Doubtless, there are instances in text comprehension where guessing words from context does not work and therefore is need for checking the meaning of words in a dictionary. It is not always applicable or easy to engage in lexical inference. Some circumstances have to be met in the text for learners to be able to involve lexical inference in order to learn the meaning of new words they encounter in the texts. Some contexts do not return easily to lexical interference. In these circumstances, consulting a dictionary is a good and helpful treatment (Nation, 2001).

On the other hand, researches of ESL and EFL reading show a great interest in the relationship between reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge. Especially they noted that vocabulary can be a very important predictor of overall language ability, that, in fact second language readers believe that one of the obstacles to reading comprehension is lack of adequate vocabulary (Qian, 1999; Luppescu and Day, (1993); Nation (2001). As Qian (1999), noted that “vocabulary size and reading comprehension are highly correlated to each other” (p.67). At this point, vocabulary knowledge is the learner’s general vocabulary knowledge. Laufer (1992), emphasized that foreign language readers of English need to have at least 3000 word familiar in order to have some knowledge of 95% of the running words in a text. Looking the terminology of Read (2000), the vocabulary size test is selective, discrete and context-independent test. Nonetheless, reading comprehension holds a task where the learner must show whether he or she understands a word given in a context.

The other aspect of vocabulary reading comprehension is that the vocabulary burden is the most important predictor of reading difficulty. At this line, vocabulary knowledge is the learner’s specific vocabulary knowledge in a given text. Widdowson (1978), pointed out that readers who are not familiar with difficult vocabulary in a passage, obtaining meaning from the reading selection will not be easy because that unfamiliarity with low frequency words, possibly with only one word in a sentence, may give meaningless an entire sentence.

## 1.1 Theoretical background of the study

Recent years have verified steady development of dictionary use research includes investigations of the use and usefulness of dictionaries for numerous language activities. Researches of ESL/EFL reading have been showing huge interest in the relation between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. They have noted that vocabulary can be an important factor of overall language ability.

In the very early stages of learning a foreign language dictionaries can provide an important support, therefore the importance of using dictionaries in learning and teaching process cannot be denied. Lately, many teachers considered that vocabulary acquisition is the most important part of foreign language learning thus in this way dictionaries are an excellent tool during studying time. Some EFL teachers alarm use of both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries in the conclusion that dictionaries do not help students to understand in context and because students overuse dictionaries (Bensoussan, Sim and Weiss 1984) on the other hand others that use only target language are anxious that dictionaries used word for word translation will negatively effect on students comprehension (Tang 1997).

Monolingual dictionaries can be used as solving some of the problems given by bilingual dictionaries (Koren, 1997). Nonetheless, it can be difficult for a student with insufficient vocabulary to accept a monolingual dictionary that consist of unknown words and time-consuming. However, modern electronic dictionaries can empower students to look up words 23% faster than ordinary dictionaries (Weschler and Pittsi, 2000), but the speed of electronic dictionary lookup may be at the charge of engagement and deeper processing of the words that result in less vocabulary learning (Stirling, 2003).

Studies have not been able to provide that using a dictionary consistently improves reading comprehension. A study done by Bensoussan, Sim and Weiss (1984) has shown the effect of bilingual and monolingual and no dictionaries on reading comprehension of EFL university students. No powerful difference were found in reading comprehension or time prescribed between the dictionary group and control group.

Research on dictionary use and comprehension recommend a number of difficulties in observing improvements in comprehension resulting from dictionary use. Some tests used to measure

comprehension may be incomplete for the task while the texts may be too difficult or too easy for the ability level of the readers about dictionary use in order to make a difference in comprehension.

There is a trend for dictionary studies to show that dictionary use leads to vocabulary gains. Lupescu and Day (1993) studies EFL university students using printed dictionaries and no dictionaries with the purpose to compare vocabulary acquisition and to measure time needed to read a five page narrative that contained multiple occurrence of target words to assist student in guessing. The dictionary group acquired a 50% greater mean score on a multiple choice vocabulary quiz than no dictionary group. However, for some elements with multiple dictionary definitions, the no dictionary group worked better than the students using dictionaries.

Nist and Olejnik (1995) studies U.S university students, they had 20 minutes to study 10 artificial words given in short context followed by dictionary definitions. The quality of the definitions and context was manipulated in that way to create strong and weak conditions. Students were tested on receptive and productive vocabulary measures. The first finding was that students performed better when they were exposed to strong definitions whether they were exposed to the words they were exposed to strong or weak contexts. This recommend that students will learn more from a dictionary with good definitions than from a context alone.

## 1.2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to identify the dictionary use patterns and to collect data on how electronic dictionaries, printed dictionaries and no dictionaries effect on vocabulary knowledge gained from reading a text in high school ‘‘17 Shkurti’’, in Obiliq. The outcomes of the study will help English professors to define if use of dictionaries into classroom is beneficial and effective for EFL students.

## 1.3 Statement of the problem

In the present education system in Kosovo the usage of dictionaries is a little bit neglected. In the school that I teach students preferred to use online dictionaries and they often failed to use information provided in the dictionary during their look ups. I found that students find definition of a words but fail to use the correct derivation or they did not consider information in dictionary about the part of speech. Some wise, to collect data and to investigate how electronic dictionaries,

printed dictionaries and no dictionaries effect on vocabulary knowledge gained from reading a text. Some students effectively use dictionaries, other abuse them. On the other hand some teachers allow them, other teachers do not allow them. A complete ban on using dictionaries should be viewed as extreme. After all, even native speakers of English language sometime use dictionaries with unknown words.

#### 1.4 Structure of the thesis

The thesis is composed of five chapters: introduction, literature review, research methodology, findings, discussion and conclusion.

Chapter one includes introduction which provides an overview about the usage of dictionaries into a classroom environment.

Chapter two presents the literature related to the study as the foundation of the study.

Chapter three explains the methodology and study procedures. It introduces the research design, research questions and hypothesis, participants, data collection and instruments.

Chapter four presents the results and statistical significance.

Chapter five treats effects of dictionary on comprehension, vocabulary learning and on reading time and contains some recommendations for teaching dictionary use.

Chapter six deals with overall conclusion of the study, as well as its limitations and recommendations for further research studies.

The relevant references and resources used in this study are presented at the bibliography section and appendixes are structured by the end of the thesis.

#### 1.5 Research question

- Were there considerable discrepancies between no text and no dictionary group (NTND), no dictionary group (ND), electronic dictionary group (ED) and printed dictionary group (PD) in pre-and post-reading efficient and receptive vocabulary measure?

- Are there substantial variations between text only exposure, text and printed dictionary (PD) exposure, text and electronic dictionary (ED) exposure and text or dictionary category exposure in reading comprehension scores?
- Are there any major deviations between exposure to text only, exposure to text and printed dictionary (PD), exposure to text and electronic dictionary (ED) and exposure to text or dictionary groups in the time taken to read the text?

## 1.6 Hypothesis

- Students using the printed dictionary (PD) or the electronic dictionary (ED) achieve significantly better results of vocabulary learning than those without access to the dictionary.
- Students varying on vocabulary proficiency levels and reading conditions depend on incidental vocabulary acquisition. Reading condition refers to reading with the assistance of the printed dictionary (PD), electronic dictionary (ED), or no dictionary (ND).

## 1.7 Objectives of the thesis

### General Objective

- Materials, the design, and measures of this experiment take into discussion a wide variety of considerations which incorporate vocabulary necessary for contextual learning, guessing from context, the difference between intentional and incidental learning, the different types of vocabulary, and the variables involved in reading comprehension.

### Specific Objectives

- To find out if dictionaries are beneficial and effective on vocabulary knowledge gained from reading
- To find out if students prefer dictionaries



## CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

The following chapter summarize a literature background about dictionary use in general. During the last centuries many researchers carried out research on dictionaries keeping in view the perspective and habits of users. In addition to this, the following literature review deals with two primary areas relating to vocabulary learning and reading comprehension.

### 2.1 Theoretical Review

#### 2.1.1 Dictionary Use

##### a. Definition of Dictionary

According to Jackson in Adriana and Ovidiu (2009), the dictionary is an alphabetical list of words that provide pronunciation information and definitions. Rohmatillah (2016), states that a dictionary is a reference book about words and in order to find out information about words commonly people consult to dictionary.

Another definition about dictionaries comes from Trap (2009), when he states that dictionary is a tool for autonomous learning. According to T. Herbst and G. Stain as cited in Tores and Ramos (2003), dictionary is the main information for language learners which provide them with knowledge about, meaning, words, pronunciation, collocation, part of speech and structure.

In addition, T. Herbs and G.Stain (2003), state that the dictionary is a tool which enables people to check their own knowledge, and to eliminate weakness in grammar, pronunciation, meaning, and spelling. When students are away from the classroom teacher, dictionary can guide them.

##### b. Types of Dictionary

According to Rohmatilla (2016), dictionaries regarding to their language basis are two types, monolingual dictionaries and bilingual dictionaries. Monolingual dictionaries present the explanation in the target language and bilingual dictionaries contain explanations in native to target and target to native language, while on the other hand, if we take into account their design, there are print dictionaries and electronic dictionaries.

Nation (2000), claimed that monolingual dictionaries are written in only one language, for example English-English learner's dictionary when bilingual dictionaries are written in two languages.

Chen (2010), stated that electronic dictionaries tend to be inferior in quality to paper dictionary since they contain less detailed information. In the study of Boonmoh and Nesi (2008), was found that the quality of electronic is lower than paper dictionary because electronic dictionary is not as detailed as paper dictionary containing detail and accurate information.

Despite the disadvantages of electronic dictionary there are also several advantages including its convenience and probability. Students who took part in Tang's (1997) study mentioned that this was a major reason for why they chose an electronic dictionary over a paper dictionary. Research realizes by Stirling (2003) showed that students appreciated the voice function of electronic dictionary.

Koyama and Takeuchi (2007), found that electronic dictionary is quicker than paper dictionary. They gave participant a reading task in which they had to use either electronic dictionary or paper dictionary to look up unknown words, finding showed that students who used electronic dictionary were able to look up a greater number of words in a shorter time.

Dziemanko (2010) argues that electronic dictionaries can help the reader process the information they are reading faster because they do not have to spent as much time looking up unknown words and this is a significant advantage of electronic dictionary.

### c. The purpose of dictionary

Knight (1994), stated that the more often we use dictionaries, the more idiom we have, and the more idiom we know the more we can understand written and oral English easily. Since language is ambiguity, it contains more than one meaning therefore Laufer (1990) noted that "a word in a sentence can look familiar to learner's language, but may find that this meaning in the sentence makes no sense"

Nation (2000: 446) defines some purpose of using dictionary that are as follows:

#### a. Comprehension (decoding)

1. Look up unknown words met while reading, listening or translating.

2. Confirm the meanings of partly known words

3. Confirm guesses from context

**b. Production (encoding)**

1. Look up unknown words needed to write, speak or translate

2. Look up for spelling and pronunciation, meaning, grammar, inflections, constraints, collocation, use derived forms of partly known words needed to write, translate.

3. Confirm the spelling

4. Check that words exist

5. Look up for a different word to use instead of a known one

6. Correct an error

**c. Learning**

1. Choose a known word to learn

2. Enrich knowledge of partly known words, which include etymology.

In addition, Nation (2008) explains that dictionary can help students in three major ways, first they can help students to understand words that they meet in reading and listening, secondly they can help students to find words that they need to speak and write, thirdly they can help learners remembering words.

**d. Ways to use the dictionary**

According to Nation (2001), there are two ways to use dictionary, the receptive use and productive use. The former deals with looking up unknown words, finding the right entry, applying the meaning of the context of the reader and choosing the correct sub-entry.

## 2.2 Views of Dictionary Use

According to Bensoussan, Sim and Weiss (1984) some EFL teachers discourage use of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries because dictionaries do not help students to understand vocabulary in context and because students overuse dictionaries and as a consequence of this students lose the ability to guess from context and self-confidence.

According to Snell-Hornby (1984) and Yorkey (1970) reported in Aust, Kelley & Roby (1993: 66),“...many language educators... believe that bilingual dictionaries are counterproductive because they cultivate the erroneous assumption that there is a one-to-one relation between the words of the two different languages.”

Albus et al (2001) reported that an important benefit of dictionary use was found for the intermediate level students, but not for higher or lower level. In Chang’s study (2002), the use of dictionaries did not bring better result of reading comprehension than non-dictionary use.

Aizawa (1999) even found that subjects in the non-dictionary group achieved better result of reading comprehension than those using dictionaries.

In contrast, some studies demonstrated the opposite. Summers (1988) revealed that the use of dictionary entries yielded better results of comprehension and production. Later, Tono (1989), showed a significant difference between reading comprehension with dictionaries and that without dictionaries. Similar findings were obtained by Hayati and Pour-Mohammadi (2005) and Bogaards (2002).

Knight (1994: 285) add another concern of teachers that may apply to all types of dictionaries, “looking up words frequently interferes with short term memory and thus disrupts the comprehension process”.

### 2.3 Learner’s Use and Preferences

According to Hartmann (1991) research was just beginning to look at the specifics of the intersection of learner needs and preferences and dictionaries. While good design factors can increase the effectiveness and helpfulness of the dictionary use, students may not be using the information offered ineffectively.

Laufer and Kimmel’s (1997), defined these two concepts “definition usability” and “definition usefulness”. Usability is defined as “the willingness on the part of the consumer to use the dictionary in question and his/her satisfaction from it” (Laufer & Kimmel, 1997, p. 362), while the second concept address how well a dictionary can inform the users about the necessary information.

Before the boost of the new technology that allows for computerized word search Laufer and Kimmel (1997), declared that students prefer bilingual paper dictionaries rather than monolingual paper dictionaries. On the other hand, Tang (1997), concluded that students prefer electronic dictionaries to look up sources because of speed and the availability of sound. Bailey & Onwuegbuzi (2002), found that lower-level FL students do not often use dictionaries to do their classwork and homework.

Students who use dictionaries to find more information about unknown words, they do not always use them effectively, since this process is complex, dictionary use requires training and practice. In her study, Knight (1994), defined that the majority of her students had training in dictionary use, while Prichard (2008), noted that some participants in his study need training in selective dictionary use.

Different researchers have found that students struggle with using dictionaries well, so they think that they would profit from training in dictionary use (Bejoint, 1981; Christianson, 1997; Fan, 2000; Knight, 1994; Prichard, 2008). Baxter (1980), emphasized that without training learners may have negative experience while using dictionaries.

Bilingual and monolingual dictionaries are the most used by L2 language learners. Students usually like to use bilingual dictionary since they bring instant satisfactory, while teachers prefer to use more monolinguals for their long term benefits. It is very hard to answer the question “which dictionary serves the learner’s best?” Bilingual dictionaries are usually employed in the initial parts of learning a language and may assist students to solve their terminological problems unless the unknown word has numerous entries while many bilingual dictionaries give only a word translated, this means that learners are bound to make mistakes, Koc (1997). According to Bamber (1997) since the meaning of the word tends to change according to the context than the chances of getting the wrong meaning with this type of dictionary are fairly high.

However, while using a monolingual dictionary students have to think in English and meanings have to be understood in relation to other English words. According to Ilson (1985, p. 104) these are some of the advantages of using the monolingual dictionaries.

1. Users of monolingual dictionaries have to think in English.
2. Meanings of words have to be understood in terms of other English words.

3. Numerous high-frequency function words which are virtually inaccessible through bilingual dictionary may be given proper treatment.
4. Users may gain insights into the exact definition, and constructing example sentences, including learning to deal with definitions which at first appear unclear.
5. The example sentences themselves not only represent typical usage but also provide an access to the meaning.
6. The skill to use the MLD effectively enables users the satisfaction of exploration through the dictionary, a sense of self-sufficiency and greater confidence in their ability to figure out language problems for themselves. This in turn helps learners to recognize and formulate their own language problems and questions in the first instance.

#### 2.4 Dictionaries and their usage as a comprehension tool

Paul (1996), noted that “the most effective strategy for increasing vocabulary and reading comprehension is to read widely text.” (p.36), something that poor readers do not use this strategy either in or out of the school. The most popular tool that provides vocabulary support and teach word learning and reading comprehension among second language readers is a dictionary.

Dictionaries may be monolingual, in which the target words are in the same language as definition (e.g., an English language dictionary) or bilingual in which the target words are defined using a second language that matches with mother tongue of the user (e.g., an English to Albanian dictionary).

According to Atkins and Varantola (1997), second language learners used the dictionary more often than intermediate and advanced learners when reading the same passage as beginner level. Beech (2004), noted that older participant used dictionary to find the meaning of a word in a text. For the young participant difficulty arise due to the inability to understand the word’s textual definition and relating this to the context of the text.

### 2.4.1 Training skill and development

Learning how to use dictionaries takes the acquisition of skills and training over time. In the study of Cote Gonzalez and Tejedor Martinez (2011) dictionary training and activities were found to positively affect, they emphasized the importance of dictionary training in helping English foreign language learners to gain autonomous learning strategies.

Muller (2012), concluded that teachers believe that is necessary for language learners to learn how to use the dictionary and to involve the dictionary during classroom activities.

In the study of Al-Amin and El-Sayed (2014) was concluded that ESL teachers in Sudanese believe that dictionaries are useful tool for advanced level of students. According to Nation (2001) teachers and students should give at least four or five hours a day for training how to use dictionary.

### 2.5 Studies of Dictionaries and Reading Comprehension

Studies have not been able to provide that using a dictionary consistently improves reading comprehension. Bensoussan, Sim and Weiss (1984) examined the effect of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries and no dictionary on reading comprehension with multiple choice question in a variety of text passages. No significant differences were found in time required and reading comprehension between the dictionary groups and control groups.

Koyama and Tekeuchi (2004) compared printed dictionaries and electronic dictionaries on reading task with Japanese university students. Printed Dictionaries users spent more time reading than electronic dictionaries group, but electronic dictionaries users looked up more words than printed dictionaries.

Knight (1994) conducted an experiment with Spanish university students, he compared reading comprehension and incidental receptive and productive vocabulary learning. Students had to read an authentic text with 95.2% known words without access to dictionary. After reading texts, students wrote a summary to check vocabulary. The results showed that students using dictionaries attained significantly higher scores than no dictionary group.

Additionally, low ability students had high numbers of look ups while high ability students had much lower look ups. In other words, looking up more words helped more low ability students than high ability students. Finally, the dictionary group required more time to read than the no dictionary group.

Albus, Thurlow, Liu, and Bielinski (2005) used a monolingual English dictionary with the purpose to compare the effects on comprehension by reading an article for Hmong ESL students and native speaker high students. Overall, they did not find any differences between no dictionary group and dictionary group but reported that 59% of ESL students did not use dictionaries. On the other hand, intermediate and low level students in dictionary group used dictionaries.

## 2.6 Studies of Dictionaries and Vocabulary Learning

Most studies identified a positive impact of dictionary use upon vocabulary Krantz (1991), showed that students learned 15.5% of the target words after reading an English book. As reported by Lupescu and Day (1993), participants using dictionaries were much better on vocabulary retention test than those who did not used dictionaries. Cho and Krashen (1994) suggested that reading with dictionary resulted better vocabulary retention that reading without dictionary.

Some studies presented a more complicated view of the effect of dictionary use on vocabulary learning. In a well-conceived study by Hulstijn (1996), the group reading without dictionary had the highest score of vocabulary then the bilingual dictionary group. However, in the some cases students who did use the dictionary, their retention score were even higher than those of students with marginal glosses.

Aizawa (1999) showed a different role of dictionary use for vocabulary learning, the non-dictionary group scored significantly higher than the dictionary group. In the same vein, Chang (2002) found that reading with different circumstances did not produce significant effects on reading comprehension but for vocabulary learning, the use of dictionaries yielded different results.

Different from above-mentioned studies, Conceiqao (2004) concluded that dictionaries do not contribute to vocabulary retention as there was no significant difference in retention between the group who did consult the dictionary during reading and those who did not.



In Laufer (2011), the number of looked ups turned out to be very low, which was believed to result from learners overconfidence which prevented them from seeking dictionary help.

## 2.7 Research on electronic dictionary use

As the use of the electronic is quite recent phenomenon, corresponding studies are few. They were mainly on its effectiveness to the user's search purpose with identical methods employed to those in other dictionary use studies. Most of the results lend support to the convenience that several electronic features could provide to the users, permitting them faster search results (Winkler, 2001; Chang, 2002).

Chan and Taylor (1994) report on the use of electronic dictionaries by 321 students in a tertiary education institution in Hong Kong. A limited number of students also took part in follow-up interviews. Moreover, teachers were interviewed regarding their student's use of EDs. Chen and Taylor figured out that nearly all EDs used by the students were bilingual English and Chinese dictionaries. Despite the fact that their EDs offered the functions that were not available PDs, they failed to meet several of the ten criteria of a good learner's dictionary marked by Hartmann 1992). Eighteen percent of students stated using an ED. Many students used their electronic dictionaries to find the meaning of English word, others used EDs to find spelling of English words, parts of speech, synonyms and antonyms. Twenty-eight percent used EDs, forty-six used PDs and twenty-six used the two types of dictionaries. While the perceived benefits of EDs included the brevity and inaccuracy of information, small number of headwords, and the absence of examples. Most of the teachers interviewed were worried about the quality of EDs, and some also stated that the possibility of discouraging students to guess word meanings from context.

## 2.8 Paper dictionaries vs. electronic dictionaries

There is a large body of literature on the use of different kinds of electronic dictionaries covering topics as the usefulness of dictionaries, comparison of dictionaries effectiveness between different types, lookup preferences etc.

Chen (2010), found that there were no significantly different effects on vocabulary learning between electronic dictionaries and paper dictionaries.

In Koga (1995), the electronic dictionaries were found to be more effective than the paper dictionary for the higher reading ability group, and for the low reading ability group there was no significant difference.

Laufer (2000) compared the effect of paper dictionary and electronic dictionary and found that on both tests, the electronic dictionary group yielded significantly higher scores than the paper ones. In Dziemianko (2010), electronic dictionary was found to be much more effective for the receptive task, and paper dictionary was found to be effective for productive task and the retention. Dziemianko (2010), assumed that the form of presentation on the computer screen was more captivating and less distracting than the view of headwords on a page in paper dictionary.

## 2.9 Guessing from Context

Even though a text may contain a sufficient percentage of known words for general comprehension, students unaided with other resources need to guess the meanings of new words. Bensoussan and Laufer (1984) did a study about lexical guessing in context. This text contained 70 target words, 29 words did not have any contextual clues and 41 remaining. Only 13 words were clearly defined in the text while the other 28 had indirect clues such as contracts, word pairs or collocations. Lexical guessing was only successful in 13%. The guessing errors were from words with multiple meanings, mistranslation of an idiom, confusion with similar sounding L2 and L1 words, and wild guessing. Furthermore, students were not affected by the success rate of guessing.

In order to measure the learning of words from context from a single exposure, Nagy, Herman and Anderson (1985) did a study with native English speaker. In this study, students had to read two 1000 word texts, the first one was a narrative and the other expository text. Depending on the difficulty level and the test format, the probability of learning a word ranged from 10 to 20%.

In a similar study, Nagy, Anderson and Herman (1985) conducted tests six days after the reading passage where the probability of learning a word from context was only 5%. Given the low rates in guessing and words that are difficult to guess from context, many texts, even when suited to the ability of students, still contain words that can only be learned from extra textual references such as glosses, dictionaries, or teacher explanations.

### 2.9.1 The challenge of learning words in context

It is obvious that incidental learning of words from context is further effective than any type of text vocabulary instruction (Coady, 1997). Johns (2008), noted that in order to be a usefully strategy, readers must know at least 95% of the words in a passage. It is not too easy to learn difficult words from natural reading without using dictionary since much of the content does not provide sufficient information in the meaning of the words (Graves, 1986).

Moreover, the problem with natural learning becomes even more apparent for words that have multiple meanings. A word can be difficult if a secondary meaning is encountered in reading. For example, Mason (1979) analyzed the effect of multiple meaning words on reading comprehension. The results showed that students tend to select the primary meaning more often than the secondary meanings. Students did not select the correct secondary meaning even when the sentence was provided adequate contextual information. Not surprisingly, the use of context presented common problems for poor readers (DeVilliers and Pomerantz, 1992).

For poor and good readers, it appears that the use of context is the most effective when the target words are superfluous with the rest of the passage. Haynes (1984), noted that “guessing that require immediate sentence context is more effective than guessing that is depended on textual elements.” (p.74). In other words, guessing using local vocabulary is superior to guessing using global vocabulary. Accordingly, if guessing requires global vocabulary, the guessing strategy might be eliminated and a dictionary must be used instead (Dycus 1997).

### 2.10 Incidental and Intentional Vocabulary Acquisition

Even though people have difficulties with guessing from context, they do manage to learn vocabulary in both native and foreign languages. The question that arises is how does this process take place? First, learning can be divided into incidental learning and intentional learning.

Nation (2001) explain learning from context as:

...the incidental learning of vocabulary from reading or listening to normal language use while the main focus of the learners’ attention is on the message of the text. Learning from

context thus includes learning from extensive reading, learning from taking part in conversations, and learning from listening. Learning from context does not include deliberately learning words and their definitions or translations even if these words are presented in isolated sentence contexts. (Nation, 2001, p. 232-33)

Hulstijn (2005) explains that incidental vocabulary learning refers to the learning when students are not informed about their engagement in a learning task, that they will be tested afterward. In other words, the author uses incidental learning as a technique (Hulstijn 2001, 2003).

Krashen (1989), equates learning with his finput hypothesis where the language is subconsciously acquired while the main focus is on message and intentional learning with his monitor hypothesis where conscious focus is on form.

According to Nagy (1997) the bulk of vocabulary acquisition results from incidental learning through extensive reading. Nagy (1997), argues that the chance to acquire a new word through context is small, that small gains combines with reading.

A study examined by Elley (1991) also suggest that second language learners benefit from large amount of reading when the main focus is on meaning and not on form. However, Hill and Laufer (2003) argue that extensive reading is not a solution to the problem of learning the first couple thousand words of a second language

This would appear to be a daunting and time consuming means of vocabulary development. It seems therefore reasonable that L2 learners acquire their vocabulary not only from input, be it reading or listening, but also through word focused activities. (Hill and Laufer, 2003, p. 88)

## 2.11 The importance of vocabulary

### 2.11.1 Vocabulary knowledge

Henriksen (1999), describes vocabulary knowledge as partial-precise, depth and receptive-productive, when precise knowledge is defined by test, depth knowledge refers to senses of a words

and knowing multiple meanings, and the final receptive-productive refers to the ability to use the words in comprehension and production.

Richards (1976) in Read (2000) described various knowledge types necessary to fully acquire a word:

Knowing a word means knowing probability of encountering a word in speech or print...the sorts of words most likely to be associated with the word...the limitations on use of the word according to variations of function and situation...the syntactic behavior...underlying form and derivations...the network of associations between that word and other words...the semantic value of a word...the different meanings associated with the word. (Richards, 1976, p. 83)

Wesche and Paribakht (1996) use different tests with a scale of five stages progressing from no knowledge to the word up to productive ability:

1. I don't remember having seen this words before;
2. I have seen this words before but I don't know what it means;
3. I have seen this word before and I think it means \_\_\_\_\_;
4. I know this words. It means \_\_\_\_\_;
5. I can use this words in a sentence, eg: \_\_\_\_\_.

(Wesche and Paribakht, 1996)

Maera (1999), argues that the stages should not be as progressive, because, it is possible to produce a sentence without knowing what that word means, and that knowledge differs from stages to stages and may change over time.

According to Melka (1997) the receptive-productive distinction is an intuitive construct based on the assumptions that productive vocabulary is smaller than receptive vocabulary.

Nation (2001, p. 27), illustrates this in Table 1 applying the receptive-productive distinction to words knowledge of meaning, use and form.

Table 1. Categories of Receptive and Productive Knowledge

Form	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 spelled?
	Word parts	R	What parts are recognizable in this word?
		P	What word parts are needed to express this meaning?
<b>Meaning</b>	Form & Meaning	R	What meaning does this word signal?
		P	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concept & 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?
<b>Use</b>	Grammatical functions	R	In what patterns does the word occur?
		P	In what patterns must we use this word?
	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?

(Nation, 2001, p.27)

### 2.11.2 Methods of attaining vocabulary knowledge

Paul (1996), declare that it is very necessary to teach vocabulary to poor readers, who are not expected to derive many word meaning from the use of context. According to Paul (1996) the teacher should have a list of words that are important for students to know prior to a lesson. Armbruster, Lehr and Osborn (2001) mentioned that after practice with pronunciation and learning a particular word or definition, students have to use the words in sentence. This method is problematic for several reasons, such as:

- The target text may have too many words that are unknown for students and for direct instruction.
- Direct vocabulary instruction can take a lot of time that teachers might better spend
- Students need opportunities to use word-learning strategies for learning the meanings on unknown words.

Conway (1990), stated that “Traditional programs of learning definitions for lists of words should give way to learning words in semantically rich contexts. The contexts can serve as bridges to old information and as foundations for developing further conceptual interrelationships.” (p. 346).

According to National Reading Panel (2000):

- Vocabulary learning is effective only when it entails active engagement of students in learning tasks.
- Vocabulary can be acquired through incidental learning. Much of a student’s vocabulary should be learned in the course by doing things and other than by explicit vocabulary learning.
- Motivation, richness of context, and repetition may also add to the efficacy of incidental learning of vocabulary.

According to Noor (2011), the main role of the learner in the language learning process as language is a learner oriented activity.

Cunningham and Stanovich (1997), declared that tenth graders who read for 25 minutes each day, read almost 2 million more words per year than students who did not read. If 2-3% of words are

unknown words to students, than they will be exposed to 30,000 new words every year (Anderson and Nagy, 1991)

### 2.11.3 Minimum Vocabulary for Contextual Learning

In any study involving learning from context both the vocabulary of the text and student's vocabulary should be taken into account. Johns (2008), suggested that if 5% or more of the words are unknown than guessing from context and comprehension of the text structure may not be possible.

Moreover, Laufer and Sim (1985), stated that 65-70% of the vocabulary must be known in order to comprehend texts for academic purposes.

Hu Hsueh-chao and Nation (2000) studied the effects on comprehension of different levels of known words in fiction text. Their results are summarized in Table 2, show that small amount of unknown vocabulary adversely impact comprehension.

*Table 2. Words Known Versus Adequate Comprehension*

Percentage of known words in text	Percentage of Subjects achieving adequate comprehension (12 out of 14 questions correct on a multiple-choice measure)
80%	0%
90%	25%
95%	35%
(98%) No text with 98% coverage was used. This number was derived by interpolation using a jittered plot graph.	Most learners gain adequate comprehension.
100%	88%

(Hu Hsueh-chao and Nation, 2000)



## 2.12 Reading Comprehension

Alderson (2000), claimed that vocabulary knowledge is not the only factor that affect comprehension. Alderson (2000, p. 32-84) surveys some different factors that affect directly reading and split them into the reader variables and text variables summarized in Table 3.

*Table 3. Reader and Text Variables*

Reader variables	Text Variables
Knowledge: lexical, syntactic, rhetorical, metalinguistic, discourse, L1 vs L2 knowledge, genre/text type, subject matter/topic, world, cultural	Topic and Content
Motivation: intrinsic/extrinsic	Genre
Strategies	Organization
Skills	Linguistic variables
Purpose: scanning, skimming, reading, learning, memorizing	Readability
Test Taking vs. Real World	Typographical features
Affect	Verbal vs. Nonverbal information
Stable characteristics: personality, age, sex	Medium of text presentation
Physical characteristics: eye movement, speed of recognition, automaticity of processing	

(Alderson, 2000, p. 32-84)

These variables cooperate with each other in the process of reading but because there are so many variables, it is very difficult to do justice to a discussion of reading comprehension in the space permitted.

## Chapter III: METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides an outline of research methods that were followed in the study. It provides information on the participants, who they were and how they were sampled. The materials that were used for data collection is also described and the procedures that were followed to carry out this study are included.

### 3.1 Design of the study

First years of EFL high school students two weeks before the experiment were given a questionnaire with 22 questions with a purpose to identify the students' use of dictionaries and a receptive vocabulary checklist test and a productive vocabulary definition selection test. On the day of the experiment, students read an original text and they were divided into four different groups. PD was the group that read a text with printed dictionary, ED group read the text with electronic dictionary, ND group read the text without any dictionary and the last group was NTND that did not read the text or use dictionary but they took the receptive vocabulary checklist (RVC) and productive vocabulary definition selection (PVDS) in order to test whether scores would increase over time due to students looking up words on noticing target words or on their own initiative, or even from simply repeatedly taking test.

Immediately after reading PD, ED, and ND groups took RVC and PVDS followed with a comprehension test. The NTND group did not took the comprehension test. Two weeks after the experiment, the receptive vocabulary checklist and productive vocabulary definition selection were administered for the third time on PD, ED, ND and for NTND groups. For more clarity about the groups and the order of the tests we have table 4.

*Table 4. Groups and the order of tests*

Groups	Pre-Test (two weeks before)	Experiment	Post-Test (two weeks after)
<b>Printed Dictionaries (PD)</b>	RVC + PVDS	RVC + PVDS + Comprehension	RVC + PVDS

<b>Electronic Dictionaries (ED)</b>	RVC + PVDS	RVC + PVDS + Comprehension	RVC + PVDS
<b>No Dictionary (ND)</b>	RVC + PVDS	RVC + PVDS + Comprehension	RVC + PVDS
<b>No Text and No Dictionary (NTND)</b>	RVC + PVDS	RVC + PVDS	RVC + PVDS

### 3.2 Participants

The participants were 112 EFL students of 11th grade, who had learned English also in primary school. Their age is 17 to 18. Sixty-two are females and fifty are male. This study was conducted in high school “17 Shkurti” in Obiliq and it will be focused on the use of dictionaries in English classes.

### 3.3 Procedures

Throughout the RVC and PVDS two week pre-test, students were told that they were getting a level-check. They were not notified that they would be taking the similar tests again. In the experiment, participants in the ED, PD and ND groups were charged to read the text for meaning and told that they would carry a comprehension test after reading but would not have connection to the text after starting the test. Students were not aware that they would also be tested on vocabulary in the RVC and PVDS.

When students are done with reading, they raised their hands thus the reading time could be recorded. The PD and ED groups were allowed to use dictionaries at the time they read but not while taking the test. Groups using dictionaries highlighted words that they looked up. Students who do not receive a text took the same test as the other groups but were informed that they were being tested on guessing skill and background knowledge. Tests were gathered as they were done and new testes distributed. Students were not aware about the two-week post-test.

The order of the tests seek to minimize learning from the tests. Thus participants could not modify answers or relate to earlier test forms, students only had control of one test at a time – the

comprehension test, the productive vocabulary definition selection or the receptive vocabulary checklist. The PVDS test includes definitions but learning vocabulary from the test would be difficult. The RVC test includes only the target words without definitions. In the day that the texts were read, the comprehension test was handed last. Around one week earlier to the experiment, participant were asked to bring both ED and PD if they owned both of them or either if they only owned one kind of dictionary.

### 3.4 Material

During the experiment, students read the text which is a story from the book, 101 Healing Stories for The Kids and Teens, George W. Burns (2006, p. 77-78). All students that took part in the experiment read the same text. Table 5 describes the text in term of variables.

*Table 5. Text Variables Specific to Text*

<b>Text Variables</b>	<b>Characteristics of the text</b>
<b>Topic and Content</b>	Education: BE YOURSELF (valuing your resources)
<b>Organization</b>	Eleven paragraphs
<b>Linguistic Variables</b>	Text contains approximately 80% known vocabulary
<b>Readability</b>	1019 words
<b>Typographical features</b>	12 point, 1.5 space, Times New Roman font
<b>Verbal vs. Nonverbal Information</b>	Text only. No pictures or illustration
<b>Medium</b>	Printed on A4 sheets of paper

### 3.4.1 Dictionary ownership and use

Most of the 112 students claimed to own a dictionary, only 9 students denied owning any dictionary at all. Below are shown the dictionaries most frequently named by the students:

<i>Oxford Elementary Learner's Dictionary (1994)</i>	42
<i>Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1995)</i>	18
<i>Collins English Dictionary</i>	9
<i>New Oxford Dictionary of English (1998)</i>	13
<i>English Albanian Dictionary (1999)</i>	9
<i>Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary</i>	3
<i>Cambridge Learner's Dictionary</i>	9

### 3.4.2 Receptive Vocabulary Checklist Test (RVC)

In the experiment RVC (Appendix II) was not used with a purpose to measure the percentage of the unknown words in the text, but RVC was used as a pre-test and post-test for known words to measure receptive vocabulary gained from reading. The RVC contains a total of 40 items. The grammatical forms of words as they were used in RVC were: 19 nouns, 14 verbs, 6 adjectives and 2 adverbs. The total number of scores in RVC is 40 points. Table 6 shows the different types of RVC items in the order that they appear on the test.

*Table 6. Items on Receptive Vocabulary Checklist Test*

Appear Attempt Awkward Cliff Cover Cub Developing Edge Elongated Frightened Funhouse
Gait Gazelle Godmother Grass Guess Horns Imagine Kicking Ledge Lowered Matter Mirrors
Puppeteer Reassure Regain Root Sleek Smooth Snapping Spindly Sting Struggled Tangled

Tiles Tiptoes Trunk Ungainly Unique Wayward

Color code: red = hard item, orange = medium item, green = easy item

### 3.4.3 Productive Vocabulary Definition Selection Test (PVDS)

The PVDS (Appendix III) utilizes the same test form as the RVC with the addition of a list of Albanian translation for the 20 words. Students wrote the number of Albanian word that had the same meaning. The test requires starting from an Albanian meaning and selecting the correct English form from the list of 40 items on the checklist. The productive vocabulary definition selection stands on recognition, which is easier than recall. The total number of scores in PVDS is 20 points.

### 3.4.4 True / False Comprehension Test

The comprehension test (Appendix IV) was conducted after the RVC and PVDS on the day when students read the text. The comprehension test consists of 20 statements about the text in order to generate items to be marked by the subject as true or false. Students while taking the comprehension test were not permitted to use the dictionary. The questions in comprehension test provide a proportion which includes the meaning of the difficult vocabulary without necessarily focusing on the meaning of the difficult vocabulary.

Referring to the text or to the dictionary while taking the comprehension test was not allowed. Parts of the text could have been understood at the moment of the reading but not retained as much as to answer test questions. Thus, the reading design begin tested is actually comprehension test. The idea not to allow the access to the text while answering the questions was because if they would have access to the text this might have substantially impact the reading by transforming the task from reading to a search for isolated bits of the information.

### 3.4.5 Questionnaire

A twenty-two item questionnaire was used to elicit the students' use of dictionaries. The questionnaire was taken during classes two weeks before the experiment and students were informed about the purpose of the study and their answers were taken into consideration. The questionnaire consists of 3 sections. The first section of the questionnaire will investigate dictionary use from different corners. They will be looked at according to their differences in type and format. The second section will explore the students' use of the information provided by a dictionary. The last section will examine the difficulties in using dictionary. Participants are asked to rate the statements given according to the following scale: Agree and Disagree.

## Chapter IV: FINDINGS

The list of the average scores of all groups in the receptive vocabulary checklist and productive vocabulary definition selection measured at each administration, the average time taken to read the text and the average scores of all groups on the comprehension test are in the Table 7, 8, 9.

*Table 7 Analysis of the result on Receptive Vocabulary Checklist*

	Number of participants	RVC pre-test		RVC immediate test		RVC post-test	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
ED	28	314	28%	504	45%	413	36.8%
PD	28	212	18.9%	413	36.8%	313	27.9%
ND	28	302	26.9%	337	33.3%	275	24.5%
NDNT	28	197	17.5%	240	21.4%	201	17.9%

*Table 8. Analysis of the result on Productive Vocabulary Definition Selection*

	Number of participants	PVDS pre-test		PVDS immediate test		PVDS post-test	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
ED	28	220	39.1%	370	66%	301	53.7%
PD	28	130	23.2%	290	51.7%	240	42.8%
ND	28	194	34.6%	260	46.4%	214	38.2%
NDNT	28	87	15.5%	104	18.5%	87	15.5%



Table 9. Analysis of the result on Comprehension test

Comprehension test			
	Number of participants	n	%
ED	37	204	55.1%
PD	37	150	40.5%
ND	38	116	30.5%
NDNT	N/A	N/A	N/A

*Abbreviations: ND = no dictionary group, ED = electronic dictionary group, PD = printed dictionary group, NTND = no text and no dictionary group, n = the number of the participants in group, RVC = receptive vocabulary checklist, Comp – comprehension test, PVDS = productive vocabulary definition selection test, Pre = two-week pre-test, Post = immediate post-test, Delayed Post = two-week post-test, N/A = not applicable*

On the PVDS and RVC immediate two-week post-test and post-tests, the ranks of the group mean scores from the lowest to the highest were: no text and no dictionary (NTND) < no dictionaries (ND) < printed dictionaries (PD) electronic dictionaries (ED).

On the RVC and PVDS two-week pre-test was a very little difference between the groups. Groups such as ED, PD, and ND groups were higher than two-week pre-test scores. Therefore, ED, PD, and ND groups all had increased on the both productive vocabulary definition selection and receptive vocabulary checklist from the two-week pre-test to immediate post-test and decreases from the immediate post-test to the two-week post-test. While the NTND groups increased from the pre-test to the immediate post-test but did not advance from the immediate post-test to the two-week post-test.

On the comprehension tests, the ranks of the group mean scores from the lowest to the highest were: NTND<PD<ND<ED.

About reading times, the PD group took the most time to read, than followed by ED group and the fastest group was ND group.

In regard to the research questions, the next section investigates the statistical significance of the results.

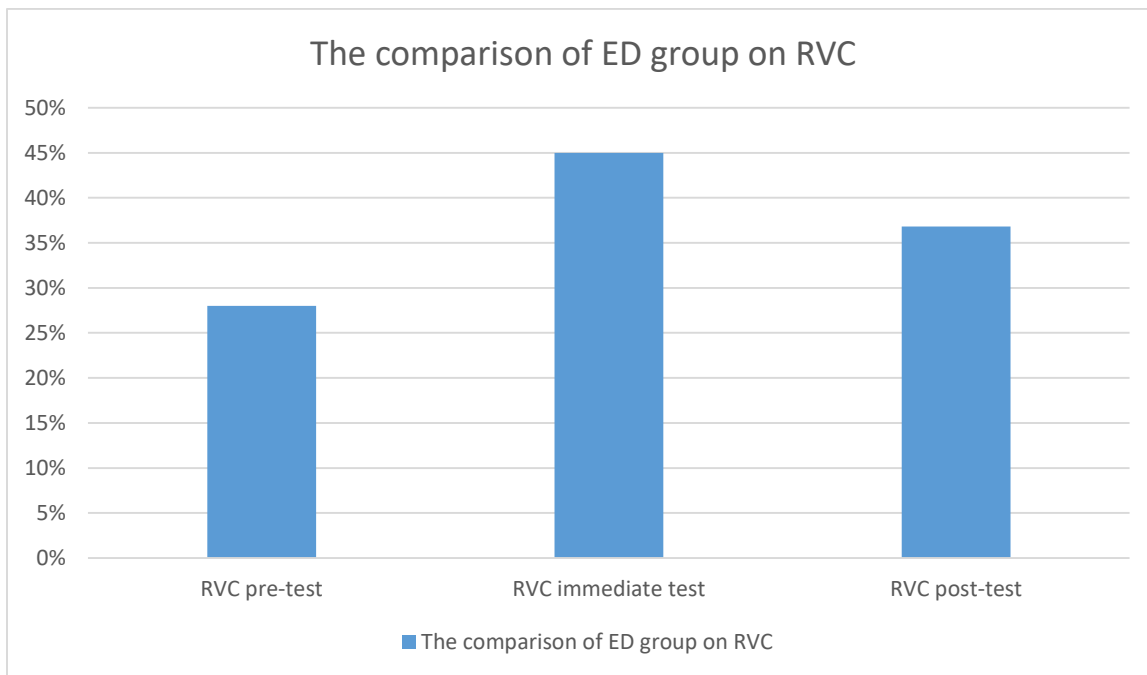
#### 4.1 RVC vocabulary measures

The first research question is whether there are considerable discrepancies between NTND, ND, ED and PD in pre and post-reading efficient and receptive vocabulary measure.

The results show that on the immediate post-test RVC scores there was no significant difference between PD and ED groups, but on the other hand ED group's scores were significantly higher than the NTND and ND scores. Also, PD group was higher than the ND and NTND groups. However there was no significant difference between ND and NTND groups.

Another aspect of the first research question is how groups performed on the RVC two-week post-test. On the two-week post-test RVC scores there was no significant differences between PD and ED groups, however ED group's score was significant higher than NTND and ND scores.

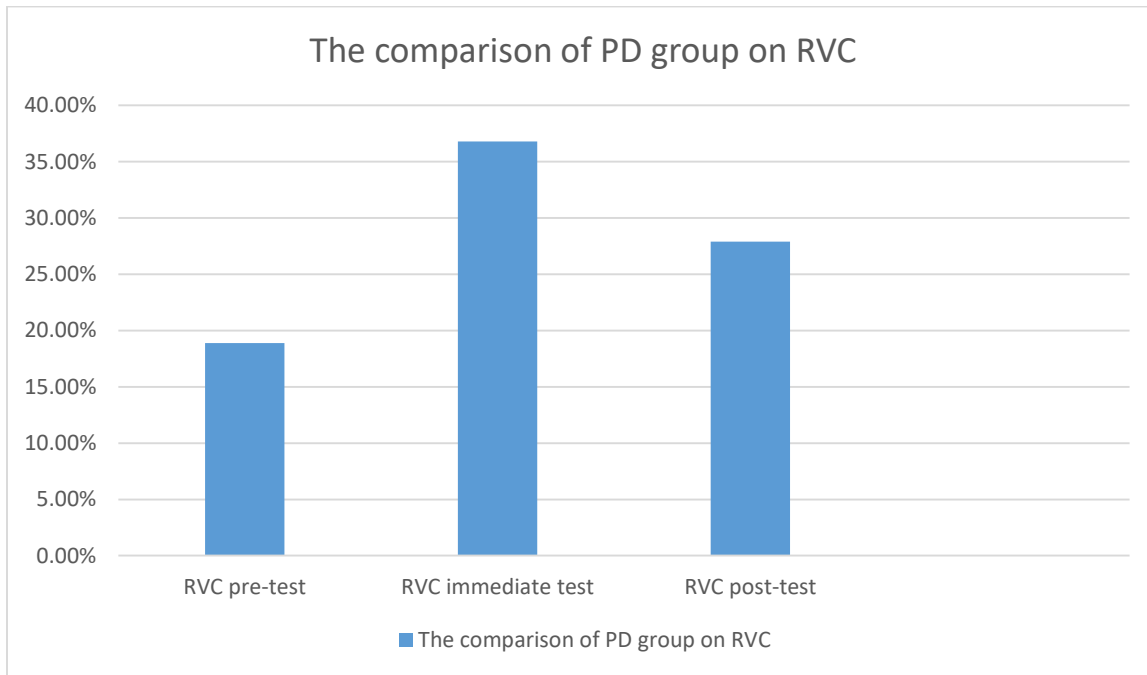
##### 4.1.1 The comparison of ED group on Receptive Vocabulary Checklist



. Figure 1. The result of ED group on Receptive Vocabulary Checklist

The comparison of the ED group’s two-week pre-test, two-week post-test and immediate post-test RVC scores indicated that there was a significant difference in scores among the three tests. There was a significant increase from pre-test to the immediate post-test and a significant decrease from the immediate post-test to the two-week post-test but still showed an increase from the two-week pre-test to the two-week post-test.

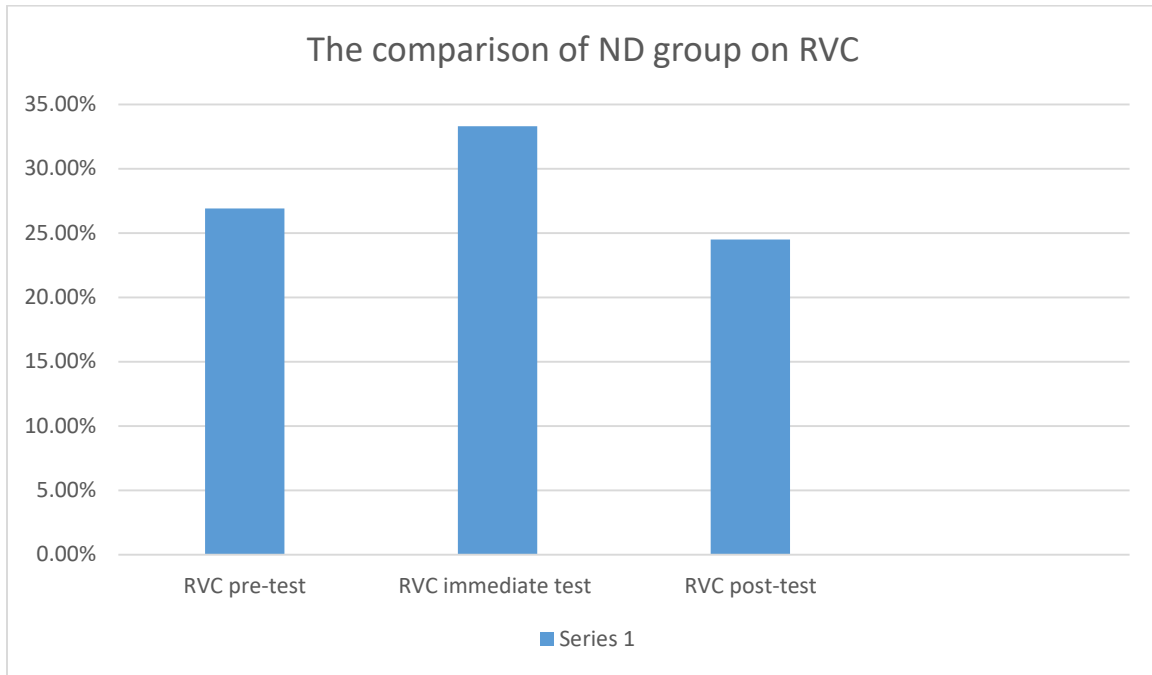
#### 4.1.2 The comparison of PD group on Receptive Vocabulary Checklist



*Figure 2. The results of PD group on Receptive Vocabulary Checklist*

The comparison of the PD group’s two-week pre-test, two-week post-test and immediate post-test RVC scores were significant difference. There was a significant increase from the pre-test to the immediate post-test, and a significant decrease from the immediate post-test to the two-week post-test but it still showed a significant increase from the two-week pre-test to the two-week post-test.

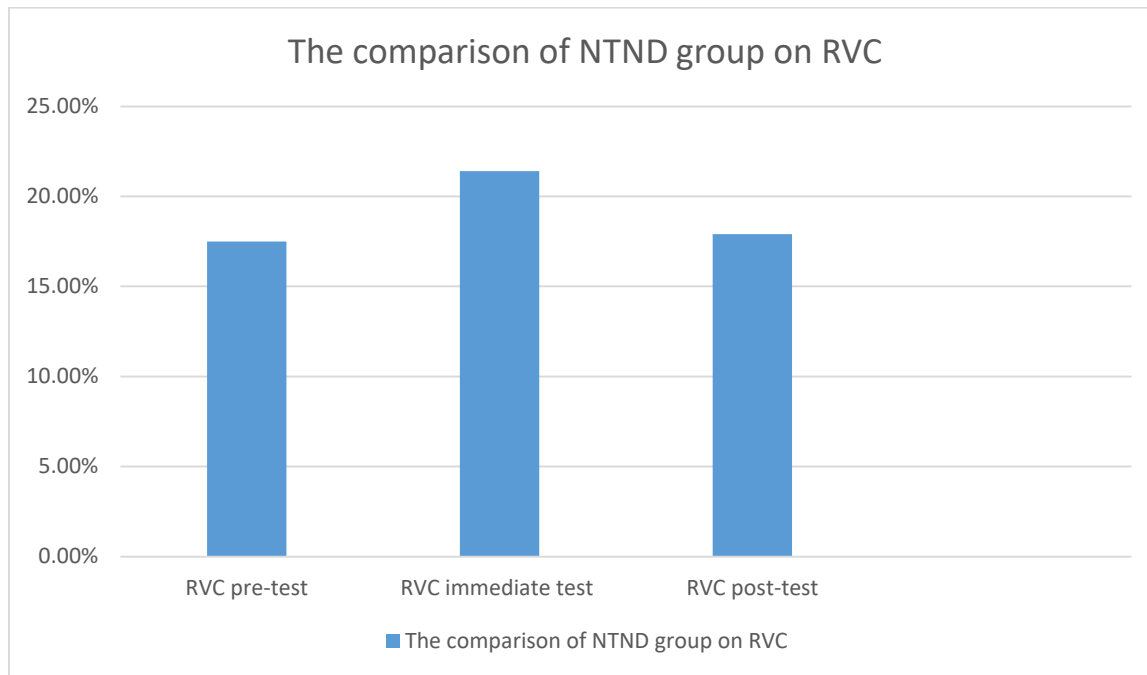
#### 4.1.3 The comparison of ND group on Receptive Vocabulary Checklist



*Figure 3. The comparison of ND group on the Receptive Vocabulary Checklist*

The comparison of the ND group's two-week pre-test, two-week post-test and immediate post-test RVC scores indicated that there was a significant difference in scores among the three testing. There was a significant increase from pre-test to the immediate post-test and a significant decrease from the immediate post-test to the two-week post-test but still showed an increase from the two-week pre-test to the two-week post-test.

#### 4.1.4 The comparison of NTND group on Receptive Vocabulary Checklist



*Figure 4. The comparison of the NTND group on Receptive Vocabulary Checklist*

The comparison of the NTND group's two-week pre-test, two-week post-test and immediate post-test RVC scores were significant differences. There was no significant difference from two-week pre-test to two-week post-test but showed a significant increase from two-week pre-test to the immediate post-test.

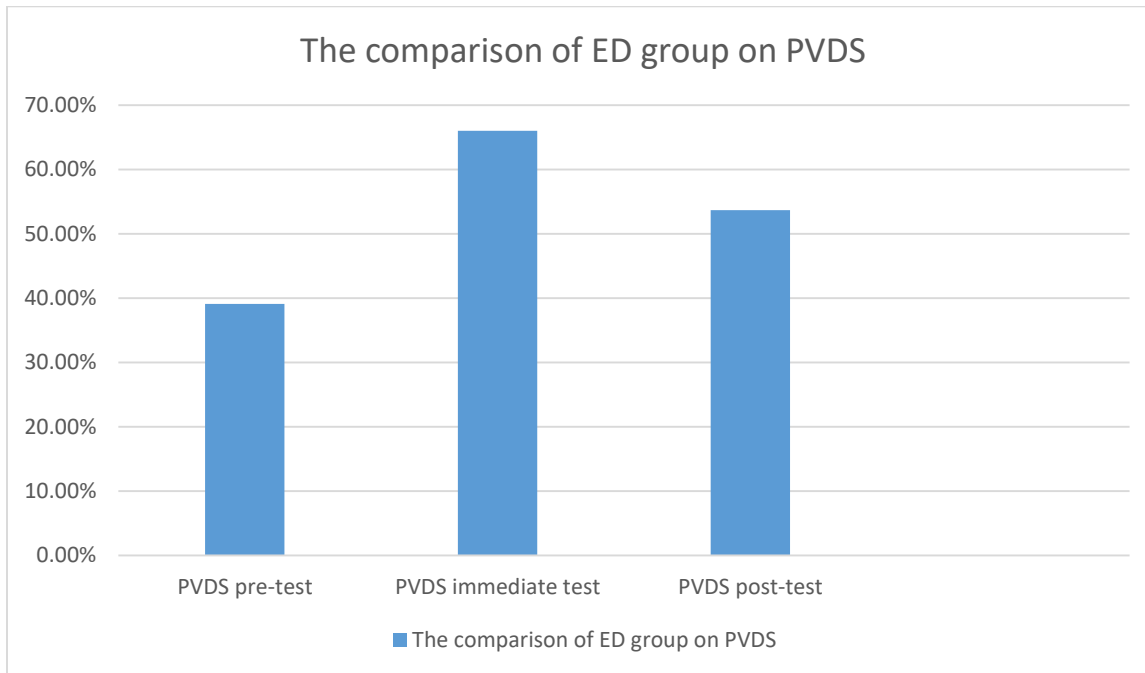
There was no significant differences between the ED, PD, ND and NDNT on the PVDS two-week pre-test. The ED group's scores were higher than the ND, PD and NTND scores. The PD group's scores were not higher than ND and NTND scores. There was also no significant differences between the NTND and ND groups.

## 4.2 PVDS vocabulary measures

The other aspect of the first research question is how each group performed to other groups on the PVDS two-week post-test. There was a significant difference among the four groups.

Between ED and PD groups there was no significant difference but the ED group's score was higher than the ND group's score.

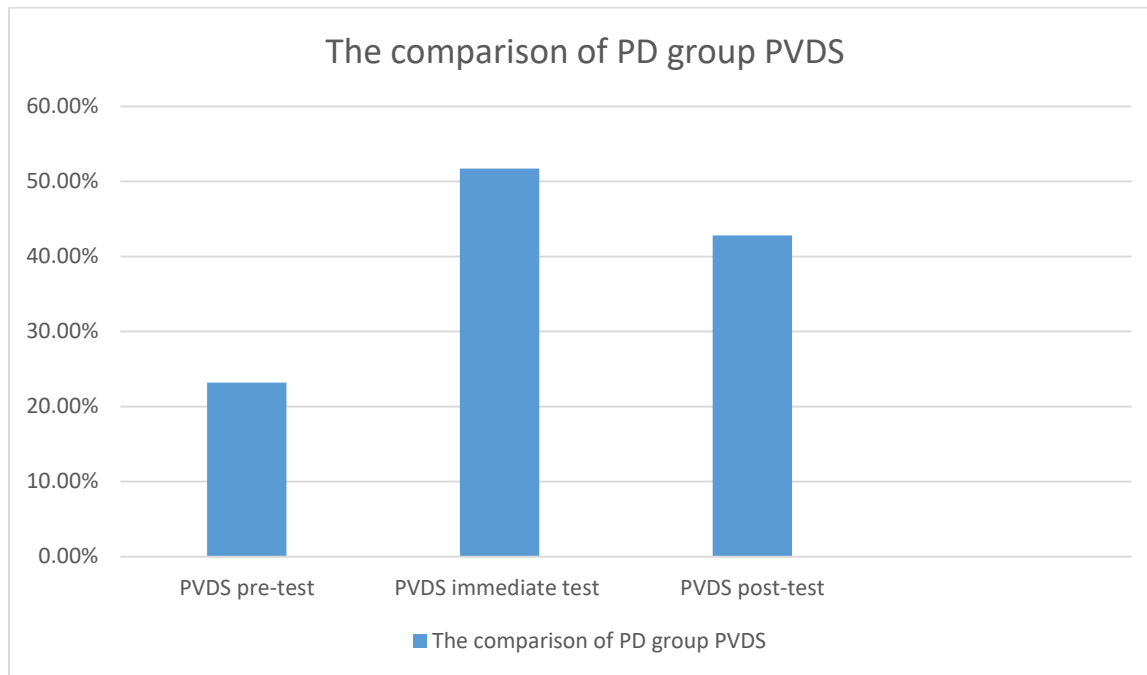
### 4.2.1 The comparison of ED group on Productive Vocabulary Definition Selection



. *Figure 5. The comparison of ED group on PVDS*

The comparison of the ED group's two-week pre-test, two-week post-test and immediate post-test PVDS scores indicated a significant changes in scores among the three testing. There were a significant increasing from the pre-test to the immediate post-test and a decrease from the immediate post-test to the two-week post-test but still showed a significant increase from the two-week pre-test to the two-week post-test.

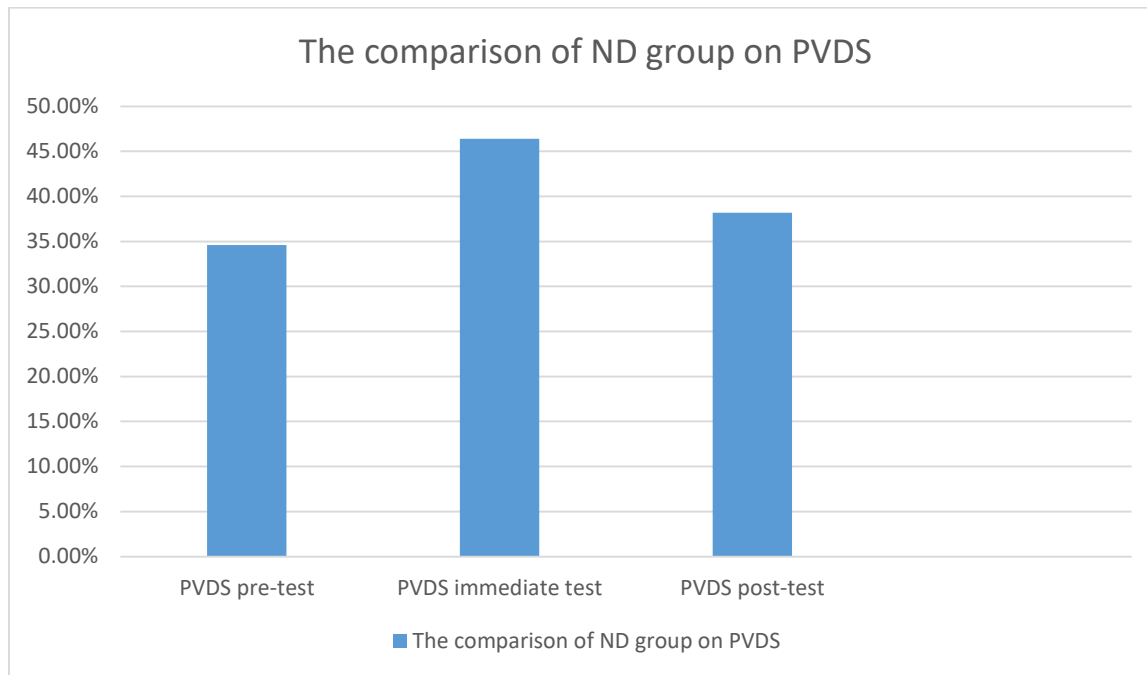
#### 4.2.2 The comparison of PD group on Productive Vocabulary Definition Selection



*Figure 6. The comparison of PD group on PVDS*

The comparison of the PD group's two-week pre-test, two-week post-test and immediate post-test PVDS scores was significant differences. There was a significant increase from the pre-test to the immediate post-test and a decrease from the immediate post-test to the two-week post-test. There was a significant increase from the two-week pre-test to the two-week post-test.

#### 4.2.3 The comparison of ND group on Productive Vocabulary Definition Selection

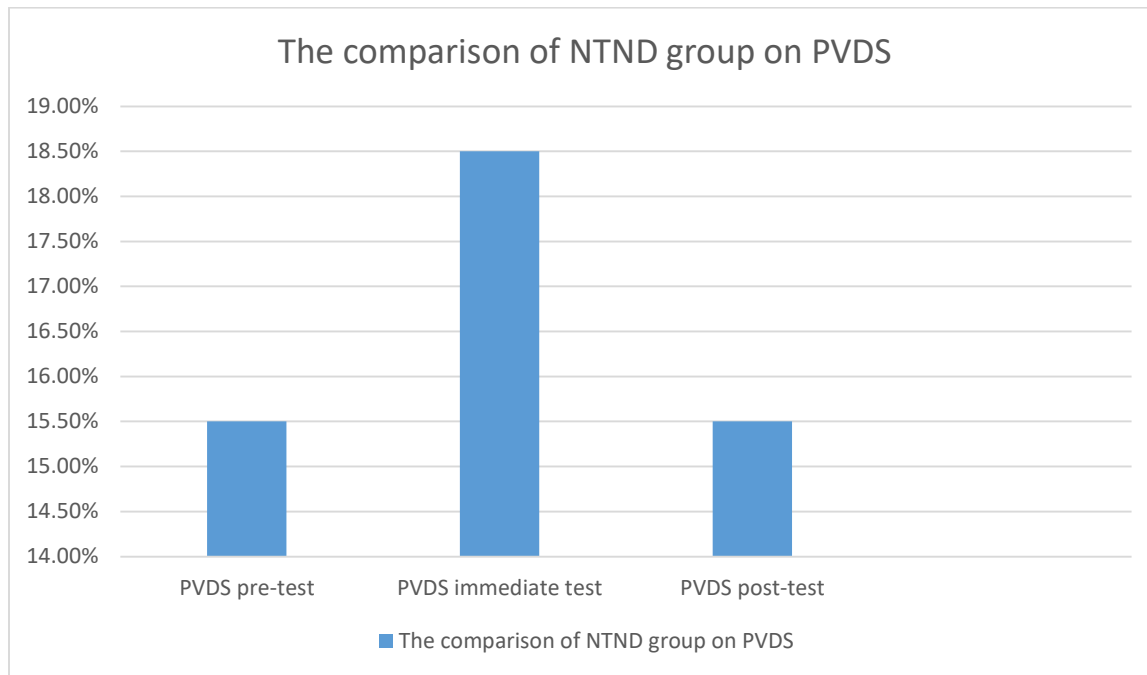


*Figure 7. The comparison of ND group on PVDS*

The comparison of the ND group's two-week pre-test, two-week post-test and immediate post-test PVDS scores was significant differences. There was a significant increase from the pre-test to the immediate post-test and a decrease from the immediate post-test to the two-week post-test. There was a significant increase from the two-week pre-test to the two-week post-test.



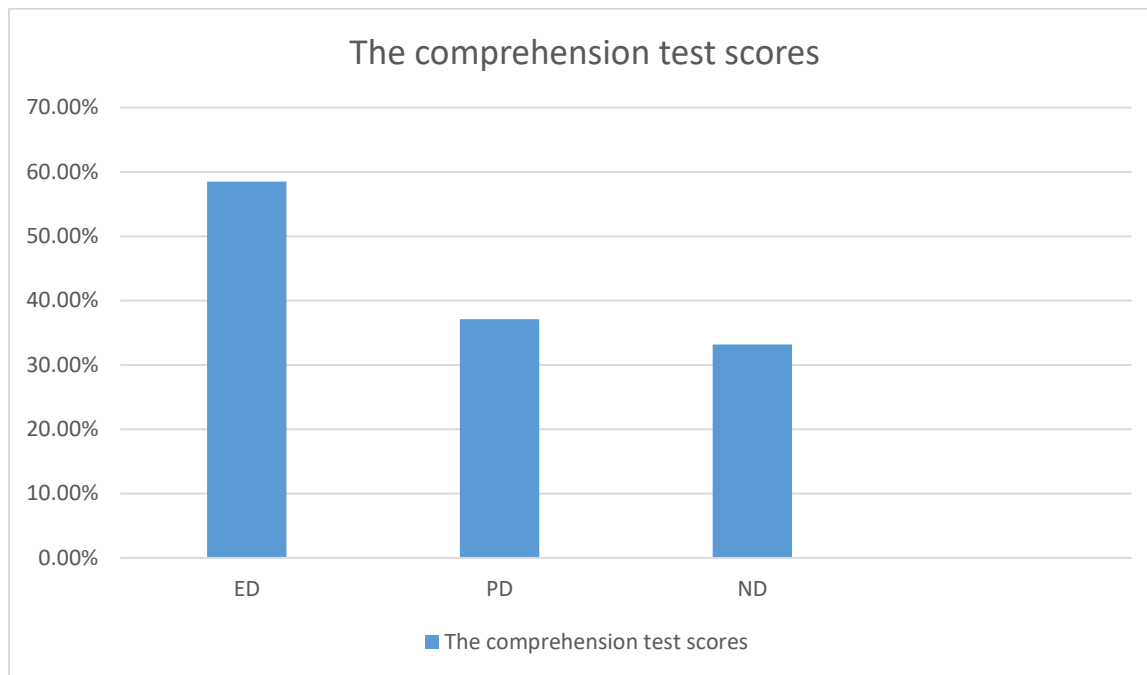
#### 4.2.4 The comparison of NDNT group on Productive Vocabulary Definition Checklist



*Figure 8. The comparison of NTND group on PVDS*

The comparison of the NTND group's two-week pre-test, two-week post-test and immediate post-test PVDS scores were significant differences. There was no significant difference from two-week pre-test to two-week post-test but showed a significant increase from two-week pre-test to the immediate post-test.

### 4.3 Statistical Significant of Comprehension Scores



*Figure 9. The comprehension test scores*

The second research question is if there are substantial variations between text only exposure, text and PD exposure, text and ED exposure and text or dictionary category exposure in reading comprehension scores. Chart 9 shows the comprehension test scores.

The comparison of the comprehension scores of the PD, ED, ND, and NDNT groups was a significant difference among four groups. ED group was higher than the PD and ND group.

### 4.4 Statistical Significance of Reading Time Scores

The third research question if there is any major deviations between exposure to text only, exposure to text and PD, exposure to text and ED and exposure to text or dictionary groups in the time taken to read the text. Table 4.4 shows the reading times of each group.

Table 10. Reading Time

Group	Reading Time (minutes)
ED	35'
PD	55'
ND	20'
NTND	N/A

The comparison of the reading time of the PD, ED, and ND groups was a significant difference in reading times among all three groups. There was no significant difference between ND and ED groups reading time but the ED and PD groups spent more time reading than ND group.

#### 4.5 Questionnaire results

Table 11. Dictionary format

Dictionary format	Agree	%	Disagree	%
1. I use paper dictionary	47	41.9%	65	58.3%
2. I use electronic dictionary	98	87.5%	14	12.5%
3. I use online dictionary	18	16.7%	94	83.9%

According to the result presented in Table 11, the electronic dictionary is the most frequently used. 87.5% of the participants like to use the electronic dictionary, whereas 41.9% of them like to use the paper dictionary. On the other hand the online dictionary is preferred by only 16.7% of the students. This result tends to be consistent with Ryu (2006) about Korean students who like to use the electronic dictionary to the other type of dictionaries. This finding correspond with some studies which found that electronic dictionary groups were superior to printed dictionary groups mainly in term of reduced search time. For example, Koga (1995) stated that students in ED group needed less time for dictionary consultations and read faster than students in PD group. In the same way, Tseng (2009) found that 52% of the students would use the online

dictionary often. This may be because of the fact that these students could not get access to the Internet wherever and whenever they want. In classroom environment, a paper dictionary may be more convenient to them.

From this point of view, the electronic dictionary is rated at the top. The second type of dictionary in the ranking might be the paper dictionary and the online dictionary takes the third place.

*Table 12. Dictionary use for different language activities & information looked up in a dictionary*

Dictionary use for different language activities & information looked up in a dictionary	Agree	%	Disagree	%
<b>4. I use the dictionary during or after listening a song</b>	17	15.17%	95	84.8%
<b>5. I use the dictionary as a result of reading an English text</b>	78	63.9%	34	30.3%
<b>6. I use the dictionary when I want to write in English</b>	69	61.6%	43	38.3%
<b>7. I use the dictionary when I speak or want to speak in English</b>	29	25.8%	83	74.1%
<b>8. I use the dictionary to translate from Albanian into English or from English into Albanian</b>	103	91.9%	9	8%
<b>9. I use a dictionary to look up the meaning of a word or a phrase.</b>	104	92.8%	8	7.14%
<b>10. I use a dictionary for synonyms</b>	12	10%	100	89.2%
<b>11. I use a dictionary to look up antonyms</b>	12	10%	100	89.2%
<b>12. I use dictionary to check spelling</b>	74	66%	38	33.9%
<b>13. I consult a dictionary when I want to know the pronunciation of a vocabulary item</b>	89	79.4%	23	20.5%

14. I use a dictionary to find out whether a word is in common usage.	16	14.2%	96	85.7%
15. I use a dictionary to find out what 'part of speech' a word is	23	20.5%	89	79.4%
16. I use a dictionary to check the grammatical function/structure of a vocabulary item.	18	16%	94	83.9%
17. I use a dictionary for etymology.	2	1.7%	110	90%

The questionnaire results clearly shows that students use their dictionary especially for translation (91.9%) or even on writing assignment (61.6%). It seems that reading text also requires the use of dictionary (63.9%). As for the other skills, only 25.8% of students reported using dictionaries for speaking activities and % for listening.

These results tend to be consistent with Al owimer (2010) and Bejoint (1981) who concluded that student use the dictionary usually for different language activities such as: translation, reading, and writing. They also use dictionary for speaking and listening but with a lower frequency.

In Table 12 is clearly shown that the most frequently looked-up data is meaning, followed by pronunciation, spelling, usage, synonyms, antonyms, grammar. The largest proportion (92.8%) of the students use a dictionary to look up the meaning of words or phrases.

Pronunciation is places as the second most frequently checked (79.4%), which indicate that pronunciation is very important for learner of English. Moreover, the high frequency rating for pronunciation is connected with the frequent use of dictionary for pronunciation purpose since dictionary is more practical and reliable source of correct pronunciation.

In the third rang is spelling (66%). This means that spelling information tended to be consulted more frequently by students. Such a finding is consistent with Battenburg (1991) who argued that when students know spelling, it is easier for them to commit the word to memory.

On the other side, checking the grammatical function of a vocabulary item does not give the impression of being very frequent (16%). This result is very similar with Ryu (2006), where a

low number of his students claimed that they use a dictionary for grammatical information provided.

As for antonyms and synonyms, a very small numbers of students (10%) use dictionary to look up for antonyms and synonyms. Only 20.5% of the students use a dictionary to check what part of speech is a word. This result could be argued that some second language learners consider it as unnecessary because they have already learnt ‘part of speech’ a word is in other sources like grammar books. Furthermore, in Kosovo, teachers focus mainly on grammar and students in high school and those at the intermediate level must recognize and memorize irregular verbs from their text book. This may be one reason why students do not feel the need to use the dictionary to check the tense form.

At least, 90% of the students stated that they never used dictionary for etymology information.

*Table 13. Difficulties while using the dictionary*

Difficulties while using the dictionary	Agree	%	Disagree	%
<b>18. I cannot use the dictionary whenever I want.</b>	78	69.6%	34	30.35%
<b>19. The information I found in the dictionary is insufficient.</b>	28	25%	84	75%
<b>20. It takes too much time to consult the dictionary.</b>	68	60.71%	44	39.2%
<b>21. Failure to understand the pronunciation information</b>	89	79.4%	23	20.5%
<b>22. Unclear examples</b>	13	11.60%	99	88.3%

The results shown in Table 13 indicate that “failure to understand information about pronunciation”, this result is consistent with Bejonit (1981), who found the same with his French students because sometimes machine pronunciation presents some problems that can be unclear or even incorrect.

Another problem that student reported was the limitation of using the dictionary, 69.6% of the respondents chose ‘I cannot use the dictionary whenever I want’. In addition, sixty-eight students

reported that it takes too much time to consult with dictionary. Moreover, only 25% of students declared that had difficulty when they could not find exactly the information they want.

Unclear examples is ranked as being one of the least important difficulties that students face (11.6%). This means that in practice students do not face this as a problem. This result deny Winkler (2003), who declared that most of his students reported that unclear definition is one of the biggest problem they have when they use their dictionaries.

For this reason, is important that students should be encouraged to read and learn how to effectively use the dictionary. It is very important to note that selecting a dictionary and using it without guidance may have a negative effect on language learning (Baxter,1980)

## CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

### 5.1 Effects of the dictionary use on comprehension

On the comprehension test the ED group's scores (55.1%) were low but higher than the ND group (33.2%) implying that electronic dictionaries were lightly helpful in adding comprehension than students who had read the text with printed dictionaries (40.5%) or without dictionaries (30.5%). It appears that printed dictionary group did not improve performance on the comprehension part and both the printed dictionary and no dictionary group on general may not have understood the text. The numbers of students in each group who achieved solid level of comprehension suggests that not only printed dictionary but also electronic dictionary can be helpful in comprehension.

### 5.2 Effects of dictionary use on vocabulary learning

Another issue is if the subjects learned targeted vocabulary are as a product of reading the text. There was no significant differences between ND and NTND group on both immediate post-test and two-week post-test. This indicate that reading the text without dictionaries did not result better recognition of the targeted vocabulary. This finding does not deny Herman (1985), Anderson (1987) or Nagy (1997) that proved that students can learn vocabulary from context but verify that for vocabulary learning to take place from reading that the text used are of very important. The text was too difficult and contained too many unknown words for participants to make enough sense of the text for learning from context.

However, both PD (36.8%) and ED (45%) groups scored higher than both ND (26.9%) and NDNT (21.4%) groups on the RVC immediate post-test. This result suggests that dictionaries use while reading the text gave more improvement on recognition and partial receptive knowledge of the targeted vocabulary than reading the text without a dictionary. Anyhow, these findings proved highly perishable. Both PD and ED groups faced significant declines from the immediate post-test (36.8%, 45%) to the two-week post-test (27.9%, 36.8%).

The ED group (66%) scored higher than the ND (46.4%) and NDNT (18.5%), PD (51.7%) groups on the PVDS immediate post-test. This result shows that electronic dictionary use



contributed more to a restricted productive knowledge of the targeted vocabulary than reading the text with no dictionary. As was the issue with the RVC, the electronic dictionary group's PVDS result declined significantly from the immediate post-test (66%), to the two-week post-test (36.8%). In contrast, the PD group's PVDS result at the immediate post-test and at the two-week post-test (51.7%, 42.8%) were not any differences from the ND as well as from NDNT groups. Therefore reading the text with a printed dictionary does not show up to have contributed more to productive knowledge of the target vocabulary from reading a text without dictionary.

The next case is which type of dictionary helped vocabulary learning the most. On the RVC, the ED scores (45%, 36.8%), with the PD group's scores (36.8%, 27.9%) were not reflecting differences at the immediate post-test and two-week post-test, it seems to suggest that there was not any differences between using one and the other. However, a little higher ED score showed differences between the scores of the ND group (24.5%) and ED group (36.8%) was not evident between the PD group (27.9%) and the ND (24.5%) and NDNT (17.9%) groups at the two-week post-test.

This was the score of the small number of subjects in the NTND group impacting the calculation. As long as the NTND group has a large number of subjects with equal average score, the result is significant. Therefore even at the two-week post-test, it seems that electronic dictionary use contributed more to productive knowledge of the target vocabulary than printed dictionary use. It is very important to mention that of all the groups, only the ED group had increase from its two-week pre-test to the two-week post-test PVDS scores.

The truth that electronic dictionary use tends to have resulted in more receptive knowledge at the two-week post-test and more productive vocabulary knowledge at the immediate and two-week post-test than printed dictionary use is a novel finding. For educators not familiar with electronic dictionaries this study propose that electronic dictionaries should not be viewed with suspicion to printed dictionaries. Actually, for retention of new words electronic dictionaries may be superior to printed dictionaries. The modern electronic dictionaries have large memories that usually contain images of the entries found in printed dictionaries. One chance is that students who regularly use dictionary has made them less proficient with printed dictionaries.

### 5.3 Effects of dictionary use on reading time and other findings

Regarding time consuming there was no difference between ED and PD groups in reading time. However, there were very significant difference between the ED group that took fifteen minutes more to read than the ND group and the PD group that took thirty-five minutes more than the ND group. This finding is similar with Knight (1994) that dictionary use resulted in increased reading time. Printed dictionary users spend more time to read the text than electronic dictionary use and this is consistent with Koyama (2004). The reason why the dictionary groups required extra time to read was because of looking up unknown words.

## CHAPTER VI: CONCLUSIONS, RECOMANDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

This study attempts to identify the dictionary use patterns and how electronic dictionaries, printed dictionaries and no dictionaries effect on vocabulary knowledge gained from reading a text in high school “17 Shkurti”, in Obiliq. It has been found that the majority of students declared using electronic dictionaries more frequently than any other type of dictionary. Analysis of data gathered found that in terms of medium of dictionary, the electronic dictionary was appeared to be used more often than any kind of dictionary. Data also shows that looking up the meaning of words was main purpose of dictionary use. As one of the essential functions of dictionaries is to give word meaning, it is understandable that second language learners refer to dictionaries most frequently for this purpose.

The results obtained from the research prove the first hypothesis that equally electronic and printed dictionary users had significantly higher scores than students who read without using dictionary on the receptive vocabulary measure at the immediate post-test. The results of this study are similar with Knight’s (1994) findings that dictionary usage during reading results in more vocabulary gains and improved comprehension than reading without a dictionary. In addition, students who used electronic dictionary were able to gain significantly higher scores than student without dictionaries on the receptive measure at the two-week post-test and on the productive vocabulary measure at immediate as well as at two-week post-test. Both printed and electronic dictionaries resulted higher on the comprehension, exactly 57% higher than student who did not use dictionaries while reading the text.

Furthermore, the results also prove the hypothesis that reading condition refers to reading with the assistance of the PD, ED, or ND. Students who used dictionaries while reading have the highest scores on all post-reading calculations. Electronic dictionary users gained significantly higher than printed dictionary users on the immediate post-test productive result. On the two-week post-test for both productive and receptive measures, between the ED and PD groups there were not significant differences but they gained higher scores when compared with the students in ND and NDNT groups while the scores of PD groups were not significantly different than the scores of ND and NDNT. Only the scores of ED group were significantly higher than the group

that did not use dictionary while reading the text. Therefore, it looks that electronic dictionary usage supports vocabulary learning and comprehension more than printed dictionaries. Perhaps, this is an impact of electronic dictionary users looking up considerably more words than printed dictionary.

However, due to the difficulty of the text and to a considerable number of unknown words, the gains on the vocabulary and the comprehension were small and for this reason dictionary users spend more time on the reading task.

### 6.1 Recommendations for teaching dictionary use to the students

As Nation (2008) stated dictionary is a crucial resource for language learners. If students get systematic practice in its use, they can get maximal benefits from it. As a result, teachers should:

- 1) Give their students enough information about dictionaries and the differences between them. They should recognize their learners' needs with the purpose to guide them to the exact dictionary which will fulfill their needs (Scholfield, 1997)
- 2) Clear up their students the advantages and disadvantages of different dictionaries. This should be taken into a consideration when deciding the most suitable type of dictionary for students.
- 3) Present their students to different type of dictionaries. However, the chose for dictionary should be one that students like and especially enjoys using it, a dictionary that gives them the feeling that they find most adequate to use. It must mentioned that current there is not any dictionary that will 100% meet the needs of any one student. Therefore, it is not sufficient just to recommend dictionaries to students but students need help to gain the benefits of good dictionaries and need to be taught on how to use them (Hartmann, 1991).
- 4) To set the dictionary use strategies into practice, the teacher should give easy access to good dictionary to the students. That is, the teacher should propose how to select good dictionary which should contain the good following advantages noted by Nation (2008).
  - Plenty of words
  - Clear understandable definitions
  - Many example sentences

- Information about grammar and collocations of the word
- The pronunciation of the word
- The spelling of inflected and derived forms
- Information about constraints on the use of the word
- Frequency information
- Information about related words and word parts

5) Notify students about the importance of collocations, and pronunciation.

6) Clarify the importance of word knowledge to the students. The Students need to identify that understanding a word not only involves knowing its L1 equivalents but other information related to the word. Teachers can support students in this pursuit by instructing students in the various aspects of word knowledge given by the dictionary (Fan, 2000).

## 6.2 Limitation of the study

It is important to mention two major limitations of this study. The first limitation of this study is that some students did not have adequate dictionaries and some of them did not have dictionaries at all; this difficulty had to be faced through collaborative work with peers. Therefore, optimized access to resources over checking dictionary for each student could have improved results.

The second limitation of this study is the fact that some of the students did not know how to use a dictionary. Sadly, in most classrooms, very little time is given for dictionary use. It can be said that the benefits of dictionaries to language learners should not be ignore in language class, therefore, dictionary training should be an integral part of any syllabus.

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## Article and Reading Instructions to Students

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Student Number: \_\_\_\_\_

*Please read and make your best attempt to understand the meaning of the article. After you finish reading, you will be tested on your reading comprehension. If you are using a dictionary, you may use your dictionary while reading but not during the tests. Please underline or circle any words in the text that you look up in a dictionary. When you finish reading, raise your hand. The teacher will collect your article and give you the first test.*

Gemma was a giraffe who felt awkward about being a giraffe. She looked at other animals and thought how she would like to be more like them. When she saw the zebras running at a gallop she wanted to run in a smooth, fluid motion like they did rather than in her own ungainly gait. When she saw the elephant, she wished she had a trunk with which she could vacuum up water and then spray it playfully over her own back or over her friends. When she saw the gazelle, she wished that she were as sleek and elegant as one of them.

She looked at her own reflection in a pond and thought what long, spindly legs she had. Her neck looked like a piece of chewing gum that had been held between two fingers and drawn out until it was as long as it could get without snapping. Of course, she didn't know what a piece of chewing gum was, but she did think that there wasn't another animal around with a neck as long or as ugly as hers. And then she had those two funny little horns at the top of her head. They weren't as big or strong as an antelope's horns. What good would they be if she had to defend herself? Then, too, her skin looked as though she were covered in rust-colored vinyl tiles that were distorted in shape as if her image had been reflected by those weird mirrors in a funhouse.

"Hey, you're a giraffe," her mother tried to reassure her. "This is the way that giraffes look. Just be yourself."

One day she came to a nice sandy patch and felt like rolling in the sand. Remembering her mother's words about being herself, she decided that was exactly what she would do. She lay down and began to flop from side to side, her ungainly legs kicking in the air. To an outsider she may have looked like a marionette that had been accidentally dropped by the puppeteer, the strings tangled, and the master attempting to regain control of his wayward puppet. Of course,

Gemma wouldn't have known what a string-controlled marionette was, but she did hear a laugh and turned around to see a pack of hyenas that had crept out of the woods and were sitting in the grass laughing at her antics.

She struggled to her feet, walking away with her nose dragging the ground and thinking to herself, "So much for being yourself." Then, as if by magic, right in front of her appeared her fairy godmother. I'm not sure what a giraffe's fairy godmother looks like, but since this is our story I guess you can imagine her how you want.

"Your mother was right," said the fairy godmother, as if reading Gemma's thoughts. "It is important to be yourself, but it is also important how you be yourself. It isn't so much a matter of what you are not but who you are that makes the difference. It doesn't really matter if you can't gallop like a zebra, look like a gazelle, or play water games like an elephant. What is important is what you are good at. What is important is what you can do." And with those words the fairy godmother disappeared.

Gemma kept walking, her nose just a little higher off the ground, wondering what that was all about, when suddenly she saw a lioness running toward her. At first Gemma was frightened, but the lioness called out, "Don't panic! Please help me. My little cub has climbed up the tree and I can't get it down." Gemma stood on the tiptoes of her long spindly legs and stretched her elongated neck high up into the tree. In her mouth she gently picked up the little lion cub by the scruff of the neck, much like a mother cat might carry its kitten, and lowered it carefully to the ground.

"Thank you, thank you, thank you," cried the lioness, so overjoyed at having her cub safely back in her care. Gemma hadn't traveled much farther before she saw a distressed monkey jumping up and down on the edge of a cliff, crying out for help. "Gemma," called the monkey, "my baby has fallen over the cliff. She's down over the ledge, hanging on to a tree root, and I can't reach her. If someone doesn't get her soon, she may fall to her death."

Gemma knelt down on the edge of the cliff and stretched her long neck over the edge. "Grab hold of my horns," she said to the baby monkey. The young monkey reached out one hand at a time to grasp the fist-sized horns on which Gemma lifted her back over the ledge to safety.

“Thank you, thank you, thank you,” cried the mother monkey, overjoyed at having her baby safely back in her care. Gemma was walking home, carrying her head a bit higher now, when her fairy godmother appeared in front of her again. “I guess there is no need for me to tell you,” said the fairy godmother, “what you have just learned by doing the things that only you could have done. Cheetahs have become the fastest animals on earth not by wanting to be like a turtle but by developing their skill at running fast. By doing what you are good at, by building on your strengths, then truly you can be yourself.

“But I think that maybe you have learned more,” continued the fairy godmother. “By using your unique skills to help those who may not have the same abilities, you have made some special friends. Indeed, it is even possible—as you did with the lioness—to make a friend of an enemy.”

And with that Gemma’s fairy godmother disappeared again. Gemma walked home, with her neck stretched so high that those little horns at the top of her head (which were just big enough for a monkey to grab hold of) may have even been scratching the bottom of the clouds. Gemma felt proud to be herself.

2. APPENDIX II

**Receptive Vocabulary Checklist Test Form (RVC)**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Student Number: \_\_\_\_\_

For each item number:

**Circle** a word that you **KNOW**

**Underline** a word that you **DO NOT KNOW**

- |                |               |
|----------------|---------------|
| 1. Appear      | 21. Lowered   |
| 2. Attempt     | 22. Matter    |
| 3. Awkward     | 23. Mirrors   |
| 4. Cliff       | 24. Puppeteer |
| 5. Cover       | 25. Reassure  |
| 6. Cub         | 26. Regain    |
| 7. Developing  | 27. Root      |
| 8. Edge        | 28. Sleek     |
| 9. Elongated   | 29. Smooth    |
| 10. Frightened | 30. Snapping  |
| 11. Funhouse   | 31. Spindly   |
| 12. Gait       | 32. Sting     |
| 13. Gazelle    | 33. Struggled |
| 14. Godmother  | 34. Tangled   |
| 15. Grass      | 35. Tiles     |
| 16. Guess      | 36. Tiptoes   |
| 17. Horns      | 37. Trunk     |
| 18. Imagine    | 38. Ungainly  |
| 19. Kicking    | 39. Unique    |
| 20. Ledge      | 40. Wayward   |

When you finish this part of the test, please raise your hand so that you can receive the next part of the test.



**Productive Vocabulary Definition Selection Test (PVDS)**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Student Number: \_\_\_\_\_

*Choose and write the number of the English word next to the Albanian word that has the same meaning. The English words have been alphabetized to make them easier to find. Some of the English words may have the same meaning so you may choose the same answer more than once but may only have one answer for each test item. When you finish this part of the test, please raise your hand so that you can receive the next part of the test.*

- |                        |                     |                    |
|------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Ndrikull _____      | 2. Siguroj _____    | 3. Shkëmb _____    |
| 4. Këlysh _____        | 5. I pabindur _____ | 6. Rrënja _____    |
| 7. Përpiqem _____      | 8. Hamendësoj _____ | 9. I hijshëm _____ |
| 10. I vështirë _____   | 11. Luftë _____     | 12. Shfaqet _____  |
| 13. Brirët _____       | 14. Trungu _____    | 15. Pllaka _____   |
| 16. I qetë _____       | 17. Mbroj _____     | 18. Unike _____    |
| 19. E ngaterruar _____ | 20. Pllaka _____    |                    |

- |                |               |               |
|----------------|---------------|---------------|
| 1. Appear      | 16. Guess     | 31. Spindly   |
| 2. Attempt     | 17. Horns     | 32. Sting`    |
| 3. Awkward     | 18. Imagine   | 33. Struggled |
| 4. Cliff       | 19. Kicking   | 34. Tangled   |
| 5. Cover       | 20. Ledge     | 35. Tiles     |
| 6. Cub         | 21. Lowered   | 36. Tiptoes   |
| 7. Developing  | 22. Matter    | 37. Trunk     |
| 8. Edge        | 23. Mirrors   | 38. Ungainly  |
| 9. Elongated   | 24. Puppeteer | 39. Unique    |
| 10. Frightened | 25. Reassure  | 40. Wayward   |
| 11. Funhouse   | 26. Regain    |               |
| 12. Gait       | 27. Root      |               |
| 13. Gazelle    | 28. Sleek     |               |
| 14. Godmother  | 29. Smooth    |               |
| 15. Grass      | 30. Snapping  |               |

### Comprehension Test

There are two forms of the comprehension test. One contains instructions for groups with access to the text. The other contains instructions for the group not receiving the text. Questions are the same on both forms.

#### A. Instructions for groups reading the text.

Which statements are true or false about the article? For each item mark TRUE or FALSE.

When you finish this part of the test, please raise your hand.

#### B. Instructions for No Text No Dictionary Group

The purpose of this test is to check your test taking skills and ability to make good guesses from background information. There are 10 statements about an article that you have not read. Which statements about the article do you think are true or false? For each item mark TRUE or FALSE.

When you finish this part of the test, please raise your hand.

1. At the beginning she doesn't like anything about herself. \_\_\_\_\_
2. When the Gemma saw the zebras running at a gallop she wanted to run in a smooth, fluid motion like they did. \_\_\_\_\_
3. When she looked at the own reflection in a pond she thought how pretty she is. \_\_\_\_\_
4. Gemma's mother advised her to be herself. \_\_\_\_\_
5. Gemma helped the lion and the monkey. \_\_\_\_\_
6. Gemma met godmother just one time. \_\_\_\_\_
7. In the end Gemma walked home with her nose dragging the ground. \_\_\_\_\_
8. Godmother said to Gemma that the important thing is to do what is good and what she can do.  
\_\_\_\_\_
9. She thought there wasn't another animal around with a neck as long as hers. \_\_\_\_\_
10. Gemma felt proud to be herself. \_\_\_\_\_

Answer key for Comprehension Test:

1. T 2.T 3.F 4.T 5.T 6.F 7.F 8.T 9.T 10.T

5. APPENDIX V

**Questionnaire**

Do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Agree	Disagree
1. I use paper dictionary		
2. I use electronic dictionary		
3. I use online dictionary		
4. I use the dictionary during or after listening a song		
5. I use the dictionary as a result of reading an English text		
6. I use the dictionary when I want to write in English		
7. I use the dictionary when I speak or want to speak in English		
8. I use the dictionary to translate from Albanian into English or from English into Albanian		
9. I use a dictionary to look up the meaning of a word or a phrase.		
10. I use a dictionary for synonyms		
11. I use a dictionary to look up antonyms		
12. I use dictionary to check spelling		
13. I consult a dictionary when I want to know the pronunciation of a vocabulary item		
14. I use a dictionary to find out whether a word is in common usage.		
15. I use a dictionary to find out what 'part of speech' a word is		
16. I use a dictionary to check the grammatical function/structure of a vocabulary item.		
17. I use a dictionary for etymology.		
18. I cannot use the dictionary whenever I want.		

19. The information I found in the dictionary is insufficient.		
20. It takes too much time to consult the dictionary.		
21. Failure to understand the pronunciation information		
22. Dictionaries give unclear examples		