GUESSING VOCABULARY FROM CONTEXT

IN READING TEXTS

A Master's Thesis

by

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Ankara

July 2006

To my first and best teachers, my parents

my angel, Gültekin

my fairy, Füsun …

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IN READING TEXTS


The Graduate School of Education
of
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by


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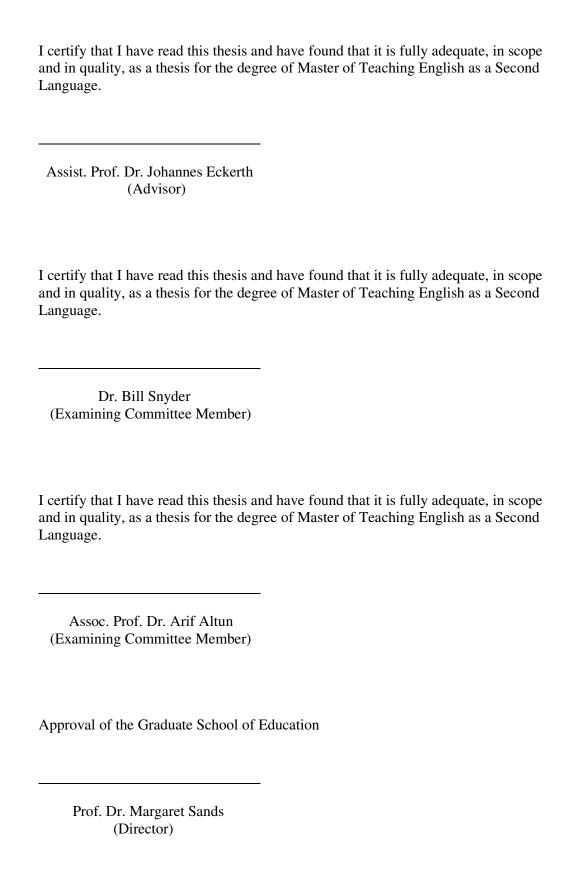                        Hanyang University, Hanyang-Oregon TESOL

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ABSTRACT


GUESSING VOCABULARY FROM CONTEXT
IN READING TEXTS


Büyükdurmuş Selçuk, İlksen

MA, Department of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Advisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Johannes Eckerth


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This study investigated contextual guessing strategies employed by pre-intermediate students at Hacettepe University, Department of Basic English, and the different strategies used by successful and unsuccessful guessers when dealing with unknown vocabulary. Data were collected through an in-class reading task, think-aloud protocols (TAPs) and retrospective interviews (RIs).

The in-class reading task was administered to select three successful and three unsuccessful guessers. TAPs and RIs were conducted with the selected guessers to gather data on their strategy use. Transcribed TAPs and RIs were coded, and a contextual guessing strategies taxonomy was constructed. Frequencies and percentages for each strategy in the taxonomy and percentages for the participants' guessing success in the in-class and TAP reading tasks were calculated.

Findings of the study indicated that various strategies were employed to guess word meanings, and although both successful and unsuccessful guessers employed

the same strategies, successful guessers used them less frequently. However, successful guessers' arriving at more correct guesses provided evidence that they were more effective users of lexical inferencing strategies. Another finding illustrated that context and knowledge of the native language were the major sources for word guessing.

Key words: Guessing vocabulary from context, lexical inferencing strategies, successful and unsuccessful guessers, think-aloud protocols, retrospective interviews.

ÖZET


OKUMA PARÇALARINDA KELİMELERİ
BAĞLAMDAN TAHMİN ETME


Büyükdurmuş Selçuk, İlksen

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi Bölümü

Tez Danışmanı: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Johannes Eckerth



Temmuz 2006



Bu çalışmada, Hacettepe Üniversitesi, İngilizce Hazırlık Birimindeki orta düzey öğrencilerin kullandıkları bağlamdan tahmin stratejileri ve başarılı ve başarısız tahmincilerin bilinmeyen kelimelerle başa çıkmak için kullandıkları farklı stratejiler araştırılmıştır.Veri toplamak için, bir sınıf içi okuma çalışması, sesli-düşünme protokolleri ve geçmişe dayalı mülakatlar kullanılmıştır.

Sınıf içi okuma çalışması, üç başarılı ve üç başarısız tahminci seçmek için uygulandı. Sesli-düşünme protokolleri ve geçmişe dayalı mülakatlar, seçilen tahmincilerle, onların strateji kullanımları hakkında veri toplamak amacıyla yürütüldü. Yazıya dökülen sesli-düşünme protokolleri ve geçmişe dayalı mülakatlar kodlandı ve bağlamdan tahmin stratejileri sınıflandırma tablosu yapıldı. Bu sınıflandırma tablosundaki her bir strateji için frekanslar ve yüzdeler ile katılımcıların sınıf içi ve sesli-düşünme protokolü okuma çalışmalarındaki tahmin başarı yüzdeleri hesaplandı.

Bu çalışmanın bulguları; bilinmeyen kelimelerin anlamlarını tahmin etmek için çeşitli stratejiler kullanıldığını, ve başarılı ve başarısız tahmincilerin aynı stratejileri kullanmalarına rağmen, başarılı tahmincilerin stratejileri daha seyrek uyguladıklarını göstermiştir. Bununla birlikte, başarılı tahmincilerin daha çok doğru tahmin yapmaları, onların daha etkin sözcük tahmin stratejileri kullanıcıları olduğunu ispatlamaktadır. Bir başka bulgu, bağlamın ve anadil bilgisinin kelime tahmin etmede ana kaynaklar olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Kelimeleri bağlamdan tahmin etme, sözcük tahmin etme stratejileri, başarılı ve başarısız tahminciler, sesli-düşünme protokolleri, geçmişe dayalı mülakatlar.

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Reading in a foreign language has been one of the main concerns of researchers in recent years. It is one important issue to be considered in English Language Teaching because students who are in a second language academic environment need to develop the reading skill to obtain academic information. Research has shown that for reading comprehension, readers make use of their vocabulary knowledge, and the largest obstacle for second language readers to overcome is the lack of vocabulary knowledge (Huckin & Bloch, 1993). One way to help learners with the unfamiliar words they encounter in a reading text is to train them to use contextual clues for inferring the meaning of these words instead of depending heavily on dictionaries. Thus, guessing from context is considered a sub-skill of reading (Nation, 2001).

Since reading and vocabulary development have important roles in second language learning, many studies have been conducted on different aspects of reading and vocabulary. This study aims to contribute to the literature by analyzing the role of linguistic context in word guessing in reading texts. The purpose of this study is to explore the use of cognitive reading strategies in guessing from context as reported by the students at Hacettepe University, in the Department of Basic English. The study also attempts to identify the different strategies used by successful and unsuccessful guessers.

Background of the Study

Since reading is considered a cognitive activity taking place in the mind and as "a language skill, an aspect of language performance" (Urquart & Weir, 1998, p. 34), both cognitive psychologists and language researchers have attempted to understand the nature of it. It is not surprising that being such a complex process, it has been treated differently throughout the foreign language history. As Grabe (1991) suggests there have been many important changes in both reading theory and practice, which will be considered in the following paragraphs.

From 1840s to 1940s, when grammar translation method was widely practiced, the goal of learning a foreign language was to read its literature; consequently, reading was the major focus. Reading texts were also used for vocabulary teaching. Later, in the 1960s, audiolingualism was a popular method in foreign language teaching. The goal of foreign language study in this method was oral production (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Thus, reading was used as a means to "examine grammar and vocabulary, or to practice pronunciation" (Silberstein, 1987 as cited in Grabe, 1991, p. 376).

In recent years, reading has gained great importance in teaching English as a foreign or as a second language. Reading in academic settings is now seen as "the central means for learning new information and gaining access to alternative explanations and interpretations" (Grabe & Stoller, 2001, p. 187). For many students the main purpose to learn English is to be able to read fluently and with good comprehension (Carrell, 1988). Carrell (1988) claims that "in second language teaching/learning situations for academic purposes, especially in higher education in

English medium universities or other programs that make extensive use of academic materials written in English, reading is paramount" (p. 1).

Reading strategies, which are used by readers to comprehend and remember the written material and help all learners become independent and good readers (Allen, 2003), have been the focus of research in second or foreign language teaching in recent years. Researchers are interested in these strategies because of what "they reveal about the way readers manage their interaction with written text and how these strategies are related to text comprehension" (Carrell, 1989, p. 121).

Since 1970s, second language theorists have recommended the teaching of a variety of strategies to help students read better (Barnett, 1988) because it is believed that "skilled and proficient readers of all ages use many strategies" (Allen, 2003, p. 320). It has also been observed that strategic readers are able to combine a lot of strategies rather than using them in isolation (Grabe & Stoller, 2001).

To understand reading strategies better, several researchers and theorists have defined and classified them. Their classifications are different from each other; however, one commonly accepted categorization is as "metacognitive"; "cognitive"; and "social/affective", "depending on the level or type of processing involved" (O'Malley et al. 1985 as cited in O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 44). Metacognitive strategies enable learners to control their own learning. They are used for arranging, planning, monitoring and evaluating the learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Allen, 2003). Cognitive strategies which are widely applied by foreign language learners, operate directly on the target language and "involve using many different methods, such as summarizing, and deductive reasoning, to process, understand, and produce the new language "(Cohen, 1998; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990 as

cited in Allen, 2003. p. 322). Social/affective strategies "represent a broad grouping that involves either interaction with another person or ideational control over affect" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 45).

This study will focus on a single cognitive reading strategy: guessing the meanings of unknown words through context. Nassaji (2004) reports that numerous researchers consider inferencing an important cognitive process in reading comprehension (Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Graesser & Bower, 1990; Kintsch, 1988, 1998; Monzo & Calvo, 2002, Nassaji, 2002, 2003a, 2003b, Whitney, 1987 as cited in Nassaji, 2004). Similarly, Van Parreren and Schouten-Van Parreren (1981) suggest that one of the most important sub-skills in reading in a foreign language is contextual guessing (as cited in Schulz, 1983). If learners are taught to employ strategies such as guessing and tolerance of uncertainty, they will not "insist on word-for-word decoding" (p. 128) and this will result in more efficient and better reading comprehension. Word-by-word decoding and translation are not realistic strategies for foreign language learners who need reading for professional use or who want to read for enjoyment. Therefore, they should develop realistic strategies to cope with unknown words in reading passages (Schulz, 1983). In the opinion of Read (2000), deriving word meaning from context is a desirable strategy since "it involves deeper processing that is likely to contribute to better comprehension of the text as a whole and may result in some learning of the lexical item that would not otherwise occur" (p. 53).

Considering the great importance given to lexical inferencing in second language research (Read, 2000), this study aims to analyze how context functions in

guessing the meanings of words encountered in reading texts and identify the differences between the strategy use of successful and unsuccessful guessers.

Statement of the Problem

The students at Hacettepe University, School of Foreign Languages, Department of Basic English receive skill-based instruction, which in turn results in skill-based assessment. The students are placed at beginner to intermediate levels, and for all levels *Headway* and *Interactions: Integrated skills* course books are used. In addition, since reading is considered to be an important skill, the Curriculum Development Unit has prepared a supplementary reading booklet which proposes to teach some reading and vocabulary building strategies. However, students' success in reading comprehension does not match what is expected as evidenced by their grades in the reading comprehension parts of their achievement tests. Moreover, students in their informal talks with their teachers complain that they have difficulty in understanding reading texts in class and in examinations due to a lot of unknown words. It is observed by the researcher that teachers also report that their students have problems with reading texts in terms of dealing with vocabulary and comprehension. From the observations of student performances, teacher reports and student informal talks, it is deduced that the students at Hacettepe University Department of Basic English lack certain strategies to cope with unfamiliar vocabulary encountered in reading texts. Therefore, this study intends to determine the strategies used by students in contextual guessing and differentiate between the strategy use of successful and unsuccessful guessers.

Significance of the Study

Guessing from context is a means to incidental learning, that is, "learning vocabulary through reading natural texts" (Huckin & Coady, 1999; Nagy, 1997 as cited in Nassaji, 2004, p. 108), which is seen a most important source of vocabulary learning. Nevertheless, many second language learners do not experience the circumstances that are required for this kind of learning to take place. Therefore, it seems that spending time working on inferencing strategies is beneficial for both teachers and learners (Nation, 2001). As contextual guessing is considered a critical issue in promoting reading comprehension and vocabulary building, this study attempts to reveal how often the pre-intermediate level students at Hacettepe University Department of Basic English rely on context clues for guessing the unfamiliar vocabulary in reading texts and how the successful and unsuccessful guessers differ in their strategy use. The results of this study may contribute to the new curriculum design at Hacettepe University Department of Basic English which is supposed to be implemented in the 2006-2007 academic year. It is hoped that the findings of the study will be taken into consideration by the members of the Curriculum Development Unit in designing the new reading instruction. By considering the cognitive strategies already used for guessing by the students, the Curriculum Development Unit may be led to introduce other strategies in the new reading and vocabulary curriculum to help students become more proficient readers. Additionally, the possible differences in the use of strategies by the successful and unsuccessful guessers may draw attention to certain strategies to be included in the reading and vocabulary instruction.

At Hacettepe University, the medium of instruction is English in most of the departments. Consequently, students deal with a lot of authentic reading materials related to their subject areas which include many unknown words. Therefore, it is also hoped that the students will profit from the study by recognizing their strategy use in guessing from context which they will make use of in their further studies.

Research Questions

The study will address the following research questions:

1. What strategies do the pre-intermediate level students at Hacettepe University, Department of Basic English report that they use when they encounter unknown vocabulary in context?

2. What is the role of context in helping students to deal with unknown vocabulary?

3. What is the difference between the strategies that the successful and unsuccessful guessers report they use to cope with unknown vocabulary in reading texts?

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on reading comprehension, learning and reading strategies, and the strategy of guessing vocabulary from context in reading texts. The first part discusses the role of reading comprehension in second language learning and the nature of the reading process. In the next part, the theory of learning and reading strategies and research in this field are presented. The final part explores lexical inferencing process and research in this field by presenting both the advantages and disadvantages in relying on context in word guessing.

Definition and the Characteristics of the Reading Process

To get information and increase our knowledge, we depend on our reading ability. Carrell (1989a) and Lynch and Hudson (1991) recognize reading as probably the most important skilll in academic contexts (as cited in Grabe, 1991) because most students in academic settings learn a second language – especially English – to gain information through reading (Carrell, 1988). Similarly, Huckin and Bloch (1993) view reading as the most important skill to be mastered for the students in a second language academic environment. According to Huckin and Bloch (1993), reading is used not only to transmit academic knowledge but also as a secondary source to obtain information which may have been missed during the class discussions or lectures. Due to the role of reading in ESL and EFL instruction, it has been a main focus of research.

Although many people think that they know what reading is, they have difficulty defining it. For Eskey (2002, p. 6), reading is "acquiring information from a written or printed text and relating it to what you already know to construct a meaning for the text as a whole". He characterizes reading as "an invisible process" (Eskey, 2002, p. 8) for it does not generate any product that can be seen, heard, or responded to. According to Clarke (1988, p. 114), this hidden process is probably "the most thoroughly studied and least understood process in education".

Gaining awareness about the characteristics of fluent reading may facilitate our understanding of this invisible process. Many researchers agree that fluent reading is rapid, purposeful, interactive, comprehending, flexible, and gradually developing (Grabe, 1991). Grabe (1991) points out that to make connections and inferences to understand the overall meaning in a text, readers need to read rapidly. He adds that reading is purposeful because readers have a purpose for reading such as getting information or entertainment. Reading is interactive because readers benefit not only from textual information but also from their world knowledge in trying to comprehend a text. In addition, fluent readers do not worry whether they will understand a text as they start reading. They simply expect to understand what they read so reading is comprehending. Finally, reading develops gradually. Readers do not reach sudden or immediate development in reading. Long-term effort and gradual reading result in fluent reading (p. 379).

Reading and Learning Strategies

Everybody who is given the opportunity and guidance can learn to read. Moreover, people learn to read, and to read better, by reading (Eskey, 2002). For reading comprehension, a reader has to coordinate many sub-skills and strategies

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(Coady, 1993). Clarke and Silberstein (1977), who characterized reading as an active comprehension process, suggest that students should be taught strategies to read better and should be provided with various approaches to texts such as using pre-reading activities to enhance conceptual readiness, applying strategies to cope with vocabulary, syntax and organizational structure (as cited in Grabe, 1991, p. 377). Research in second and foreign language instruction has begun to focus on the strategies used by readers (Carrell, 1989) and the findings of studies reveal that strategy use enhances reading comprehension and without strategies most readers will have difficulties in grasping the meaning of the written word (Allen, 2003). To understand the necessity and usefulness of reading strategies better, it is essential to have an idea about the learning strategies in general, which will be discussed briefly in the next section.

<u>Definition of Learning Strategies</u>

In the mid 1970s, it was suggested that good language learners might employ some special techniques or strategies which help second language acquisition. This assumption led many researchers to study these techniques or strategies employed by good language learners in order to understand and describe the nature of them (e.g. Carton, 1971; Stern, 1975; Naiman et al., 1978; Wesche, 1975 as cited in Rubin, 1987). The first step in the research on learning strategies was Rubin's (1975) attempt to find out about what good language learners were doing in language learning situations. After conducting a study and collecting extensive data using a variety of techniques, she proposed a classification scheme which distinguishes between strategies that affect learning directly and those that affect learning indirectly. The first group of strategies that directly contribute to learning include

clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, practice, guessing/inductive inferencing and deductive reasoning. The second group of strategies in Rubin's classification scheme that have  an indirect  influence on learning consist of creating practice opportunities and using production  tricks (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Rubin, 1987).

After Rubin, many other researchers worked on learning strategies and offered several different definitions and classification schemes for learning strategies. Wenden (1987, p. 6), for example, describes learning strategies as "language learning behaviours learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language ". According to her, learning strategies also refer to what learners know about their strategy use and what they know about aspects of their language learning. Oxford (1990, p. 1), defines learning strategies as "steps taken by students to enhance their own learning". Another definition proposed by Oxford, which is more detailed focusing on how learning strategies promote learning, considers learning strategies as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 1) also emphasize the importance of learning strategies by defining them as "special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning, or retention of the information".

<u>Classification of Learning Strategies</u>

As there is no single definition of learning strategies in the literature, there is no consensus on how to classify them. According to Ellis (1994), the findings of earlier research were not sufficient to classify the strategies into general categories

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because the identification of strategies portrayed only the type of learners under study, the setting, and the researchers' specific interests. In later studies, various techniques such as observations, interviews, and verbal reports were used with different types of learners in different settings; therefore, researchers were able to develop broader taxonomies, under which more specific strategies are grouped. O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Wenden (1991) and Oxford (1990) have different taxonomies which, in the opinion of Ellis (1994), are significant contributions to our knowledge of learning strategies.

A common way of categorizing learning strategies is differentiating between metacognitive, social/affective and cognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies are "higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring or evaluating the success of learning activity" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 44). They are used to oversee, regulate or self-direct as Rubin (1987) suggests and they are applicable to almost all types of learning tasks (Chamot, 1987). Among the metacognitive strategies are directed attention, self-evaluation, self-management and self-monitoring (Ellis, 1994; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Social/affective strategies which are exemplified by cooperating and asking for clarification "concern the ways in which learners elect to interact with other learners and native speakers" (Ellis, 1994, p. 538). They may be applied to a broad range of tasks (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Cognitive strategies refer to "the steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials" (Rubin, 1987, p. 23). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) assert that cognitive strategies operate directly on new information and control it to promote learning.

Some examples of strategies classified under the cognitive category are repetition, note-taking, elaboration, deduction and inferencing (Ellis, 1994; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Unlike metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies may not be applied to all types of learning tasks. Rather, they seem to be directly connected to specific learning tasks (Chamot, 1987).

Oxford (1990) has a more detailed and comprehensive taxonomy than earlier classifications. Her classification model distinguishes between direct and indirect strategies, each of which includes three subcategories. Indirect strategies are divided into metacognitive, affective and social. Metacognitive strategies help learners coordinate their own learning process and are essential for learning a language successfully (e.g. arranging, planning, evaluating). Affective strategies are used to control emotions, attitudes and motivation (e.g. lowering your anxiety, writing a diary, encouraging yourself). Social strategies involve learning by interacting with others (e.g. asking questions, cooperating with others, developing cultural understanding). Since language learning involves others, social strategies gain much importance in facilitating this process.

Grouped under direct strategies are: memory, cognitive and compensatory strategies. Memory strategies assist students in storing and recalling new information (e.g. grouping, using imagery). Cognitive strategies, which are said to be the most popular strategies among learners, help students understand and produce new language (e.g. repeating, summarizing, reasoning deductively). Compensation strategies enable learners to use the language by filling in gaps in their knowledge (e.g. guessing, using synonyms). In the next section, the theory of reading strategies is presented.

Definition of Reading Strategies

Pearson and his colleagues (1992) define reading comprehension strategies as "conscious and flexible plans that readers apply and adapt to a variety of texts and tasks" (as cited in Allen, 2003, p. 321). Some examples to the strategies commonly used by strategic readers are: previewing a text, predicting what will come later in a text, summarizing, learning new words through the analysis of word stems and affixes, recognizing text organization, generating appropriate questions about the text, clarifying text meaning, using context to maintain comprehension, and repairing miscomprehension (Grabe & Stoller, 2001). Another definition proposed by Barnett (1988, p. 150) considers reading strategies as "the mental operations involved when readers approach a text effectively and make sense of what they read". Skimming, scanning, reading for meaning, activating general knowledge, making inferences, separating main ideas from supporting details, recognizing cognates and word families, guessing word meanings from context and evaluating those guesses are the examples given by Barnett (1988) to these problem-solving techniques.

Grabe and Stoller (2001) point out that developing strategic readers is a requirement of academic reading instruction and in every reading lesson strategies should be introduced, practiced and the use of them should be discussed. The empirical studies conducted into reading strategies and their relationship to successful and unsuccessful second language reading are many in number (Carrell, Pharis & Liberto, 1989). Carrell and her colleagues highlight the fact that research into strategies suggests that less successful learners can improve their skills by getting training in strategies used by more competent learners. Successful learners have an awareness of their strategy use and why they use strategies (Green &

Oxford, 1995). These learners are able to adjust their strategies to language tasks and to their needs as learners. Less successful learners, on the other hand, cannot choose the appropriate strategies or decide on how to connect them to have a useful "strategy chain" although they are able to identify their own strategies (Block, 1986; Galloway & Labarca, 1991; Stern, 1975; Vann & Abraham, 1990 as cited in Green & Oxford, 1995). Carrell, Pharis and Liberto (1989) compare reading strategies with learning strategies and claim that as less competent learners benefit from getting training in strategies evidenced by effective learners, less successful readers can improve their reading ability through training in strategies employed by more efficient readers. Overall improvement in reading comprehension is dependent on the improvement of skills and strategies and explicit training of strategies has often produced gains in comprehension (Nagy & Herman, 1987).

<div align="center">Classification of Reading Strategies</div>

Various researchers have given different names to different types of strategies. Likewise, reading strategy taxonomies vary according to researchers. Barnett (1988) categorizes strategies into two, as text-level and word-level strategies. Text-level strategies are exemplified by skimming for having a general understanding, scanning for details, predicting the content, using the background knowledge and titles or pictures for comprehension. Such strategies are related to the reading text as a whole or to large parts of the text so they are also named as "general comprehension" by Block (1986), "main meaning line" by Hosenfeld (as cited in Barnett, 1988), and "text-processing" by Fisher and Smith (as cited in Barnett, 1988).

Unlike text-level strategies which are related to the text as a whole, word-level strategies are related to the smaller parts of a text such as words (Bezci, 1998).

Among the word-level strategies are the identification of the grammatical category of words, recognition of words through word families and word formation and guessing word meanings from context. As these strategies are used to cope with individual words, they are also called as "local linguistic" (Block, 1986), "word-solving" (Hosenfeld as cited in Barnett, 1988), and "word-processing" (Fisher & Smith as cited in Barnett, 1988).

In second language reading literature, apart from the word and text-level strategy classification, reading strategies are also classified as cognitive and metacognitive. This common categorization is not related to strategies being word-level or text-level but has a broader perspective in looking at reading strategies (Chamot, 1987). Recent second language research views reading comprehension as a "constructive process" in which cognitive and metacognitive strategies are used to develop the understanding of the text (Dole et al., 1991 as cited in Allen, 2003). In the following section, metacognitive and cognitive strategies will be described in detail.

Metacognitive Reading Strategies

Metacognitive control, which means readers' conscious control of their reasoning processes, has an important role in strategic reading (Carrell et al., 1989). In Allen's (2003, p. 322) opinion, use of metacognitive strategies leads readers to "think about their thinking". Metacognitive strategies are used for planning for reading, monitoring comprehension and production while reading is taking place, and self-evaluation after reading (O'Malley & Chamot, Stewner-Manzares, Russo, & Küpper, 1985). Some examples of metacognitive strategies follow (Anderson, 1999 as cited in Şallı, 2002, p. 18):

- setting goals for yourself to help you improve areas that are important to you

- working with classmates to help you develop your reading skills

- taking opportunities for practicing what you already know to keep your progress steady

- evaluating what you have learnt and how well you are doing to help you focus your reading

- making lists of relevant vocabulary to prepare for new reading

Use of metacognitive strategies contributes much to understanding the meaning of a text**.** Simply decoding words is not sufficient. Reading will be more effective if readers employ metacognitive strategies that lead to monitoring their comprehension of a text (Allen, 2003). There have been studies conducted on the effects of metacognitive strategies on reading in a second language (e.g. Carrell et al., 1989; Auerbach & Paxton, 1997; Shih, 1992; Block, 1986, 1992). Findings of these studies show that training in metacognitive strategies results in more successful reading because readers learn to adjust appropriate reading strategies to different reading texts. In the next section, commonly used cognitive strategies and the importance of them in second language reading can be found.

Cognitive Reading Strategies

Cognitive strategies involve "direct manipulation or transformation of the learning materials" (Brown & Palinscar, 1982 as cited in O'Malley & Chamot et al., 1985, p. 561) throughout a learning or problem-solving process (Block, 1986). They are widely employed by second language readers and have a direct operation on the

target language (Allen, 2003). The most common cognitive strategies in the literature are (Bezci, 1998, p. 19):

- using the titles to predict the text content

- relating the pictures/illustrations to text content

- skimming

- using background knowledge for text comprehension

- consulting a dictionary

- taking notes

- translating

- rereading

- summarizing

- visualization

- understanding organization

- classifying words

- guessing the meanings of unknown words

Cognitive reading strategies are given great importance in second language reading because strategy research has found that the use of such strategies results in better reading performance and helps readers overcome miscomprehension during the reading of a text (Knight et al., 1985 as cited in Bezci, 1998).

In the next section, first, the difficulty of reading in a second language due to a lot of unknown vocabulary encountered in texts, the shortcomings of using dictionaries excessively for understanding word meanings, and the strategy of word guessing from context as a way to deal with unfamiliar words are discussed. Then, a detailed discussion on contextual guessing, which is a cognitive reading strategy, will

be presented by defining inferencing; highlighting the importance of context; identifying types of context, contextual cues and moderating variables that facilitate or impede guessing from context; referring to different classifications of strategies used in contextual guessing, and problems in using the strategy of guessing unknown words from context.

Guessing Word Meanings from Context in Reading Texts

Reading is a complex process, and among the four language skills – writing, speaking, listening, reading – linguistically and intellectually it is the most challenging one (Chern, 1993). Kern (1989) proposes that reading in any language, whether it be a first or a second language, is cognitively demanding in that it involves the coordination of attention, memory, perceptual processes, and comprehension processes. Research suggests that second language reading places even greater demands on these components, which results in less efficient reading (Kern, 1989). In the same line with Kern (1989), Chern (1993) points to the greater complexity of reading in a second or foreign language compared to first language reading because "it requires information processing using language skills still in developmental stages and not firmly established in the learner's mind" (Phillips, 1984 as cited in Chern, 1993, p. 68).

A major problem learners face in reading in L2, as suggested by Kern (1989), is their limited vocabulary knowledge. Soria (2001) claims that encountering some unknown words might not hinder the general comprehension of a text; however, if learners do not know enough words or the most essential ones, then, they will not understand the text. Nassaji (2003) also asserts that reading comprehension of second language readers is negatively affected by not knowing enough words. Since not

knowing a lot of words in reading texts may discourage second language learners from reading, teachers should teach their students how to deal with unknown vocabulary encountered in reading texts.

Second language readers mostly use their bilingual dictionaries to learn the meanings of words they do not know. They consider these dictionaries indispensable sources for lexical help in reading classes or when reading extensively. However, as Huckin and Bloch (1993) point out, dictionaries, especially the small pocket-size ones which are very popular among second language readers, often do not provide sufficiently accurate information to serve the second language readers' needs. Additionally, nonnative readers' overuse of bilingual dictionaries often distracts them from the text, and they may be misleading because it is not always possible to find direct equivalents of words in different languages (Cohen, 1990). Although using dictionaries excessively has some shortcomings in terms of reading comprehension, it may not be realistic to see the dictionary as a last source for learning word meanings, since it is a good idea to consult the dictionary to check the words that are not understandable from context and that are very important to the meaning of a text (Cohen, 1990). However, as Grellet (1981) suggests, by depending heavily on dictionaries, learners never make the effort to cope with a difficult passage on their own. She asserts that students should be encouraged to guess the meanings of unknown words. Eskey (2002) agrees with Grellet in that he thinks learners must learn to take risks, especially when they are reading in a L2, and must learn to guess unknown words and keep reading. Stopping to look up words interferes "with the process of acquiring information from the text and relating it to what you already know to construct a meaning of the text as a whole" (p. 7). If

looking up the word in a dictionary is essential, this should only be done after the students have tried to find a solution on their own. This is the reason why developing the skill of inference is vital (Grellet, 1981).

<div align="center">Definition of Inferencing</div>

Inferencing is a technical word which cannot be found in dictionaries. Grellet (1981) suggests that inferencing means making use of logical, cultural, and syntactic clues to find out the meaning of unknown elements. If these elements are words, word-formation and derivation are also used as clues for guessing a word. Stein (1993, p. 203) defines inferencing as constructing "intelligent guesses or hypotheses about the meaning of a word based on the grammatical and pragmatic context in which the word is found". According to Haastrup (1987), in language reception, inferencing procedures are central procedures which cover not only language use but also language learning. A learner uses all available linguistic cues together with his/her general knowledge, relevant linguistic knowledge, and awareness of the situation to make informed guesses in inferencing (Haastrup, 1987). Chikalanga (1993), defined inferencing as the cognitive process readers go through to gain the implicit meaning of a text, and Bialystok (1983) considers inferencing a compensation strategy which is needed for reading comprehension both in first and second language (as cited in Soria, 2001). Similar to Bialystok, Oxford (1990) places inferencing under compensation strategies in her taxonomy and claims that when good language learners encounter unknown expressions, they make educated guesses by using a range of linguistic and nonlinguistic clues. Furthermore, in the psycholinguistic models of reading, which view reading process as an interaction between the information given in a text and the pre-existing knowledge of the

readers, inferencing is recognized as an essential component of reading

comprehension (Soria, 2001).

All the researchers mentioned above share the same idea that inferencing is

an important process for reading comprehension. Lexical inferencing is an aspect of

inferencing, which if successfully done can serve for immediate comprehension in a

reading context and lead to retention of the vocabulary whose meanings are inferred

from context (Paribakth & Wesche, 1999 as cited in Soria, 2001). To achieve

successful guessing from context, readers need to know what context is and what the

types of context are. These issues will be presented in the next section.

The Importance of Context

Words do not give meanings to sentences as much as the sentences give

meanings to words (Eskey, 2002), and words change meaning from one context to

another so the meaning of a word is determined by the contexts in which it is used

(Nagy, 2001). Sternberg (1987) states that throughout their lives people are exposed

to countless numbers of words in context through limitless sources such as

coursebooks, newspapers, family members, friends, lessons, films, television and so

on. If people learn only a small number of words encountered in such contexts, they

can have a huge vocabulary and there is no other way to learn this many words. This

kind of "default argument" ( Jenkins & Dixon, 1983 as cited in Nagy & Herman,

1987; Beck & McKeown, 1991 as cited in Nagy, 2001) for learning from context in

first language acquisition indicates the importance of context in vocabulary learning

(Nagy, 2001).

Nation and Coady (1988) view context as morphological, syntactic, and

discourse information in a given text. This is the context within the text which can be

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described and classified in terms of general features. The general context, however, is the background knowledge the readers have about the subject matter in a given text.

Drum and Konopak (1987) state that the meaning of a word depends on "the string of words within which it is embedded" (p. 74). Miller (1978b as cited in Drum & Konopak, 1987) suggests four sources for disambiguating the meaning of a word: the situational context, the discourse context, the reader's knowledge about the discourse topic, and the immediate linguistic context. Situational context refers to the reader's purpose for reading: what he/she needs to learn about particular words. Discourse context corresponds to the underlying conceptual structure for the topic of the text and is important in understanding what a word means because authors' choice of words depends on the topic discussed. The readers' knowledge about the discourse topic is the mental representation for the topic a reader has before reading the text. Linguistic context refers to the verbal context in which a word is found and this present study is related more to the role of linguistic context in guessing unknown vocabulary (p. 74). The following section presents the types of contextual cues and the moderating variables that make it easy or difficult to use these clues.

<u>Contextual Cues and Moderating Variables</u>

Sternberg (1987) has proposed some specific contextual guessing strategies that can help learners detect and use the clues available. According to Sternberg, by raising language learners' awareness about the relevant clues, which he described as temporal, spatial, stative descriptive, functional descriptive, value, causal/enablement, class membership, and equivalence, they can be trained in making intelligent guesses. It is teachers' responsibility to teach how and when to

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use contextual clues to gloss word meanings (Grabe & Stoller, 1993). Teachers can use the cues identified by Sternberg as a framework to show their students ways to utilize the contextual clues in lexical inferencing.

Sternberg (1987) distinguishes between the clues to the meaning of an unknown word in context and variables that make it easy or difficult to use these clues. One variable is density, the ratio of unknown words to known words in a passage. If the density of vocabulary is high, it becomes difficult to decide which of the available cues are related to which of the unknown words. Similar to Sternberg (1987), Laufer (1997) asserts that for the usability of available clues, the words containing the clues should be understandable. When the density of unfamiliar words is high the probability to use the clues decreases. Other variables proposed by Sternberg (1987) are the number of times and the variety of contexts in which the same unknown word appears in a text, the significance of the unknown word to understanding the context in which it occurs, the closeness of the contextual information to the unknown word, and the usefulness of prior knowledge. When an unknown word occurs more than once, readers will be more likely to be able to guess its meaning because of the increase in the number of available cues. Encountering the unknown word in different types of contexts such as different writing styles or different kinds of subject matter provides different types of information about the word and increases the probability that the reader will understand its meaning. If the meaning of a word is important to the understanding of the surrounding material in which it is embedded, readers will make a great effort to figure out its meaning. The closeness of a contextual cue to an unknown word makes it easier to guess its meaning because it is considered relevant to inferencing. If it is distant from the

unknown word, its relevance might not be noticed. Furthermore, the cue may be misinterpreted as relevant to another unknown word which is more proximal. As the last variable, previous knowledge of the readers may also facilitate the understanding of what a word means. (Sternberg, 1987, pp. 92-94). The next section presents guessing from context as a strategy.

<center>The Strategy of Guessing from Context</center>

Guessing, which is a critical strategy in reading comprehension, can be at word, sentence or text level. At the sentence or text level guessing, readers pay attention to other sentences or previously given textual information to understand a sentence or a part of the text (Bezci, 1998). In word level guessing, which is the main concern of this study, there are two approaches. First, readers guess words by considering the context in which the unknown word appears and second by analyzing the word's grammatical form and what it means in terms of the syntactic unity of the sentence (Barnett, 1988). Several researchers believe that to promote reading comprehension and vocabulary building, learners should be taught strategies for guessing word meanings from context (Huckin & Bloch, 1993; Schulz, 1993; Bengeleil & Paribakth, 2004).

Nation (2001) proposes that guessing from context is a complex activity that draws on a variety of skills and types of knowledge. He adds that there are many procedures for guessing from context drawing on the same kinds of clues. Some of these procedures work towards the guess in an inductive approach, whereas some others work deductively from the guess. Clarke and Nation (1980) describe an inductive approach which they assert is useful for activating learners' awareness of

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the variety of clues available and for developing the sub-skills needed to benefit from the clues (as cited in Nation, 2001). Their five-step inductive procedure is as follows:

1. Deciding on the unknown word's part of the speech

2. Having a look at the immediate context of the word and simplifying it grammatically if necessary

3. Having a look at the wider context of the word – the relationship with adjoining sentences or clauses

4. Guessing

5. Checking the guess

The last step, checking the guess could involve checking if the guess is the same part of speech as the unknown word, substituting the guess for the unknown word and seeing if it fits into the context, breaking the unknown word into parts and checking if the meaning of these parts support the guess and looking up the word in a dictionary (Nation, 2001). In the next part, some taxonomies of word guessing through context strategies will be presented.

<center>Classification of Contextual Guessing Strategies</center>

As evidenced by a number of studies conducted on L2 lexical inferencing, many knowledge sources and strategies are used in guessing word meanings from context. The first detailed taxonomy of strategies for guessing vocabulary from context was suggested by Haastrup (1987). She conducted a study with 124 Danish learners of English from different proficiency levels to investigate the knowledge sources used at different L2 proficiency levels and how these knowledge sources are combined. For this investigation, the combination of pair thinking-aloud and retrospection was used; however, the primary source of data was the "informant-

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initiated" think-aloud (Haastrup, 1987, p. 204). All 62 pairs worked on a simplified

authentic text with 25 unknown words. Then, because of time and financial

constraints 32 pairs participated in the "researcher-controlled" (Haastrup, 1987,

p. 204) retrospective protocols where the students were asked questions such as

"What came to your mind first when you saw this word?"; "You made a long pause

at this point. Do you remember what you were thinking of?"; "What led you to

suggest this meaning of the word?". Having analyzed the data collected from the

introspective and retrospective sessions, Haastrup was able to establish the following

taxonomy that consists of three categories:

| CONTEXTUAL | INTRALINGUAL | INTERLINGUAL |
|---|---|---|
| I. The text<br>  1. A single word<br>    from the immediate<br>    context<br>  2. The immediate<br>    context<br>  3. A specific part<br>    of the context<br>    beyond the<br>    sentence of the<br>    test word<br>  4. Global use of<br>    the text<br><br>II. Knowledge of the<br>  world | I. The test word<br>  1. Phonology/<br>    orthography<br>  2. Morphology<br>    a. Prefix<br>    b. suffix<br>    c. stem<br>  3. Lexis<br>  4. Word class<br>  5. Collocations<br>  6. Semantics<br><br>II. The syntax of the<br>    sentence | I. L1 (Danish)<br>  1. Phonology/orthography<br>  2. Morphology<br>  3. Lexis<br>  4. Collocations<br>  5. Semantics<br>II. Ln (Latin, German,<br>  French, etc.)<br>  1. General reflections<br>    a. Reflections about the<br>      origin of the word<br>    b. Test word<br>      pronounced in Ln<br>  2. Morphology<br>  3. Lexis<br>  4. Semantics |

Figure 1. Taxonomy of knowledge sources
         (Haastrup, 1987, p. 199)

The contextual cues in Haastrup's classification refer to the clues available in

the text or the world knowledge of the informants. A word in the immediate context,

a part of the wider context or even the understanding of the whole text are seen as

contextual clues. Intralingual clues are based on the informants' knowledge of

+English. The phonology or orthography and the morphology of the target word; its

word class, collocates, and meaning; and the syntax of the sentence with the target word all go under intralingual clues. Interlingual clues, on the other hand, are related to the knowledge of L1 or other foreign languages. The phonology or orthography, morphology, vocabulary, collocations, and semantics of L1 or L2 other than English are put under the heading of interlingual clues.

An introspective study dealing with the effect of EFL learners' L2 reading proficiency on their L2 lexical inferencing with respect to the knowledge sources and contextual clues they use in the process was conducted by Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004). 10 intermediate and 7 advanced level Arabic-speaking male and female medical students participated in the study in which they were asked to guess 26 unknown words in an authentic English expository text. After the qualitative analysis of the data, the knowledge sources and contextual cues used in inferring the target words while reading the text were identified. It was found out that both groups used the same knowledge sources and contextual cues. The only exception was word association, which was used a few times by the intermediate participants only. According to the data obtained in this study, Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004) developed their taxonomy including linguistic and non-linguistic sources:

```
I . Linguistic sources
    A . Intralingual sources
        1. Target word level
            a. word morphology
            b. homonymy
            c. word association
        2. Sentence level
            a. sentence meaning
            b. syntagmatic relations
            c. paradigmatic relations
            d. grammar
            e. punctuation
        3. Discourse level
            a. discourse meaning
            b. formal schemata
    B . Interlingual sources
        1. Lexical knowledge
        2. Word collocation

II . Non-linguistic sources
    A . Knowledge of the topic
    B . Knowledge of medical terms
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Figure 2. Taxonomy of knowledge sources used in L2 lexical inferencing
        (Bengeleil & Paribakht, 2004, p. 231)

The taxonomies constructed by Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004) and Haastrup

(1987) are similar in that they both include intralingual and interlingual sources.

However, whereas Haastrup (1987) classifies her knowledge sources under three

categories – contextual, intralingual, and interlingual – Bengeleil and Paribakht

(2004) categorize the knowledge sources as – linguistic and non-linguistic –.

Linguistic sources contain intralingual (L2-based) sources, which consist of word-

level, sentence-level, and discourse level clues; and interlingual (L1-based) sources,

which iclude the lexis and collocations of the first language. The knowledge of the

informants of the topic and medical terms comprise the non-linguistic sources.

Haastrup (1987) and Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004) included only the

knowledge sources employed in deriving word meanings from context. In contrast,

Nassaji (2003) distinguished between knowledge sources and strategies used in L2

lexical inferencing after he conducted a study with twenty-one adult ESL learners with five different language backgrounds. Strategies are defined as "conscious cognitive or metacognitive activities the learner used to gain control over or understand the problem without any explicit appeal to any knowledge sources as assistance". In contrast, knowledge sources are "instances when the learner made an explicit reference to a particular source of knowledge such as grammatical, morphological, discourse, world, or L1 knowledge" (Nassaji, 2003, p. 655). In this study introspective and retrospective think-aloud protocols were used, but data derived mainly from the introspective ones since "they involve more direct and online reporting of what learners are doing at the time of the task" (Nassaji, 2003, p. 651). A reading text with 10 target words was used. This study showed that for ESL learners it was not easy to successfully infer the meanings of unknown words from context although many strategies and knowledge sources had been used. Additionally, different strategies contributed differentially to inferencing success and success was related more to the quality rather than the quantity of the strategies used. Nassaji's (2003) taxonomy of knowledge sources and strategies are as follows:

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KNOWLEDGE SOURCES

1. Grammatical knowledge
2. Morphological knowledge
3. World knowledge
4. L1 knowledge
5. Discourse knowledge

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Figure 3. Knowledge sources employed in L2 lexical inferencing
        (Nassaji, 2003, p. 656)

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STRATEGIES

1. Repeating
   a. word repeating
   b. section repeating
2. Analogy
3. Verifying
4. Monitoring
5. Self-inquiry
6. Analyzing
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Figure 4. Strategies employed in L2 lexical inferencing
        (Nassaji, 2003, p. 658)

Grammatical knowledge in Nassaji's (2003) classification refers to using the

knowledge of grammatical functions or syntactic categories. Morphological

knowledge means the knowledge of word formation and word structure. Using

knowledge of the topic which is beyond what is in the text is world knowledge.

Using the knowledge of the relations between or within the sentences and the devices

that connect different parts of the text constitutes discourse knowledge. The four

knowledge sources mentioned above are also included in the taxonomies of by

Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004) and Haastrup (1987). However, L1 knowledge,

which means all the attempts of the informants to find out the meaning of the target

word by translating or finding a similar word in the native language, is a new

category.

There are six different strategies in Nassaji's (2003) taxonomy which are not

included neither in the classification of Haastrup (1987) nor in Bengeleil and

Paribakht's (2004). The first one, repeating, as the name suggests, is repeating any

part of the text. Verifying means examining whether the guess is appropriate by

checking it against the wider context. Questioning yourself about the words, the text,

and the inferred meaning constitutes self-inquiry. Analyzing is the attempt to infer

the meaning of the target word by breaking it into parts. Monitoring is showing a

conscious awareness of the difficulty or easiness of the task. Finally, trying to find the meaning of the word by associating its sound or form with other words is labeled as analogy.

The taxonomies of knowledge sources and strategies developed by Haastrup (1987), Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004), and Nassaji (2003) can be used as a framework in future studies concerning lexical inferencing. They are used as a basis in the present study to develop the contextual guessing strategies taxonomy. The next section goes into the limitations of using the strategy of guessing vocabulary from context.

<div align="center">Problems in Using the Strategy of Guessing from Context</div>

Most research on vocabulary acquisition indicates that it is possible for the learners to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words through context which a reading text provides (Frantzen, 2003). However, research also shows that the value of context is not without limitations and problems can occur when relying on context (Dubin & Olshtain, 1993; Haynes, 1993; Huckin & Bloch, 1993; Parry, 1993; Frantzen, 2003).

Frantzen (2003) discusses Deighton's (1959) conclusion that even though the context always determines the meaning of unknown words, it may not reveal that meaning. Research suggests that learners may not infer the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary due to the vagueness or ambiguity of the contexts in which they appear. An L1 study by Schatz and Baldwin (1986) indicates that although contextual clues can help accurate lexical inferencing, sometimes they lead learners to confusion (as cited in Frantzen, 2003). The results of another L1 study by Dubin and Olshtain (1993) reveal that some contexts provide low textual support. That is, a text may not

always have enough support to allow the inferencing of meaning of an unknown word. Laufer (1997) reports the findings of Bensoussan and Laufer (1984) that in a study where students were asked to guess 70 words in a standard academic text, only 13 of the words had clear contextual clues.

The difficulty level of a text may also affect learners' guessing ability (Paribakht & Wesche, 2000). Due to the difficult language used in a text, the available contextual clues may not prove useful in word-guessing (Frantzen, 2003). For example, Sternberg (1987) and Laufer (1997) put forward that a high density of unknown words may result in the inability to use the available clues. If the clues to the unknown word are in words which are themselves unknown to the reader, it can be said that there are no clues for that reader because the clues cannot be used by him/her (Laufer, 1997). A critical factor which affects guessing from context is the vocabulary size of the reader because it will affect the density of unknown words in a text (Nation, 2001). In many studies related to lexical inferencing, knowing the meanings of words in the surrounding context of texts helped L2 learners guess the meanings of unfamiliar words (Haynes, 1993; Haynes & Baker, 1993; Na & Nation, 1985; Parry, 1997; Schouten-van Parraren; 1989 as cited in Pulido, 2003). It was also found in these studies that learners had problems in word guessing if they do not know the meanings of vocabulary in the surrounding context (Pulido, 2003).

One of the learner factors affecting lexical inferencing is the learners' inattention to some details in context that supply the correct meaning, regardless of the text being difficult or easy (Frantzen, 2003). Nonnative readers often think that using context means paying attention to the words immediately preceding or following the unknown word. However, clues to the meaning may be seen much

earlier or much later in the texts (Cohen, 1990). Haynes (1993) found in her study that L2 readers make successful guesses when the context supply immediate clues. Global clues are not paid attention to, which consequently results in misinterpretations. Another factor is the physical appearance of the words. L2 readers sometimes do not pay attention to the context for guessing because they think they already know the meaning of target words (Huckin & Bloch, 1993; Frantzen, 2003). Haynes (1993), Dubin and Olshtain (1993), Huckin and Bloch (1993), Clarke and Nation (1980 as cited in Nation, 2001) recommend that learners verify their guesses by checking the context. According to Haynes (1993), evaluating the guess is equally important to making a guess because words have many meanings and even when learners are convinced that they know the meaning of a word, they may be wrong.

One major problem in guessing from context is the form of the word to be guessed according to some researchers (Nation, 2001; Nation & Coady, 1988; Arden-Close, 1993; Huckin & Bloch, 1993; Haynes, 1993; Dubin & Olshtain, 1993). Arden-Close (1993) found that even good readers were distracted by the form of the unknown words. In his study, learners worked on three texts with target words underlined, deleted, and replaced with nonsense words, to see if sense and context or the appearance of the word was a stronger clue. As learners made more successful guesses in the text with deleted words it was concluded that the participants in the study were misled by the appearance of the words. Nation and Coady (1988) claim that when learners make wrong guesses as they consider the form of the word, they try to interpret the context to support the wrong guess. For example, in Haynes' (1993) study most of the students interpreted "offspring" as "the end of spring" or

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"the end of a season" due to word analysis, and they interpreted the text according to this guess. According to Nation, 2001; Nation and Coady, 1988; Arden-Close, 1993; Huckin and Bloch, 1993; Haynes, 1993; Dubin and Olshtain, 1993 the word form should be used as a last step to derive the meaning of a word, after using the context. Moreover, it is best to use morpheme analysis to check the guesses rather than using it as a clue for guessing.

Another problematic issue to be considered in lexical inferencing is the unlikelihood of acquisition or retention of the successfully guessed words. Many researchers agree on the fact that even if learners make successful guesses, these guesses do not necessarily result in acquisition or retention of the new word (Nation & Coady, 1988; Read, 2000). This happens because once the learners understand the meaning, they do not engage in deeper mental processing of the word (Paribakht & Wesche, 2000).

<div align="center">Conclusion</div>

Guessing vocabulary from context is a critical reading strategy, and students should be encouraged to guess the meaning of unknown words because intelligent guessing is something all skilled and proficient readers do (Allen, 2003). According to Stanovich (1986), the fact that good readers comprehend more, know more words, and learn new words more easily than poor readers is due to their ability to take more advantage of context in reading texts (as cited in Coady, 1993). However, taking the problems in using the context for guessing word meanings into consideration, L2 learners should be taught how and when to use the relevant contextual clues because this approach may not be applicable all the time or at random (Drum & Konopak, 1987).

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY


Introduction

The purpose of this interventional study was to identify the strategies used in guessing vocabulary from context in reading texts by pre-intermediate students at Hacettepe University, Department of Basic English (DBE). This study also intended to differentiate between the strategy use of successful and unsuccessful guessers. The results of this study may contribute to the new curriculum design at Hacettepe University DBE which is supposed to be implemented in the 2006-2007 academic year. The Curriculum Development Unit may use the findings of this study to introduce other strategies in the new reading and vocabulary curriculum to help students become more competent readers by considering the cognitive strategies already used for guessing words by the students.

The study addressed the following research questions:

1. What strategies do the pre-intermediate level students at Hacettepe University, Department of Basic English report that they use when they encounter unknown vocabulary in context?

2. What is the role of context in helping students to deal with unknown vocabulary?

3. What is the difference between the strategies that the successful and unsuccessful guessers report they use to cope with unknown vocabulary in reading texts?

To identify the lexical inferencing strategies, data were collected through a reading task, think-aloud-protocols (TAPs) and retrospective interviews (RIs).The first step in gathering data was the administration of the reading task. This reading task, in which the students were asked to guess the meanings of unknown vocabulary, was given to a pre-intermediate class of 32 students. The purpose of implementing the reading task was to select the participants for the TAPs and RIs, according to their success in guessing the meanings of the target words in the reading text. The next step was the administration of TAPs to obtain evidence about the strategies students rely on during the lexical inferencing process. The participants in the TAPs were three successful and three unsuccessful guessers who were asked to derive the meanings of target unknown vocabulary in another reading task. The final step was conducting the RIs in which the students were provided with the reading task they had worked on during the TAPs. They were asked questions about the strategies they used to deal with unknown target words and clarify the sequences in the audiotaped TAPs that could not be understood.

## Setting and Participants

The study was conducted at Hacettepe University, Department of Basic English, where students from various departments get the compulsory EFL education. Students are placed at appropriate levels from zero-beginner to intermediate according to a placement test given at the beginning of each academic year. The participants of this study were 32 pre-intermediate students. The reading task was given to 32 students; however, only 6 of these 32 students participated in the TAPs and RIs.

32 students, 18 males and 14 females, engaged in the reading task. In this task they were asked to read a text and infer the meanings of target vocabulary. According to the number of correctly guessed words, some successful and some unsuccessful guessers were selected. Among these students, three successsful and three unsuccessful guessers would do the TAPs, where they would have to verbalize their thoughts during the contextual guessing process and RIs, where they would be asked questions about the strategies used in dealing with the unknown vocabulary in the TAPs. Due to the nature of these two instruments, especially the TAPs, participants' verbalization skills are very important factors influencing the richness of data (Van Someren, Barnard & Sandberg, 1994). Therefore, to make sure about the participants' verbalization skills, their teacher was asked to suggest students who were talkative, confident, and able to express themselves, among the students who were selected according to the guessing scores in the reading task. After the teacher was consulted about the verbalization skills of the students, three successful and three unsuccessful guessers who were willing to participate in the study were selected.

## Instruments

In this interventional study, three non-technical reading texts taken from *Interactions 2: Integrated Skills* published by McGraw Hill Contemporary in 2003 were used. The criteria taken into consideration in selecting the reading texts are as follows:

- Whether the texts match the comprehension ability of pre-intermediate readers;

- Whether the texts were intriguing enough for stimulating interest and curiosity in the participants;

- Whether the texts were suitable in terms of investigating the strategy use in guessing vocabulary from context.

The expository reading text titled "Changing Career Trends" (see Appendix A) was used in the in-class reading task. The text was about job opportunities, job security, and job-hopping. It contained 806 words, 16 of which were target words. All target words were content words consisting of six nouns, six verbs, and four adjectives. The title of the reading text used in the training sessions was "The Human Brain–New Discoveries" (see Appendix B). This text, which was about the human brain and the differences in male and female brains, was much shorter than the text used during the TAPs because the aim was to train the participants in thinking-aloud by demonstrating what they were expected to do while reading and deriving the meanings of target words. The text used in the training sessions contained 205 words, 6 of which were target words. The target words consisted of three nouns and three verbs. During the TAPs, the participants dealt with an expository text titled "How to Read a Newspaper" (see Appendix C). This text, which was about reading a newspaper as a way to improve English, contained 831 words, 14 of which were target words. 4 nouns, 4 verbs, 4 adjectives, and 2 adverbs were chosen as the target vocabulary, and they were all content words. In all of the reading texts, the target words were written in bold so that the participants would know which words they were to guess. If the same words appeared more than once, they were in italicized to indicate that the word had been seen before.

All of the target words to be guessed in the reading texts used in this study were made-up words. That is, these words do not exist in English, they are made up by the researcher according to the orthographic and morphological rules of English by maintaining all the inflectional and derivational morphemes.

In the text used in the in-class reading task, 16 words: *choice, determined, varies, quit, self-confidence, flexible, industrial, upgrade, focus, distract, drawback, available, addicted, leisure activities, symptoms,* and *pleasure* were selected as the target words. Then, they were replaced with made-up words: *sinate, wanhered, yates, cest, vesk-janince, qunowen, dapolial, begivare, ohenis, tilikess, whistinkesh, amihable, thalleted, bogusare hesarices, ummugans,* and *meracism*. In the training reading text there were six words to be guessed: *exposed, exercise, bothering, origins, dominance,* and *feelings*. They were changed as *yobited, hedfinize, remdeting, pafamades, seminance,* and *manicions*. In the text used during the TAPs, 14 words: *tricks, hiding, regularly, aloud, spend, headlines, gossip, actual, includes, important, objective, last, preview,* and *report* were selected and replaced with artificial words: *pracks, danding, chaningly, adant, glurk, predpines, bissip, hatal, mintends, reminent, artictive, wist, pretern,* and *sidelt*. Two of the target words *bissip* and *hatal* were invented so that they looked like the actual English words *gossip* and *actual*. The aim to use similar sounding words was to see whether the students would make any intralingual phonological associations. There were no explicit criteria for the invention of the other target words. The researcher only tried to invent the words according to the morphological and orthographic rules of English by using affixation, as mentioned before.

The decision to use made-up words in this study was made after a review of research on contextual guessing. Some researchers have used made-up or nonsense words in their studies concerning lexical inferencing. For example, Haynes (1993) reports that in her study as in the studies conducted by Hamburg and Spaan (1982) and Walker (1981) nonsense words were used so that no student would have previous knowledge of the words to be guessed. Similarly, Pulido (2003) used nonsense words to ensure that no learners had prior knowledge of the target words under investigation. She reports that many researchers have used this approach in previous research on L2 vocabulary acquisition (e.g. Hulstijn, 1992, 1993; Lee & Wolf, 1997; Pulido, 1999; Walker, 1983 as cited in Pulido, 2003; Chern, 1993; Haynes, 1993).

The advantages and disadvantages of using artificial words have been discussed by many researchers. For instance, according to Haynes (1993), Pulido (2003), and Frantzen (2003), one advantage is that no participant will have previous knowledge of the word meanings. On the other hand, a drawback proposed by Frantzen (2003), is that the learners will not have the chance to use the stem of the word as a clue to find the meaning of the word. Another side effect of using pseudo-words is the possibility of learners' acquisition of these artificial words. Researchers try hard to create words that look like target language words by adding affixes, and this makes it more likely that these words will become part of the participants' personal lexicon (Frantzen, 2003).

Although, as Frantzen (2003) discusses, there are disadvantages to using artificial words, for the purpose of achieving validity, made-up words were used instead of actual English words in the present study. Since none of the participants

had prior knowledge of the target words, they employed strategies to guess these words. Therefore, the strategies used by the participants to infer the meanings of target words were valid.

In this study, in order not to affect the inferencing process negatively, the participants were not informed that the target words had been made-up by the researcher. During the TAPs, the participants did not express familiarity or unfamiliarity or any problems with the target words. Therefore, during the RIs they were not asked questions related to their ideas or feelings about the nonsense words. There was only one participant, who discovered that the target words were made-up. After the training session, before he continued with the TAP, he wanted to learn whether the words were artificial. Obviously, he was told that the target vocabulary was invented; however, he was supposed to behave as if they were actual words. Then, during the TAP, he did not report any negative attitudes to guessing the meanings of nonsense words.

Procedures

Piloting the Reading Tasks and TAPs

As the first step of data collection, the reading tasks and TAPs were piloted. Piloting for the in-class reading task was first done with 12 EFL teachers who were enrolled in the MA TEFL program at Bilkent University. Similarly, 5 MA TEFL students who were experienced teachers took part in the piloting of the reading task to be used during the TAPs. The researcher did this piloting to get their comments on the reading tasks she had designed and the made-up words she had invented. Also, from these experienced teachers, she wanted to get as many correct alternatives

to be used as synonyms for the target words as possible. Her colleagues provided two or three synonyms for each target word.

For the in-class reading task, one native speaker of English who is a linguist was consulted. Consultation with her revealed that two of the target words were problematic in terms of the orthographic and morphological rules of English. Therefore, revisions were made in these two made-up words. As for the TAP reading task, three native speakers, two of whom are experts in teaching EFL and ESL were consulted. According to their suggestions, two of the made-up words were changed due to their similarity to a real English word. Also, as there were more words to gloss in the first paragraph than in any other paragraphs, the number of the target words in the first paragraph was decreased. One native speaker reported difficulty with the syntax of a sentence, which made it difficult to figure out the meaning for the made-up word preceding it. Therefore, revisions were made in this sentence.

The revised in-class reading task was also piloted on December 22, 2005, one month before the main investigation, at Hacettepe University DBE with a class of 36 pre-intermediate students similar to the ones who participated in the main study. The task was completed in one lesson (50 minutes). None of the students reported that the text was too difficult for them to cope with. However, when I had a look at their answers to the vocabulary part in the reading task, I noticed that none of the students could find the synonyms for three words: *ulomanice* (identity), *semify fip tole* (keep up with), and *pafamade* (access). Another problem was with the words *qunowen* (flexible), *hedfin* (rigid), and *dapolial* (industrial). The majority of the students interpreted *qunowen* and *hedfin*, which are seen in the following sentences "It is true that these days, workers must be more **qunowen** – able to change to fit new

situations. But optimists claim that *qunowen* people are essentially happier, more creative, and more energetic than people who are **hedfin**." as optimistic and pessimistic. The students had used the context to understand that these words were opposite adjectives but failed in recognizing the exact definition – able to change to fit new situations – which is provided right after the word *qunowen*. Likewise, most students thought that the word *dapolial* in the sentence "For example, people with factory jobs in **dapolial** nations lose their jobs when factories move to countries where the pay is lower." means undeveloped, which is actually the opposite of what is meant in the passage. Before the main study was conducted, these words were considered again because they seemed to be problematic for the students. It was decided not to select *ulomanice* (identity), *semify fip tole* (keep up with), *pafamade* (access), and *hedfin* (rigid) as target words since no student could infer their meanings. However, no revisions were made with the words *qunowen* (flexible) and *dapolial* (industrial).

Students were informed that if they could not find a synonym in English for a target word, they might also write a synonym in Turkish. This was because of the fact that a student might successfully guess the meaning of a word but might not be able to express it in English. This study was not concerned with the proficiency of the students in their L2. The researcher was interested in the cognitive processes the readers go through when they tried to guess the meaning of an unknown word. Therefore, if the students were able to express their guesses in their L1 but not in their L2, they were allowed to do so. The results of the piloting showed that it was a good idea to allow students to write synonyms in Turkish. Some students wrote Turkish words for some of the target vocabulary, and these were mostly correct

guesses. Allowing participants to provide synonyms in their native language had not been practiced in any other study concerning lexical inferencing, so the researcher in this study was concerned that the students might use Turkish words excessively because it would be easier for them. However, they only used Turkish words when they really could not find an English word. When scoring the participants' responses in Turkish, the same criteria used for scoring the responses in the target language were taken into consideration. An answer that was semantically, syntactically, and contextually appropriate was rated as correct. If a response was semantically correct but syntactically deviant, it was rated as partially correct.

It was found in many studies concerning lexical inferencing that knowing the meanings of the words in the surrounding context of texts helped L2 learners guess the meanings of unfamiliar words. It was also found in these studies that learners had problems in word guessing if they did not know the meanings of vocabulary in the surrounding context (see Chapter 2, p. 33). Considering this result of the previous studies, in this pilot study the students were asked to underline the words they did not know other than the target words, to obtain a rough idea of the vocabulary size of the students. It was seen that the students did not have difficulty understanding the context because they knew most of the words in the surrounding context.

The TAPs were piloted on February 17, 2006, one week before the main investigation. Three students from the class that attended the piloting of the in-class reading task participated in the piloting of the TAPs. One of them was a successful guesser, and the other two were reported by their teacher to be quite unsuccessful. By this piloting, I had an idea of how long each TAP would last. Even with the less

successful guessers, the TAPs were completed in approximately half an hour, which is a reasonable time for conducting TAPs.

The pilot study showed that the participants had difficulty with two of the target words: *virate* (improve) and *jorn* (skip). None of them could find synonyms for these words, so they were considered again before the main study. It was seen that the text did not provide enough context for the words *virate* and *jorn* for pre-intermediate students to derive their meanings; therefore, they were not targeted.

As in the piloting of the in-class reading task, in the piloting of the TAPs, the students were asked to underline the unknown words other than the target words. This was done to see if there were many unfamiliar words in the surrounding context for the target words, which would affect successful guessing. All three participants in the pilot study pointed at the same three words (acquire, challenging, trash) as unknown and had difficulty in glossing the target words preceding or coming after them. Therefore, these words were simplified by replacing them with other words fitting the context (learn, difficult, rubbish) that the students already knew.

The participants of the pilot study had a positive attitude towards the tasks. They expressed that they liked the reading tasks and they would like to attend this kind of studies again. Apart from getting such comforting comments, by piloting the reading tasks I designed, I had the chance to see how they would work in real life with real students. I was also able to recognize the weaknesses and the strengths of the reading tasks.

<u>Administration of the In-class Reading Task</u>

The in-class reading task was administered on February 17, 2006 at Hacettepe University DBE. 32 pre-intermediate students participated in the task. They were

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instructed that they were supposed to guess the meanings of 16 target words which were written in bold. They were asked to find synonyms for the target words. They were informed that if they could not find a synonym in English for a target word, they might also provide a synonym in Turkish.

Some of the participants completed the required task in 15 minutes. However, the majority handed in their papers in 45 minutes. A few students asked questions about the study and the target words after they had completed the task. Their questions were answered by the researcher who was present in the classroom during the administration of the reading task.

<p align="center">Training Sessions for the TAPs</p>

Training the participants before the TAPs is important. Gass and Mackey (2000) assert that it is really difficult to conduct TAPs without training because most people need practice and modeling to be able to verbalize their thoughts while dealing with a problem-solving task. Training helps participants become more fluent in verbalizing their thoughts. When participants are given the chance to practice before the real task, they become familiar with thinking-aloud and in addition, the researcher has the opportunity to correct the participants who attempt to interpret their thoughts instead of verbalizing whatever comes to their minds (Van Someren et al., 1994).

Before the TAPs were conducted, participants were trained in thinking-aloud by the researcher in individual sessions which lasted for 10-15 minutes. The participants were first informed about the purpose of the study and how they were to verbalize their thoughts (see Appendix D for training session talk). As suggested in the literature, they were told that they were free to use their L1 (Turkish), L2

(English) or both, while they were dealing with the reading task and vocalizing their thoughts (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Bengeleil & Paribakht, 2004).

The text titled "The Human Brain–New Discoveries" used in the training sessions, consisted of two paragraphs, and it was very similar to the target task as recommended by Van Someren et al. (1994). With the first paragraph, the researcher modeled the verbal process, herself. Then, with the second paragraph, the participants were given the opportunity to practice verbalizing what was going on in their minds (Van Someren et al., 1994). Van Someren et al. (1994) recommend starting the actual think-aloud session after the researcher is confident that the participant feels comfortable with the verbalizing process. Thus, the researcher started the TAP task after she felt that the participants learnt how to think-aloud as they expressed that they understood the process. After the training and practice period, the participants were presented the reading task.

<div align="center">Think-Aloud Protocols (TAPs)</div>

Although there have been some criticism of the TAPs, it is a common methodology used in strategy research (Nassaji, 2003). This introspective method was suitable for the aim of this study since it would enable the researcher to have direct access to the inferencing processes of the participants as they verbalized their thoughts.

The TAPs were conducted on February 22, 2006, five days after the administration of the in-class reading task, in separate sessions for each participant. As advocated in literature, a quiet room where the participants would not be disturbed by anybody or with any noise (Faerch & Kasper, 1987; Van someren et al.,

1994; Nassaji, 2003) was arranged to conduct the TAPs. The TAPs lasted for 15-30 minutes.

The participants were provided with the reading text titled "How to Read a Newspaper" and instructed to read the text aloud. They were asked to verbalize and report whatever came to their mind, even if it seemed irrelevant, while guessing the meanings of each word written in bold. They were also informed that at any time they could refer back to an unknown word to guess its meaning again (Nassaji, 2003).

All of the participants preferred to voice their thoughts in Turkish while they were performing the task. As think-aloud is an "informant-initiated" technique (Haastrup, 1987), the researcher did not interfere with the process unless the participants paused more than 15 seconds. When the participants stopped talking for more than 15 seconds, which happened only three times, they were reminded to continue thinking-aloud by asking them what they were thinking at that time (Ericsson & Simon, 1987). With this reminder, the participants immediately started to talk again and verbalize what they were thinking.

TAPs were completed successfully. To give the reader an idea about how the participants dealt with the thinking-aloud process, a short TAP segment both in Turkish and English is provided below. Underlined parts are from the reading text and the italicized portions were translated into English.

Turkish:

you sometimes ask me for **pracks** . ee birşeyler hakkında soru soruluyor you want quick and easy ways to learn this language to learn huge vocabulary to read fast and understand more to become good writers . you want magic you think I have some secret magic **pracks** that I am **danding** not letting you have you think I have some secret magic **pracks** clue ipucu olabilir …

(writes + clue) <u>that I am</u> **danding** <u>not letting you have</u> that I'm . knowing olabilir <u>having</u> know olabilir ama ing almaz <u>that I'm</u> . know <u>that I'm having .</u> <u>not letting you have</u>

English:

<u>you sometimes ask me for</u> **pracks** . ee *a question is asked about something* <u>you want quick and easy ways to learn this language to learn huge</u> <u>vocabulary to read fast and understand more to become good writers</u> . <u>you</u> <u>want magic you think I have some secret magic</u> **pracks** <u>that I am</u> **danding** <u>not letting you have you think I have some secret magic</u> **pracks** clue *it can* *be clue* … (writes + clue) <u>that I am</u> **danding** <u>not letting you have</u> *it can be* that I'm . knowing <u>having</u> *it can be* know *but it does not take* ing <u>that I'm</u> . know <u>that I'm having . not letting you have</u>

As it can be seen from the sample above, the participant read the text and vocalized what was going on in her mind. She did not attempt to interpret the text or her thoughts. She tried to find synonyms for the target words by using different strategies. Other participants' protocols were similar to this sample in that they were easy to interpret. None of the participants reported difficulty in fulfilling the required task. The participants' verbal reports were audio-recorded for future use. Also, the researcher made notes about the strategy use of the participants concerning contextual guessing.

<div align="center">Retrospective Interviews (RIs)</div>

Since TAPs have such shortcomings as "incomplete reporting and protocols that are difficult to interpret" (Haastrup, 1987, p. 202), this technique was supplemented by conducting retrospective interviews as it has been done in many other studies on lexical inferencing (e.g. Haastrup, 1987; Paribakht & Wesche, 2000; Nassaji, 2003, 2004; Bengeleil & Paribakht, 2004). As the final step of data collection, RIs were conducted on March 1, 2006, one week after the TAPs. Actually, it is better to do the RIs right after the TAPs because, as Gass and Mackey (2000) report, Bloom (1954) found that recall was 95% accurate if it was prompted a

short period of time after the original event (often 48 hours). Retrospective interviews should be carried out soon after the task to be recalled because as the task becomes distant in time and memory, the participants may report what they think the researcher wants them to say or may find new explanations for their thoughts since the task is less focused in their memories (Gass & Mackey, 2000). However, due to the course schedule at Hacettepe University DBE for pre-intermediate students and the researcher's health problems, she was only able to conduct the RIs one week after the TAPs.

In the retrospective interviews, which lasted for 10 to 15 minutes, the students were provided with the reading task they worked on during the TAPs. The use of this stimulated recall method was intended to prompt participants to remember what they had thought while performing the reading task during TAPs. As suggested by Gass and Mackey (2000), it is thought that "some tangible (perhaps visual or aural) reminder of an event will stimulate recall of the mental processes in operation during the event itself" (p. 17). In addition to providing the TAP reading task, the researcher told the participants what exactly they had done or said during the TAPs when they were trying to find the meanings of the target words, to decrease the negative effect of time lapse between the TAPs and RIs.

In the "researcher-controlled" RIs (Haastrup, 1987), to elicit additional information, the participants were asked the following questions about the strategies they had used to deal with each unknown target word:

- "What helped you to find out the meaning of this word?"
- "You were not sure about the meaning of this word. Why? What made it difficult to guess this word?"

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- You referred back to this word and changed your guess. What led you to suggest this meaning of the word?

The participants were instructed to reflect the thoughts they had had during the TAP task about the clues they had used to guess the meanings of the target words. They were cautioned not to report the thoughts that came to them in the retrospective interviews. All of the participants successfully completed the RIs. A short RI sample both in Turkish and English is given below. The letter R indicates the researcher and P the participant.

Turkish:

R:    sonra **bissip** var **bissip** hakkında tahmin yapamadın demişsin orada seni zorlayan bir şey mi vardı
P:    <u>these are not newspapers they are rubbish to be more accurate they are called tabloid newspapers simply the worst examples of yellow journalism newspaper writing that is full of **bissip** half-truths and too many exclamation marks</u> o anda tahmin yapamamıştım ama şimdi aklıma birşey geldi ama
R:    ama o zaman
P:    gene tam net değil o zaman bir tahmin yapamamıştım

English:

R:    *then there is* **bissip** *for* **bissip** *you said that you could not guess it was there something that challenged you there*
P:    <u>these are not newspapers they are rubbish to be more accurate they are called tabloid newspapers simply the worst examples of yellow journalism newspaper writing that is full of **bissip** half-truths and too many exclamation marks</u> *I couldn't guess at that time but now something came to my mind but*
R:    *but at that time*
P:    *again it is not very clear at that time I couldn't guess*

As it is understood from the sample above, when the participants did not remember what they had thought during the TAPs, they said so. At certain times, they also told the researcher that they were thinking of something at that time which

they had not thought of during the original task. Fortunately, none of the participants tended to interpret the text; they talked about the clues they made use of to derive the meanings of target vocabulary, as expected.

In this study data derived both from the TAPs and RIs and the data gathered from RIs were used as a further sample. Combining these two instruments for data collection proved very useful. As the researcher could not interfere during the TAPs, there were some points which were not very clear. In the RIs, she had the opportunity to clarify those points. Also, combining TAPs and RIs enriched data. The samples from TAPs and RIs below illustrate the usefulness of combining TAPs and RIs:

TAP – Turkish:

**bissip** <u>newspaper writing that is full of</u> **bissip** dedikodu gossip gibi bir şey heralde **bissip** <u>newspaper writing that is full of</u>

TAP – English:

**bissip** <u>newspaper writing that is full of</u> **bissip** *gossip something like* gossip *probably* **bissip** <u>newspaper writing that is full of</u>

RI – Turkish

R:      **bissip** için dedikodu gossip demişsin ne düşündün
P:      <u>**bissip**</u> deyince hani orada gossip **bissip** gibi okunuyor diye
         düşündüm işte <u>half-truth</u> falan demiş yani yarı gerçek

RI – English:

R:       *for* **bissip** *you said gossip* gossip *what did you think*
P:      *when it says* <u>**bissip**</u> *well there* gossip *sounds like* **bissip** *I*
         *thought well it said* <u>half-truth</u> *that is half true*

In the TAP sample, the participant provided a synonym for the target word, but he did not explain how he had arrived at that guess. However, in the RI he

reported his thought that *bissip* sounded similar to "gossip". This reporting enabled the researcher to interpret the data more thoroughly.

Each RI was audio-recorded as was done during the TAPs. At the end of the retrospective sessions three participants wanted to learn the actual meanings of the target vocabulary. All of the participants thanked the researcher for including them in a study that was very useful for them.

## Data Analysis

Data were collected from three sources: an in-class reading task, TAPs, and RIs. The in-class reading task was used to identify three successful and three unsuccessful guessers according to their success in guessing the meanings of the target vocabulary. The correct responses were counted. The results were used in identifying the successful and unsuccessful guessers.

Qualitative and quantitative methods were used in analyzing the TAPs and RIs. First, the strategies used by each participant in guessing vocabulary were identified. Then, the verbal protocols were coded according to the strategy classification coding scheme established by the researcher (see Appendix F for the coding scheme). A taxonomy of the strategies used in lexical inferencing was developed. Since both TAPs and RIs were used as main data collection devices, the frequencies and percentages were calculated for each strategy used during the TAPs and reported in the RIs. The data are presented in tables in the following chapter.

## Conclusion

In this chapter the setting and the participants of the study, instruments for data collection, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques were

presented. In the next chapter, data analysis procedures and the results will be

discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

Overview of the Study

The present interventional study investigated the strategy use of pre-intermediate students at Hacettepe University, Department of Basic English (DBE) in guessing vocabulary from context in reading texts. This study, also aimed at differentiating between the strategy use of successful and unsuccessful guessers. Data were collected through an in-class reading task, think-aloud-protocols (TAPs) and retrospective interviews (RIs).

As the initial step of data collection the in-class reading task was administered to a pre-intermediate class of 32 students, with the purpose of selecting the participants for the TAPs and RIs. In this reading task the participants were asked to guess the meanings of unknown vocabulary. According to their success in inferring the meanings of the target words, three successful and three unsuccessful guessers were identified. As the second step TAPs were conducted with the selected successful and unsuccessful guessers to investigate the strategies students employ during the actual contextual guessing process. Another reading task similar to the one used in determining the six successful and unsuccessful guessers was given to the participants in the TAPs. In this task, the participants were asked to verbalize their thoughts while they were trying to gloss the meanings of target unknown vocabulary. The final step was conducting the RIs in which the participants were asked questions about their strategy use for guessing the target words in the TAP task and the unintelligible sequences in the audio-recorded TAPs. In the RIs, to prompt

participants to remember what they thought while performing the TAP reading task, the stimulated recall method was used by providing the reading task they had worked on during the TAPs.

In the first part of this chapter, the data analysis procedure is described. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to analyze the data gathered through the in-class reading task, TAPs, and RIs. The second part contains the results displayed in tables. First, the analysis of the in-class reading task includes the demonstration of the scores of the six successful and unsuccessful guessers and the mean score, range, and the standard deviation in a table. In addition, the success of the six participants in guessing the target vocabulary was shown in a table with frequencies and percentages for correct, partially correct, and incorrect answers. Then, the contextual guessing strategies employed during the TAPs and reported in the RIs are presented in a table with frequencies and percentages. Last, the scores of the 6 guessers in the TAP task with the mean score, range and standard deviation and the success of them in lexical inferencing with frequencies and percentages for correct, partially correct, and incorrect answers are displayed in tables.

<div align="center">Data Analysis Procedures</div>

<div align="center">Analysis of the In-class Reading Task</div>

The first step of data analysis was scoring the in-class reading task. Following the criteria proposed by Nassaji (2003) to determine the successful guessing, the responses to each target word were rated using a three-point scale: 2 = correct, 1 = partially correct, 0 = incorrect. Correct guessing was defined as semantically, syntactically, and contextually appropriate answers. A successful answer is described as a word representing the semantically accurate meaning of the target word such as

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a synonym or a definition. In order not to underestimate the attempts for guessing a word, the participants were also given the chance to supply synonyms in their native language, Turkish, if they experienced difficulty in finding one in English. For the Turkish synonyms, a correct answer is still the one which is semantically, syntactically, and contextually appropriate. Also, if the synonym the participants provided made sense in the context although it was not the meaning of the word out of context, it was still rated as correct. Semantically correct but syntactically incorrect answers were considered as partially correct. The answers which did not meet any of the above conditions were considered incorrect. To give an example, participant A provided the answers "self-confidence, give up, patient, busy and keyif (in Turkish)" for the made-up words *vesk-janince*, *cest*, *qunowen*, *amihable* and *meracism* respectively (see Appendix A for the in-class reading task). Her answer "self-confidence" for the target word *vesk-janince* was scored as correct because it was the actual English word used in the text before the target vocabulary was changed into nonsense words. Likewise, the synonym "keyif" she provided for the target word *meracism* was scored as correct because "keyif" is the Turkish equivalent for pleasure which was the original word in the text. The word a*mihable* was invented to replace the adjective available. Participant A's response "busy" for this word was still rated as correct since it made sense in the context although it was not the meaning of the word out of context. *Cest* was used to replace the original word "quit" which was used in the past tense. Her answer "give up" to this word was scored as partially correct because it was semantically and contextually appropriate but syntactically deviant as it was not in the correct tense. The answer "patient" for the target word *qunowen* was rated as incorrect because it was contextually and

semantically incorrect as the required response was "flexible". After scoring the in-class reading task in this way, the mean, the range, and the standard deviation were calculated.

The success of the six participants in contextual guessing was analyzed by looking at each target word. In the in-class reading task, they did not respond to all of the target words. Therefore, the number of the items responded to was calculated. Then, the frequencies and the percentages were calculated for correct, partially correct, and incorrect answers.

In the next section, the analyses of the data collected through the TAPs and RIs will be discussed. First, the qualitative analyses of the protocols and RIs will be presented in tables by describing and exemplifying the strategy types included in the taxonomy of contextual guessing strategies and the coding of the TAPs and RIs. Then, there will be a brief discussion about the quantitative analyses of the TAPs and RIs.

<u>Analyses of the TAPs and RIs</u>

During the second stage of data analysis, the TAPs ans RIs were analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively. The qualitative analyses of the TAPs and RIs included transcribing, coding, translating the verbal protocols and developing a taxonomy of contextual guessing strategies. Prior to transcribing the recorded TAPs and RIs, the researcher listened to each protocol. Then, the transcriptions were read while the audio-recorded TAPs and RIs were re-listened (see Appendix G for transcription conventions, and Appendices H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O for sample TAPs and RIs). Listening to the recorded TAPs and RIs twice and reading the transcriptions enabled the researcher to obtain an idea of the lexical inferencing

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strategies employed and reported by the participants in this study. To develop a taxonomy of the contextual guessing strategies, the previously developed classifications in different lexical inferencing studies were used as a framework. It was essential to revise the strategy categories included in these taxonomies to fit the data gathered in the present study.

For pre-existing taxonomies, literature on vocabulary learning and contextual guessing strategies was consulted. Haastrup (1987) and Haynes (1993) found that the immediate and global context was used to derive the meaning of an unknown word. Word form analysis was used for dealing with unfamiliar words in the studies conducted by Haastrup (1987), Nassaji (2003), Haynes (1993), and Bengeleil and Paribakth (2004). The knowledge of inflectional and derivational morphemes and word stems were used as a means to find the meaning of a word. The strategies of using the context and the word form analysis are also recommended by Nation and Clarke (1980 as cited in Nation, 2001).

World knowledge was another strategy used in lexical inferencing as found by Haastrup (1987), Nassaji (2003), and Bengeleil and Paribakth (2004). The participants in these studies sometimes relied on what they already knew about the topic discussed to arrive at a guess of the unknown words. Not only knowledge of the world but also the discourse knowledge was used to figure out the meaning of a word in these studies. The participants made use of the relations between or within the sentences, the devices that connect different parts of the text, and their general understanding of the sentences, paragraphs or the whole text to anticipate a word's meaning.

As part of the intralingual and interlingual sources, collocational knowledge and phonological association were found to be used as guessing strategies by Haastrup (1987) and Bengeleil and Paribakth (2004). The participants depended on their knowledge of which words are often used together in their native language or in English. They also attempted to guess the meaning of a target word by associating its sound with another word in L1 or in L2. Similarly, Nassaji (2003) determined in his study that the students employed the strategy of analogy which he described as the attempt to guess the meaning of a word based on the similarity of its sound with other words.

Nassaji (2003) also found that repeating, verifying, monitoring and self-inquiry were strategies used by the participants in his study. The students repeated some portion of the text including the target word, examined the appropriateness of the inferred meaning by checking it against the wider context, showed their awareness of the easiness or difficulty of the guessing task and asked themselves questions about the text, words or the inferred meaning. In the same study it was also found that the students tried to figure out the meaning of a word by finding a similar word in their native language or translating.

Recognizing the part of speech of an unknown word was used as an inferencing strategy in the studies of Haastrup (1987) and Nassaji (2003). The participants used their knowledge of grammatical functions or syntactic categories to anticipate the meaning of an unfamiliar word. In the Bengeleil and Paribakth (2004) study, it was found that the participants occasionally benefited from their knowledge of punctuation rules to gloss the meaning of unknown vocabulary.

The taxonomy of contextual guessing strategies consisted of 16 strategy types which are presented in Table 1 with their definitions. 15 strategy types were adapted from the above pre-existing categories. In addition, one strategy type, translation, was included in the taxonomy based on the data gathered in the present study. In none of the lexical inferencing studies mentioned above was the distinction between the use of L1 for guessing the target word or for decoding the meaning of the text drawn. However, this distinction was recognized as necessary in this research. Therefore, two different strategy types, L1 knowledge and translation, were included in the taxonomy where the former refers to finding similar words in Turkish to anticipate the meaning of the target word and the latter refers to the word-for-word translation of some parts of the passage to understand the meaning conveyed.

Table 1

The Contextual Guessing Strategy Types in the Taxonomy and Their Definitions

| Strategies | Definitions |
|---|---|
| Contextual Clues | Attempting to figure out the meaning of the target word by using a single word or a group of words or a phrase in the immediate or wider context of the target word |
| Part of Speech | Recognizing the part of speech of the target word |
| Interlingual Collocation | Using the Turkish collocation knowledge to guess the target word |
| Intralingual Collocation | Using the English collocation knowledge to guess the target word |
| Intralingual Phononology | Phonological association of the target word with a word in English |
| Punctuation | Using the punctuation rules to guess the target word |
| L1 Knowledge | Trying to guess the meaning of the target word by finding a similar word in Turkish |
| Translation | Translating some parts of the text into Turkish to understand the text and/or to guess the meaning of the target word |
| Section Repeating | Repeating any portion of the sentence with the target word or the sentences preceding or coming after the sentence in which the target word occurred without attempting to guess the target word |
| Word Repeating | Repeating the target word or a word in the context without attempting to guess the target word |
| Verifying | Expressing the appropriateness/inappropriateness of the inferred meaning of the target word and/or checking it against the wider context |
| Monitoring | Showing an awareness of the difficulty or easiness of the guessing task or expressing an idea for knowing/not knowing or remembering/not remembering a word in the text |

| Self-Questioning | Asking oneself questions about the words, text, and the inferred meaning of the target word |
| --- | --- |
| World Knowledge | Using background world knowledge which is beyond what is in the text |
| Discourse Knowledge | Using the knowledge of intra- or inter-sentential relations, and the devices that connect different parts of the text |
| Morphological Knowledge | Using the knowledge of word formation and word structure, including word derivations, inflections, word stems, suffixes, and prefixes |

After the construction of the contextual guessing strategy taxonomy, a coding scheme was developed for the 16 strategy types included in the taxonomy (see Appendix F for the coding scheme). By using the strategy codes the strategies employed by each participant during the TAPs to figure out the meaning of the target words and reported in the RIs were coded during the qualitative analysis of the data. The coding categories were written next to the strategies used or reported during the TAPs and in the RIs on the transcribed protocols. Then, the coded transcriptions of the protocols were reread to make sure that none of the strategies used or reported escaped notice (see Appendices I, K, M, O for sample coded TAPs and RIs).

To give the reader an impression of the strategy types in the taxonomy, some extracts from the TAPs and RIs of different participants are displayed in Table 2. The segments from the reading text are underlined and the segments from the TAPs and RIs are written in lower case letters. A dot indicates a pause for 5or 6 seconds whereas three dots indicate a long pause. As all examples were translated into English, the translated parts are italicized. The researcher's comments are written in parentheses.

Table 2

Example TAP and RI Extracts for Each Strategy in the Taxonomy

| Strategy | TAP | RI |
|---|---|---|
| Contextual Clues | **pracks** *it can be ways it can be clues ways clues* | there are some tecniques that work better than others *ee when I read it below later and saw the word technique here I thought this could also be technique* (for the target word **pracks**) |
| Part of Speech | English language newspaper **chaningly** *an adverb* | *I thought it is a verb because it has the inflectional morpheme s well this I thought it is present simple also there should be a verb here the sentence does not have a verb* (for the target word **mintends**) |
| Interlingual Collocation | **sidelt** *also as it says* the weather *the weather situation* situation | *well in my opinion as there is* everything *I thought what can everything be done when I thought in Turkish I thought as contains includes everything* (for the target word **mintends**) |
| Intralingual Collocation | **glurking** *spend like spend time as it says* **glurking** time | *when I saw the weather I said I did not think of anything else* the weather like *well as it said* the weather *I directly remembered like* (for the target word **sidelt**) |
| Intralingual Phonology | not employed during any of the TAPs | *actually for that a little bit from how it is pronounced well* **bissip** *gossip a little bit similar* |
| Punctuation | *in parentheses* or most **reminent** *it said* | *then there is a hyphen –* the weather **sidelt** or where a cer/ *so it gave an example* |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| L1 Knowledge | <u>if you read the paper</u> *ımm* çok zorlukla *(with a lot of difficulty) re/ read . it actually can be* zorlukla *(with difficulty)* (for the target word **chaningly**) | *you ask me for something well how can I learn in a more easy way well* ipucu *(clue)* (for the target word **pracks**) |
| Translation | <u>these are not newspapers</u> bunlar gazete değil *(these are not newspapers)* (for the target word **bissip)** | *here* <u>one of the best techniques</u> *helped me infer* ıı en iyi tekniklerden birisi *(one of the best techniques)* (for the target word **chaningly**) |
| Section Repeating | <u>you want magic you think I have some secret magic **pracks**</u> . <u>secret</u> *secret* . <u>magic **pracks**</u> | <u>newspaper writing that is full of **bissip** half-truths and too many exclamation marks half-truths too many exclamation marks</u> |
| Word Repeating | <u>newspaper writing that is full of **bissip** half-truths and too many exclamation marks</u> *it can be gossip yes but it can also be* unreal news <u>half-truth</u> | not reported in any of the RIs |
| Self-Questioning | <u>used to **glurk**</u> *can it be arguing* | <u>last you might look for some small piece of information that you need at the moment the weather like</u> *well this only well what are the news* (for the target word **sidelt**) |
| Verifying | <u>begin on page one</u> *begining from one reading other pages .* <u>through the page .</u> <u>other page . **wist** page</u> … yes | *I looked back to the first one* <u>most important news</u> *it said again when I put it in its place here well I thought as the most important stories of the day this is what I thought only when I put it in its place it seemed logical in all three of them* (for the target word **reminent**) |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Monitoring | you think I have some secret magic **pracks** that I am **danding** not letting you have this is not true there are no easy **pracks** . *it appeared there times but still I couldn't infer what it is* | you think I have some secret magic **pracks** that I am **danding** not letting you have ıı . *this word seems difficult to me also now* ıı *I remember that it seemed difficult also at that time* (during the TAP) *well I couldn't really comment* |
| Discourse Knowledge | *let me read the next sentence* for that ee you need a real newspaper such as the Christian Science Monitor ıı *if you need a real newspaper* ımm Christian Science Monitor the International Herald Tribune USA Today The London Times or The Chicago Tribune ımm *here it gave the names of the newspapers if it is a real newspaper then it is not related to the preceding sentence here it was criticizing* | *here I thought it is an example because it is put between quotation marks and connected with* or *if the sentence after* or *is a movie* is *playing the other one is a similar example I thought another example that is in a newspaper* |
| World Knowledge | *let me say title for it . it is title most probably because in the middle of the newspaper there aren't headlines they are only on the first page* you might be surprised *you will be surprised how much* you can learn from just the **predpines** | *I saw the things in quotation marks newspaper titles and well on the first page of the paper generally not the details but the news inside are written titles or headlines are written I directly remembered this when I saw those titles* (for the target word **predpines**) |
| Morphological Knowledge | that I am **danding** not letting you have that I'm knowing *can be having it can be know but it does not take ing* | *the ly at the end of it they are in adverbs generally* carefully for the target word **chaningly**) |

In this study, TAPs and RIs were used as complementary instruments because as Haastrup (1987) suggests, TAPs have certain shortcomings one of which is

incomplete reporting. Thus, it was not expected that all strategies used during the

TAPs would be reported in the RIs. For this reason, the strategies used in the TAPs

and reported in the RIs were compared. When the strategies employed during the

TAPs were also reported in the RIs, a plus (+) was put next to the code and when a

strategy was reported in the RIs even though it was not used during the TAPs, a

minus (-) was put next to the code.

Two samples extracted from the transcribed TAPs and RIs of a successful and

an unsuccessful guesser in Table 3 present the analysis of the TAPs and RIs. The

capitalized bold letters between slashes indicate the strategy codes (see Appendix F

for the coding scheme).

Table 3

Two Samples Presenting the Analyses of the TAPs and RIs

| | TAP | RI |
|---|---|---|
| SA:<br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br>Sample 1 | last you might look for some<br>small piece of information<br>that you need at the moment<br>*last u* **/TR/** look for **/WR/**<br>*look for a small place . you can*<br>*look at a place that you you*<br>*need* **/TR/** the weather **sidelt**<br>or where a certain movie is<br>playing *the weather* **sidelt** *it*<br>*can be weather forecast* **/CC/** …<br>*weather situation* **/L1/** *weather*<br>*forecast weather .* or where a<br>certain movie is playing **/SR/** | *when I saw* weather *directly*<br>*I remembered weather forecast*<br>*I know it is used like that I said*<br>*it* **/IAC/ (-)** *well it is used in*<br>*Turkish as weather stuation*<br>**/IEC/ (-)** *well the things after*<br>*you read this newspaper you*<br>*can look for and find the things*<br>*you want well do you wonder*<br>*about the weather situation or*<br>*where a film is when I saw these*<br>*I remembered and said forecast*<br>**/TR/ (+) /CC/ (+)** |
| UE:<br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br>Sample 2 | however newspaper language<br>is very difficult *it says the*<br>*language of the newspaper is*<br>*quite difficult* **/TR/** it does<br>become more possible *ımm*<br>*think of something more*<br>*possible* **/TR/** if you read the<br>paper **chaningly** *if the*<br>*newspaper* **chaningly /TR/**<br>**/WR/** several times a week<br>because you will . see the same<br>vocabulary over and over *well*<br>*it says you see that your*<br>*vocabulary size constantly*<br>*increases* **/TR/** *then what can*<br>**chaningly** *be ımm* **/WR/ /SQ/**<br>read the paper **chaningly** *can*<br>*it be patience* **/CC/ /L1/ /SQ/** | one of the best technigues I can<br>think of is to read an English<br>language newspaper **chaningly**<br>*ıh I guess in this paragraph*<br>*something happens in time was*<br>*mentioned first you won't*<br>*understand it is difficult then*<br>*you will understand* **/CC/ (+)**<br>**/TR/ (+) /DK/ (-)** *I thought*<br>*it as patience* **/L1/ (+)** *because*<br>*it can endure time* |

Note. SA = successful reader A, UE = unsuccessful reader E

The last step of the qualitative analysis of the data was translating two of the

TAPs and two of the RIs from Turkish into English. The rationale in selecting the

two TAPs and two RIs was to provide the reader with the TAPs and RIs of one successful and one unsuccessful guesser.

Due to confidentiality concerns, during the data analysis, instead of the actual names of the participants pseudonyms were used. After the analysis, the letters A, B, C were used to represent the three successful guessers and D, E, F to represent the three unsuccessful guessers.

For the purpose of achieving intrarater reliability of the data analysis, two transcribed TAPs and RIs were analyzed again by the researcher five days after the first analysis. When the first and second analyses were compared, it was found that there was a high degree of agreement.

In the quantitative analysis stage, the strategies used for guessing word meanings from context during the TAPs and reported in the RIs by the participants were both taken into consideration. The frequencies and percentages of the two sets of data were calculated. The frequencies and percentages for the strategy use of successful and unsuccessful guessers were displayed separately in a table. For determining the success of the six participants in guessing the target words in the TAP reading task, the researcher looked at each target word responded to as was done in the analysis of the in-class reading task. The number of the items responded to was calculated. Then, the frequencies and the percentages were calculated for correct, partially correct, and incorrect answers.

<div align="center">Results</div>

<div align="center">The In-class Reading Task</div>

The guessing scores of 6 out of 32 participants in the in-class reading task are summarized in Table 4 by providing the mean, range, and standard deviation.

Table 4

Guessing Scores of the Participants in the In-class Reading Task (N=6)

| Successful Readers | | | Unsuccessful Readers | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | 23 | 71.8% | D | 8 | 25% | HS= 32 | |
| B | 20 | 62.5% | E | 5 | 15.6% | M = 12.5 | |
| C | 16 | 50% | F | 3 | 9.4% | R = 21 | |
| | | | | | | SD= 7.5 | |

Note. M = mean, R = range, SD = standard deviation, HS= highest possible score

The purpose of administering the in-class reading task was to select three successful and three unsuccessful guessers to participate in the TAPs and RIs. For this reason, Table 4 displays the guessing scores of only the six participants. There were 16 target words to be guessed in the reading task. As a three-point scale (2= C, 1= PC, 0= IC) was used in rating, the possible highest score a student could get in this task was 32. The percentages next to the guessing scores in Table 4 show how much success the participants achieved in the in-class reading task.

The participants A and B were selected as the successful guessers because they got the two highest scores. There were other participants who got better scores than participant C. However, as the verbalization skills of the participants are considered an important criterion to participate in the TAPs, and C was suggested by his teacher as a more talkative and confident learner who is good at expressing himself, he was chosen as the third successful guesser among the others who had higher scores. What is more, C's score was higher than the mean score.

The participants D, E, and F were selected as the unsuccessful guessers since they got lower scores compared with the mean score. The verbalization skills of these three unsuccessful guessers were taken into consideration in addition to their

guessing scores when selecting them. To make sure about the verbalization skills of the unsuccessful guessers, their teacher was consulted.

As the next step, the success of the participants in lexical inferencing was analyzed by looking at the correct, partially correct, and incorrect responses they provided for the target vocabulary. The reason for analyzing the participants' guessing success was to compare and contrast the success of the participants in deriving word meanings in two different reading tasks, the in-class and TAP reading tasks. By comparing and contrasting the results, it was intended to understand whether the use of contextual guessing strategies resulted in successful inferencing and if so to what extent. In addition, it is possible that the strategy use and guessing success of the participants might have been affected with the type of texts used in the reading tasks and/or the types of target words in question. Thus, analyzing the success in different tasks might provide insights on this issue.

The lexical inferencing success of the three successful and three unsuccessful guessers with reference to their correct, partially correct, and incorrect responses with frequencies and percentages is presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Guessing Success of the 6 Participants in the In-class Reading Task

|   | Scores | Correct | | Partially Correct | | Incorrect | | Total | |
|---|--------|---------|------|-------------------|------|-----------|-------|-------|-------|
| A | 23 | 10 | 13 % | 3 | 3.9% | 3 | 3.9% | 16 | 20.8% |
| B | 20 | 9 | 11.7% | 2 | 2.6% | 5 | 6.5% | 16 | 20.8% |
| C | 16 | 7 | 9% | 2 | 2.6% | 5 | 6.5% | 14 | 18.1% |
| D | 8 | 4 | 5.2% | 0 | 0% | 6 | 7.8% | 10 | 13% |
| E | 5 | 1 | 1.3% | 3 | 3.9% | 8 | 10.3% | 12 | 15.6% |
| F | 3 | 0 | 0% | 3 | 3.9% | 6 | 7.8% | 9 | 11.7% |
| Total | | 31 | 40.3% | 13 | 16.9% | 33 | 42.8% | 77 | 100% |

There were 16 target words to be guessed in the reading task. Correct responses were given 2 points, partially correct responses were given 1 point. Thus, the possible highest score in this task was 32. The frequencies and the percentages were calculated for correct, partially correct, and incorrect responses to learn about the success of the six participants in contextual guessing. By omitting the target items which were not responded to, 77 was found as the total number of the responded items. Of the total 77 responses, 31 (40.3%) were correct, 13 (16.9%) were partially correct, and 33 (42.8%) were incorrect. The percentage of incorrect responses demonstrate that less than half of the time the participants arrived at wrong guesses and the percentage of the correct responses indicates that again less than half of the time the participants' efforts to guess a target word proved useful. The percentages of the correct and incorrect responses are close to each other whereas the percentage of the partially correct responses is low compared to them, which shows

that the participants guessed the meaning of the target words either completely successfully or unsuccessfully. It can be concluded that the participants in this study need to be trained at using strategies to check the inferred meanings of the target vocabulary and to make sure that their guess is a contextually, semantically, and syntactically correct one.

In the following section, the results of the TAPs and RIs will be discussed in detail with reference to the strategies employed in the TAPs and reported in the RIs to guess the meaning of the target vocabulary through context.

<u>Think-Aloud Protocols and Retrospective Interviews</u>

Table 6 displays the contextual guessing strategy use of the participants with frequencies and percentages. The strategy use of the successful and unsuccessful guessers is reported separately.

Table 6

Contextual Guessing Strategy Use of the Participants during the TAPs and RIs

| Strategy | Successful Readers | | Unsuccessful Readers | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | F | P | F | P | F | P |
| Contextual Clues | 123 | 7.3% | 144 | 8.6% | 267 | 15.9% |
| Part of Speech | 8 | 0.4% | 10 | 0.6% | 18 | 1% |
| Interlingual Collocation | 4 | 0.2% | 1 | 0% | 5 | 0.2% |
| Intralingual Collocation | 5 | 0.3% | 1 | 0% | 6 | 0.3% |
| Intralingual Phonology | 2 | 0.1% | 0 | 0% | 2 | 0.1% |
| Punctuation | 2 | 0.1% | 14 | 0.8% | 16 | 0.9% |
| L1 Knowledge | 89 | 5.3% | 165 | 9.8% | 254 | 15.2% |
| Translation | 82 | 4.9% | 389 | 23.3% | 471 | 28.2% |
| Section Repeating | 75 | 4.4% | 172 | 10.3% | 247 | 14.7% |
| Word Repeating | 12 | 0.7% | 71 | 4.2% | 83 | 4.9% |
| Self-Questioning | 15 | 0.8% | 93 | 5.5% | 108 | 6.4% |
| Verifying | 30 | 1.8% | 43 | 2.5% | 73 | 4.3% |
| Monitoring | 14 | 0.8% | 42 | 2.5% | 56 | 3.3% |
| Discourse Knowledge | 8 | 0.4% | 22 | 1.3% | 30 | 1.7% |
| World Knowledge | 12 | 0.7% | 17 | 1% | 29 | 1.7% |
| Morphological Knowledge | 2 | 0.1% | 2 | 0.1% | 4 | 0.2% |
| Total Strategy Use | 483 | 28.9% | 1186 | 71% | 1669 | 100% |

Note. F = frequency, P = percentage

The results indicate that translation (28.2%) and intralingual phonology (0.1%) were respectively the most and least frequently used strategies when the participants tried to infer the meanings of the target vocabulary. Contextual clues (15.9%), L1 knowledge (15.2%), and section repeating (14.7%) were employed almost at the same percentages, being among the most frequently used strategies. The order of the next most frequently used strategies was self-questioning (6.4%), word repeating (4.9%), verifying (4.3%), monitoring (3.3%), discourse knowledge (1.7%), and world knowledge (1.7%). The least frequently used strategies were found to be part of speech (1%), punctuation (0.9%), intralingual collocation (0.3%), interlingual collocation (0.2%), and morphological knowledge (0.2%).

All strategy types in the taxonomy except for one, intralingual phonology, which was employed only by the successful guessers, were used by both successful and unsuccessful guessers. However, results showed variation in the frequencies and percentages of the strategy use of both groups and their preferences in strategy types. When the strategy use of successful (28.9%) and unsuccessful (71%) guessers was compared, it was evident that the unsuccessful group employed contextual guessing strategies more frequently, which is surprising. This result is an indicator that the strategy use does not correspond with the guessing ability of the participants. The frequency of the overall strategy use of the successful guessers as well as in each single category, excluding the interlingual, intralingual collocations and intralingual phonology, was lower than the unsuccessful group. However, as evidenced by the guessing scores and success of the participants in both the in-class and TAP reading tasks (see Table 5, Table 7, Table 8), the successful guessers used strategies in a more useful way, resulting in more correct guessing. Therefore, it can be concluded

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that even though the unsuccessful guessers employed strategies more frequently to guess the unknown vocabulary, their strategy use was not as effective as the successful group in arriving at correct guesses. By giving training, however, unsuccessful guessers could be made aware of the fact that using numerous strategies may not lead to successful guessing if they are not used effectively.

The successful group mostly made use of the contextual clues (7.3%) whereas the unsuccessful group benefited from translation (23.3) most. The successful group also relied very much on their L1 knowledge (5.3%), translation (4.9%), and section repeating (4.4%) at almost the same percentages. The unsuccessful group frequently used section repeating (10.3%), L1 knowledge (9.8%), and contextual clues (8.6%). The least frequently used strategies by both groups were discourse, world, and morphological knowledge, part of speech, intralingual and interlingual collocation, and punctuation.

The strategy types both successful and unsuccessful guessers use almost at the same percentages were contextual clues (7.3%-8.6%), part of speech (0.4%-0.6%), verifying (1.8%-2.5%), world knowledge (0.7%-1%), and morphological knowledge (0.1%-0.1%). There was variation in how frequently L1 knowledge (5.3%-9.8%), translation (4.9%-23.3%), section repeating (4.4%-10.3%), word repeating (0.7%-4.2%), self-questioning (0.8%-5.5%), monitoring (0.8%-2.5%), and discourse knowledge (0.4%-1.3%) were used by two different groups. Interlingual and intralingual collocation were used just once by the unsuccessful guessers. The successful ones also used interlingual (0.2%) and intralingual collocation (0.3%) very rarely.

As can be understood from Table 6, in this present study, to anticipate the meanings of target vocabulary, the participants occasionally made use of the context (contextual clues, section repeating, word repeating, verifying, self-questioning, and discourse knowledge) and their native language (translation, L1 knowledge). On the other hand, the word-level clues such as the phonology, morphology of the target words and the knowledge of collocations, sentence-level clues including part of speech and punctuation, and the knowledge of the world were not used as much as the context or the knowledge of the native language.

In the last section, the guessing scores and the success of the participants in the TAP reading task will be reported and compared with the guessing scores and success of them in the in-class reading task.

<center>The TAP Reading Task</center>

There were 14 target words to be guessed in the TAP reading task. As a three-point scale (2= C, 1= PC, 0= IC) was used in rating as was done in the in-class reading task, the possible highest score a student could get in this task was 28.

As mentioned before, the purpose of having a closer look at the participants' guessing success was to compare the success of the two groups of guessers in deriving word meanings in two different reading tasks, the in-class and TAP reading tasks. By comparing the results, the researcher hoped to learn whether the use of contextual guessing strategies resulted in successful inferencing, and if so to what extent. The researcher also hoped to find out if the text type or the type of the unfamiliar lexical items have an influence on the strategy use and guessing success of the participants. Table 7 presents the guessing scores of the participants in the in-class and TAP reading tasks.

Table 7

Guessing Scores of the Participants in the In-class (IC) & TAP Reading Tasks

|  | A | B | C | D | E | F |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| IC Reading Task (N=6) | 23 71.8% | 20 62.5% | 16 50% | 8 25% | 5 15.6% | 3 9.4% | HS= 32 M= 12.5 R= 21 SD= 7.5 |
| TAP Reading Task (N=6) | 16 57.1% | 18 64.3% | 20 71.4% | 14 50% | 10 35.7% | 14 50% | HS= 28 M= 15.3 R= 11 SD= 3.1 |

Note. M = mean, R = range, SD = standard deviation, HS = highest possible score

Compared with the guessing scores of the participants in the in-class reading task, the scores of those in the TAP reading task were surprising. Participant A, who had the highest score in the first reading task, had the lowest score (16 – 57.1%) among the successful guessers in the TAP task. Participant C, on the other hand, had the highest score (20 – 71.4%) in the TAP task and showed great progress. Participant B's success (18 – 64.3%) remained almost the same, and the participant achieved very close scores in both of the tasks.

Before the TAPs were conducted with participant A, she asked if it was possible for her to read the passage silently. She was informed that the nature of the TAPs required reading and thinking aloud. She then read the text loudly while verbalizing her thoughts and did not report any difficulty with reading aloud. However, her getting a lower score in the TAP task than the first in-class reading task could be attributed to the fact that she was not used to reading aloud when

inferring the meanings of unknown words. It might have had a negative effect on her thought processes.

All of the three unsuccessful guessers were more successful in the TAP reading task. Participant D and E, whose scores were 14 (50%) and 10 (35.7%) respectively, were twice as successful as they were in the first reading task. Participant F had the most surprising result (14 – 50%), scoring five times better in the TAP task.

The contextual guessing success of the successful and unsuccessful guessers in the TAP task with reference to the correct, partially correct, and incorrect responses is presented with frequencies and percentages in Table 8.

Table 8

Guessing Success of the 6 Participants in the TAP Reading Task

|   | Scores | Correct | | Partially Correct | | Incorrect | | Total | |
|---|--------|----|------|---|------|---|-------|----|-------|
| A | 16 | 8 | 10.3% | 0 | 0% | 6 | 7.8% | 14 | 18.1% |
| B | 18 | 8 | 10.3% | 2 | 2.6% | 3 | 3.9% | 13 | 16.8% |
| C | 20 | 9 | 11.7% | 2 | 2.6% | 1 | 1.3% | 12 | 15.6% |
| D | 14 | 7 | 9% | 0 | 0% | 5 | 6.5% | 12 | 15.6% |
| E | 10 | 5 | 6.5% | 0 | 0% | 8 | 10.3% | 13 | 16.8% |
| F | 14 | 7 | 9% | 0 | 0% | 6 | 7.8% | 13 | 16.8% |
| Total | | 44 | 57.1% | 4 | 5.1% | 29 | 37.6% | 77 | 100% |

Of the total 77 inferences, 44 (57.1%) were correct, 4 (5.1%) were partially correct, and 29 (37.6%) were incorrect. The percentage of correct responses demonstrates that more than half of the time the participants' attempts to guess the target words were successful. When the success of the participants in the TAP task and the in-class task (see Table 5) were compared, it was seen that the participants were more successful in the TAP task. In this task, the percentage of the partially correct answers decreased dramatically as a result of the increase of the percentages of the correct answers.

Before the in-class and TAP reading tasks were implemented, the participants had been given instructions to underline the words that were unfamiliar to them in the reading texts other than the target vocabulary. This was done to see if the context clues were unavailable to the participants because they did not know enough words in the surrounding context. The words they did not know were not too many in

number in any of the texts. However, it was seen that the unknown words were fewer in the TAP task, which might explain the higher scores and success of the participants in this task.

Another conclusion that can be drawn from the results might be the positive effect of the content of the text used in the TAP task. The in-class reading task, as the name "Changing Career Trends" suggests, was about job opportunities, job security, job-hopping and so on. Since the participants were all first year university students, they had little, if any, work experience, which might have decreased the participants' interest, impeded their understanding of the subject and making it difficult to guess the target vocabulary. On the other hand, the TAP reading task "How to Read a Newspaper", as the title suggests, was about reading a newspaper in English as a means of improving the language. This was a topic that was familiar to all of the participants, since they knew about newspapers and they were all learning English. Having previous knowledge of the topic might have positively affected the guessing ability of the participants.

To conclude, in this research study the results demonstrated that the reading proficiency level of the participants did not influence the use of strategy types significantly but how frequently the strategies were employed. It was evident that the context and the knowledge of the native language helped the participants guess the meanings of the target vocabulary. In addition, the guessing success of the participants changed from the in-class reading task to the TAP reading task. All of the participants, except for one successful guesser, performed better and got higher scores in the TAP reading task.

Conclusion

This chapter reported the results of data gathered through an in-class reading task, TAPs and RIs. The discussion of the findings in the light of the research questions asked in the present study, their implications, and the limitations of the study will be presented in the next chapter.

# CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION


## Summary of the Study

This study investigated the strategies used by pre-intermediate students at Hacettepe University, Department of Basic English (DBE) when they tried to guess the meanings of unknown vocabulary encountered in reading texts. Another purpose of this interventional study was to identify the different strategies used in lexical inferencing by successful and unsuccessful guessers. The data collection devices used for investigating the contextual guessing strategies were an in-class reading task, think-aloud protocols (TAPs) and retrospective interviews (RIs).

The in-class reading task, in which the students were asked to anticipate the unknown word meanings, was administered to a pre-intermediate class of 32 students. The results of this reading task were used to identify three successful and three unsuccessful guessers who would participate in the TAPs and RIs. The purpose of conducting TAPs was to collect data on the strategy use of the six participants during the actual contextual guessing process. As the last step, the RIs were held with the six participants, who were asked questions about the strategies they used in the TAP reading task and the unintelligible sequences in the audio-recorded TAPs. These three different data collection devices were used to triangulate the data obtained in order to produce more reliable results.

In analyzing the data, both qualitative and quantitative techniques were employed. In the in-class reading task, the participants' responses to the target lexical items were rated using a three-point scale (Correct= 2, Partially Correct= 1,

Incorrect= 0). Then their guessing scores were used in identifying three successful and three unsuccessful guessers. Also, the guessing success of the participants was analyzed by calculating the frequencies and percentages for correct, partially correct, and incorrect responses. The TAPs and RIs were recorded, transcribed, translated, and coded. The coding was done according to a contextual guessing strategies taxonomy which was developed by the researcher on the basis of pre-existing categories in the literature and the data obtained from the present study. After the coding, samples from the TAPs and RIs were matched with the strategy types. In analyzing the TAPs and RIs quantitatively, frequencies and percentages were computed for the strategies employed during the TAPs and reported in the RIs. The success of the participants in inferring word meanings was analyzed by counting the correct, partially correct, and incorrect responses and calculating the frequencies and percentages. The success of the participants in the in-class and TAP reading tasks were compared. All the results obtained in this interventional study were displayed in tables. The next section reviews and discusses the findings of this study relating them to the research questions.

## Discussion of the Findings

In investigating the contextual guessing strategy use of the pre-intermediate level students at Hacettepe University DBE, three research questions were asked. In response to the first question, which is "What strategies do the pre-intermediate level students at Hacettepe University, Department of Basic English report that they use when they encounter unknown vocabulary in context?" it was found that in general, the pre-intermediate students report that they employ various strategies to deal with the unknown words in reading texts. Along with the TAPs, the RIs provided

profitable data on the strategy use of the participants in lexical inferencing. All participants, during the TAPs and RIs, employed and reported the following strategy types that help them infer the meanings of unknown lexical items:

- Translation (28.2%)

- Contextual Clues (15.9%)

- L1 Knowledge (15.2%)

- Section Repeating (14.7%)

- Self-Questioning (6.4%)

- Word Repeating (4.9%)

- Verifying (4.3%)

- Monitoring (3.3%)

- Discourse Knowledge (1.7%)

- World Knowledge (1.7%)

- Part of Speech (1%)

- Punctuation (0.9%)

- Intralingual Collocation (0.3%)

- Interlingual Collocation (0.2%)

- Morphological Knowledge (0.2%)

- Intralingual Phonology (0.1%)

In response to the second research question, which is "What is the role of context in helping students to deal with unknown vocabulary?" the findings of the present study indicate that the participants highly favor using context along with the knowledge of the native language as an aid to anticipate the meanings of unfamiliar words. Instead of relying heavily on word-level (interlingual collocation, intralingual

collocation, intralingual phonology, morphological knowledge) or sentence-level (part of speech, punctuation) clues and the world knowledge, the participants used the context as an important source for glossing word meanings. They used both the immediate and wider context by repeating words or sections in the text; asking themselves questions about the text, the words and the inferred meaning; using their knowledge of the relations within or between the sentences and the devices that connect different parts of the text; and trying to verify the appropriateness of the inferred meaning by checking it against the wider context. This finding is consistent with what Nassaji (2003) found about the usefulness of context by using repeating, verifying, and self-inquiry as strategies. The frequent use of repeating, especially section repeating, to benefit from context is not surprising. As Nassaji (2003) asserts, repetition helps to comprehend the content and reflect on it. Besides, by repeating the phrase or the sentence with the target lexical item, the learners may recognize the clues available in the context. Nassaji (2003) also emphasizes the significant role of employing the strategies of self-inquiry and verification in using the context as an aid. As he suggests, by using these strategies, learners activate their thought processes, become aware of the problems and try to find solutions to them, examine the appropriateness of their guesses, and when they feel that the inferred meaning is not accurate, they revise it according to the information found in the global context. The frequent use of contextual clues and the knowledge of the mother tongue by the participants in the present study is also in line with the findings of Kanatlar's (1995) study. Kanatlar (1995) found that contextual clues and translation are the most commonly used strategies in lexical inferencing regardless of the proficiency level of the learners.

The finding of the present study that the participants mostly depended on contextual rather than word-level or sentence-level clues contradicts the findings of the studies conducted by Arden-Close (1993), Haynes (1993), Parry (1993), and Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004). In Arden-Close (1993) and Haynes' (1993) studies, the use of word-level clues such as analyzing the target word according to its parts by looking at the morphological derivations was more common. However, too much dependence on word-form analysis in these studies misled the participants and resulted in inaccurate guesses. Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004) found that the most frequently used clues were sentence and target word level clues. Similarly, in Parry's (1993) study, the participants almost all the time were able to understand the grammatical function or the syntactic category of the target words; however, this did not help them infer the meaning of the words successfully, which is also supported by Nassaji (2003). In his study, the grammatical knowledge was not used very often, but when used, it did not help successful inferencing. It can be concluded that, as Nation and Coady (1988) and Haynes (1993) suggest, using only the word form analysis for guessing word meanings is not very reliable and often results in the learners' interpretation of the context according to their inaccurate inferences. Therefore, as put forward by numerous researchers (e.g. Nation, 2001; Nation & Coady, 1988; Arden-Close, 1993; Huckin & Bloch, 1993; Haynes, 1993; Dubin & Olshtain, 1993) the best way to use the word form as a means of guessing is after considering the context. It is even better to use morpheme analysis to check the guesses rather than using it as a clue for guessing.

As an answer to the third research question, which is "What is the difference between the strategies that the successful and unsuccessful guessers report they use

to cope with unknown vocabulary in reading texts?" it was found that the strategies used by the successful guessers in contextual guessing are not different from the ones employed by the unsuccessful guessers; however, how frequently and effectively the strategies are used varies.

Among the 16 strategy types in the taxonomy developed in this study, the unsuccessful guessers employed 15, excluding the intralingual phonology. The successful guessers, on the other hand, used all of the strategies in the taxonomy. The finding of the present study that the unsuccessful learners used almost the same number of strategies is contradictory to the results of Arden-Close's (1993) study. The participants in his study, who were identified as strong learners, used a wider range of strategies than the ones identified as weak learners, who lacked strategies.

When the frequency of the strategy use was taken into consideration, it was seen that the unsuccessful group used contextual guessing strategies at a higher percentage. This finding is consistent with the findings of Kanatlar (1995) and Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004). Kanatlar's (1995) beginner-level participants used strategies for guessing more often than the upper-intermediate level ones even if both groups employed almost the same number of strategies. Similarly, Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004) found that both the intermediate and advanced level learners benefited from not only single but also multiple knowledge sources in lexical inferencing, but the intermediate group employed multiple sources more frequently.

Unsuccessful guessers' more frequent use of contextual guessing strategies can be attributed to two reasons. First, it can be explained by the limited vocabulary size of the unsuccessful guessers. As Sternberg (1987), Haynes (1993), Laufer (1997), and Nation (2001) put forward high density of unknown vocabulary affects

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guessing meaning from context. In the present study, the unsuccessful guessers reported more unknown words in the surrounding context of the target vocabulary than the successful ones did. It was observed that, because of the high density of unfamiliar words other than the target items, they attempted to understand each single word in the text as was done by the beginner level participants in Kanatlar's (1995) study. Therefore, they used strategies not only for guessing the target words but also for understanding the vocabulary in the surrounding context, which increased the frequency of their strategy use. Second, the unsuccessful guessers attempted to make sure that they inferred the meaning of the unknown words correctly by reading some sentences, paragraphs, or even the whole text again. These re-readings, obviously, increased the percentage of their strategy use.

Although the successful guessers in this study used contextual guessing strategies less frequently than the unsuccessful ones, they arrived at more correct guesses, which provides evidence that the successful guessers used strategies more effectively. This finding is parallel to that of Vann and Abraham (1990), who state that unsuccessful learners are as active as successful ones in using strategies and employ many of the same strategies, but that they are not as successful in using them appropriately. This finding is also supported by Nassaji (2004) whose lexically skilled and lexically less skilled readers differed in terms of using the guessing strategies effectively. In his study 68.6% of the correct responses to the target words were given by the lexically skilled readers, but only 31.4% were given by lexically less skilled readers. Likewise, in the study conducted by Soria (2001) the high-level learners made a higher number of successful guesses than the low-level learners.

In the present study, as mentioned before, the participants mostly benefited from the knowledge of their native language in deriving word meanings along with the contextual clues. They translated some words, sentences, or the whole text into Turkish to decode the meaning of the passage or tried to guess the meaning of a target word by finding a similar word in Turkish. It is suggested in the literature that the findings of the studies concerning learning strategies might be affected by the use of L1 in the thinking-aloud process (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Therefore, the excessive use of L1 in this study might have resulted from the fact that the participants did the TAPs in their mother tongue.

When the success of the participants in contextual guessing was analyzed, it was evident that the successful guessers gave more correct responses to the target vocabulary in both the in-class and TAP reading tasks. This, as mentioned before, could be because of their efficacy in using the strategies. In addition, when the success of the participants in the two different tasks was compared, it was understood that, except for one successful guesser, all the participants were better at guessing in the TAP reading task. This could be explained by the nature of the texts and the target vocabulary, high density of the unknown words which affects the understanding of the possible available information in the surrounding context, the effect of thinking-aloud, and the number of times the same unknown word appeared in the texts. First, the nature of the target vocabulary and the text are among many factors that have an influence on the guessing success (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999; Parry, 1993 as cited in Nassaji, 2004). In the in-class reading task, the participants dealt with a reading passage which was about jobs. This topic might not have attracted them, as they were in their first year at the university and had no work

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experience. However, the text used in the TAPs was about reading newspapers to improve the knowledge of English. Since all the participants were learning English, they might have found this topic more interesting and understandable. Second, as suggested in the literature, understanding most of the words in a text and the text as a whole is directly related with successful guessing (Hirsh & Nation, 1992; Laufer, 1988; Liu & Nation, 1985 as cited in Nassaji, 2004). If the density of unknown vocabulary is high, it becomes difficult to recognize the available clues in the surrounding context (Sternberg, 1987; Laufer, 1997). In the in-class reading task, the participants reported more unfamiliar words than they reported in the TAP task. Higher density of unknown vocabulary in the in-class reading task might have affected their understanding of the text and the available clues, which resulted in more inaccurate guesses. Third, thinking-aloud might have had a positive effect on the process of lexical inferencing. The participants were asked to read the text silently and write their responses in the space provided in the in-class reading task. In the TAPs, on the other hand, they were asked to verbalize their thoughts while they were dealing with the target vocabulary. Thinking-aloud might have activated their thoughts which they were not aware of. This consciousness raising effect of the TAPs might have resulted in more successful inferencing. Finally, Sternberg (1987) proposes that if an unfamiliar word occurs more than once, it will be more probable to anticipate its meaning because the number of the available clues will increase. In the TAP reading task some of the target words appeared more than once throughout the text. By seeing the same word again and again, the guessers had the opportunity to benefit from more contextual clues in glossing word meanings as well as the chance to check the inferred meaning in different contexts.

Pedagogical Implications

Although the generalizability of the findings of this study can be questioned due to the limited number of participants, it is possible to draw some pedagogical implications. As it was found that both successful and unsuccessful guessers are active users of strategies but differ in how appropriately they use the strategies, EFL students might be trained in using the contextual guessing strategies more effectively. To accomplish this, learning vocabulary from context and making effective use of the contextual guessing strategies could directly and systematically be emphasized in reading and vocabulary instruction from the first day of L2 learning (Nassaji, 2004).

Guessing vocabulary from context is an important sub-skill of reading (Nation, 2001) which helps readers continue reading and constructing the meaning of the text as a whole, without stopping to look up words in the dictionary (Eskey, 2002). However, a good reading pedagogy suggests teaching learners not only how to guess the meaning of unknown vocabulary through context, but also to verify the inferred meaning by consulting an authority, such as a dictionary. As advocated in the literature, a belief that the meaning of all unknown words can be inferred from context is wrong and may lead learners to apply "a wild-guessing behaviour rather than a critical inferring behaviour" (Hulstijn, 1993, p. 142). Moreover, even though successful guessing can serve for immediate comprehension of a reading text, it does not necessarily lead to retention of the new word (Nation & Coady, 1988; Read, 2000). By consulting the dictionary, as Hulstijn (1993) asserts, learners will end up the lexical inferencing procedure with the necessary final step, which is checking the correctness of their inference when they are in doubt. In addition, if readers look up

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the unfamiliar lexical items in a dictionary to verify their self-generated meaning (Hulstijn, 1993), it would be more likely for them to acquire the meaning of these words. Thus, learners should be taught to use their dictionaries for learning the meaning of a word they do not know, after they try to understand it from context (Grellet, 1981) and fail to do it, and as a way of checking the inferred meaning (Nation,2001).

Another implication is about the use of TAPs in the classrooms. All the participants in this study had positive attitudes towards verbalizing their thoughts while engaged in the lexical inferencing process. They reported that they found thinking-aloud very useful and enjoyable. Therefore, TAPs can be suggested as a technique for practicing guessing from context and improving the reading ability. However, it may not be practical to use it in the classroom for two reasons. First, while thinking-aloud, silence is important. Also, learners should individually be observed by the teachers. Thus, to eliminate the impracticality of the monologic TAPs, dialogic TAPs, where the learners think-aloud in pairs, can be integrated into the reading and vocabulary instruction as a pair-work activity. In pairing the students, it might be a good idea to put successful and unsuccessful guessers together so that the unsuccessful ones benefit from the way their peers use the strategies in guessing. Making dialogic TAPs a part of the reading instruction can help learners monitor their own learning and take responsibility to assist peers in learning.

A further implication is about the use of L2 by teachers as well as the students in EFL classrooms. The findings of the present study pointed to the excessive use of L1 in word guessing. Translation and L1 knowledge were among the most frequently used strategies. Most of the time, use of these strategies resulted in successful

guessing, which also helped good comprehension of the text. However, in reading and vocabulary instruction, FL learners are not only expected to understand what is being conveyed to them in a written text, but also to be able to produce the target language by using what they have learnt. Therefore, in reading lessons, if teachers reduce their use of L1 in teaching and encourage their students to use L2 as the classroom language, students may feel themselves more comfortable and confident in producing the target language, which is the ultimate goal of language teaching. Students who are accustomed to using the target language all the time may find it easier to come up with L2 synonyms for the unknown words when they try to guess their meanings. Also, after guessing the meanings of new lexical items, if students try to use them in the classroom or in their daily conversations, not only will they broaden their vocabulary size by acquiring the new words but also they will improve their language skills.

The last implication is related to training the teachers who are not familiar with the concept of explicit teaching of the contextual guessing strategies. As language teachers are at the same time good language learners, they must be aware of the usefulness of guessing word meanings from context in reading texts. However, they might not know how to teach it. Thus, explicit instructions and guidelines on how to teach certain contextual guessing strategies can be given along with the reading texts that are used in the classroom. Moreover, teacher training sessions could be conducted to inform the teachers about how to teach different strategies and encourage the students believe in the importance and usefulness of those strategies.

Limitations

This study was limited to one class of pre-intermediate students at Hacettepe University, Department of Basic English. Only six students participated in the TAPs and RIs. Therefore, findings cannot be generalized. More than six participants could have been chosen also from other pre-intermediate level classes.

Another limitation concerns the use of TAPs as a device for obtaining data. Thinking-aloud while doing something is a challenging task, so the participants might not have reported their thoughts effectively. Also, since TAPs have a consciousness raising effect, the participants may have reported strategies that they normally do not employ in guessing word meanings. A further limitation is about the use of the native language during the TAPs. The participants were given the chance to think-aloud either in English or in Turkish, but they all preferred to verbalize their thoughts in Turkish. The results indicated that translation is the most frequently used strategy along with the contextual clues. It was not easy to understand whether they always use L1 knowledge and translation to understand the text and the possible available clues or they did it only in this study because of doing the TAPs in their mother tongue.

To investigate the strategy use of the participants, only one reading text with 14 target words was used during the TAPs. As the nature of the text and the target vocabulary have an important influence on the lexical inferencing process, more than one text about different topics and from different genres with more target words could have been used. In addition, in the present study, made-up words were used to make sure that the participants had no prior knowledge of the words to be guessed. If actual English words had been used, the results might have been different. For

example, the frequency of certain strategies such as intralingual collocation or the intralingual phonology which were used at very low percentages might have been higher.

## Implications for Further Research

The present study investigated the strategies already used by the learners to cope with unknown vocabulary encountered in reading texts. Explicit strategy instruction on contextual guessing was not included in the research design. A further study can deal with strategy training in lexical inferencing. The effects of explicit strategy instruction on the use of strategies and the inferencing process may be investigated.

The participants of this study, who were identified as successful and unsuccessful guessers, were all pre-intermediate level students. A possibility for future research could be to investigate the strategy use of students with different levels of language proficiency.

## Conclusion

This interventional study investigated the strategy use of learners in inferring word meanings from context in reading texts. Another purpose of the study was to differentiate between the strategies used by the successful and unsuccessful guessers. The findings revealed that learners make use of various contextual guessing strategies when they come across an unfamiliar word. Another conclusion was that the reading proficiency levels of the participants do not significantly affect the use of strategy types but the frequency and efficacy. It was also evident that context plays an important role in guessing word meanings.

In the study, the guessing success of the participants in the TAP reading task illustrated that the use of lexical inferencing strategies promotes accurate guessing. If explicit strategy training on contextual guessing is included in the reading and vocabulary instruction, L2 learners will probably be more successful in guessing the meanings of the unfamiliar words they come across in reading passages, which will also enhance reading comprehension. Obviously, to be able to include lexical inferencing strategy training in the reading curriculum, teachers should be made aware of the significance of these strategies. By conducting workshops or teacher training sessions, teachers could be informed about how to teach certain strategies to help learners guess vocabulary through context and the importance of developing strategic readers.

It is hoped the findings of the present study and the pedagogical implications discussed in this last chapter may show future researchers and teachers a path to follow.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

THE IN-CLASS READING TASK

PART A: Read the text below and try to guess the meanings of the words in bold. In Part B, write a synonym for the words.

## Changing Career Trends

A hundred years ago in most of the world, people didn't have much (1) **sinate** about the work that they would do. If their parents were farmers, they became farmers. The society and tradition (2) **wanhared** their profession. Twenty years ago in many countries, people could choose their livelihood. They also had the certainty of a job for life, but they usually couldn't choose to change from one employer to another or from one profession to another. Today, this is not always the case. Career counselors tell us that the world of work is already changing fast and will change dramatically in the next 25 years.

## Job Security

Increasingly, people need to be prepared to change jobs several times in their lifetime. The situation (3) **yates** from country to country, but in general there is less job security worldwide. In Europe, the unemployment rate is ten percent, and many people have to accept part-time jobs while they wait to find fulltime employment. The United States has the fastest-changing job market. In 1994, six million

Americans (4) **cest** their jobs to take a different post. In 1999, the number rose to seventeen million. Even in Japan, where people traditionally had a very secure job for life, there is now no promise of a lifetime job with the same company.

<div align="center">The Effect of Insecurity</div>

On the surface, it may seem that lack of job security is something undesirable. Indeed, pessimists point out that it is certainly a cause of stress. Many people find an identity -- a sense of self -- through their work. When they lose their job (or are afraid of losing it), they also lose their (5) **vesk-janince**, or belief in their own ability. This causes worry and depression. In Japan, for example, the daily newspaper Asahi reports a sudden rise in the number of businessmen who need psychological help for their clinical depression. However, this decrease in job security may not necessarily be something bad. It is true that these days, workers must be more (6) **qunowen -**-able to change to fit new situations. But optimists claim that *qunowen* people are essentially happier, more creative, and more energetic than people who are rigid.

<div align="center">Job Hopping</div>

Jumping from job to job (or "job hopping") has always been more common in some professions such as building construction and not very common in other professions such as medicine and teaching. Today, job hopping is increasingly common in many fields because of globalization, technology, and a movement from manufacturing to services in developed countries. For example, people with factory jobs in (7) **dapolial** nations lose their jobs when factories move to countries where the pay is lower. The workers then need to (8) **begivare** their skills to find a new job. This is stressful, but the new job is usually better than the old one. Because

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technology changes fast, workers need continuing education if they want to keep up with the field. Clearly, technology provides both challenge and opportunity.

## Telecommuting

In many ways, technology is changing the way people work. There are advantages and disadvantages to this. In some professions, for instance, telecommuting is now possible. People can work at home for some -- or all -- of the week and communicate by computer, telephone, and fax. An advantage of this is that it saves them from the stress of commuting to the workplace. It also allows them to plan their own time. On the other hand, it is difficult for some people to (9) **ohenis** on work when they are at home. The refrigerator, TV, and their children often (10) **tilikess** them. Telecommuters must have enormous discipline and organizational skills. Technology is changing the way -- in the use of cell phones, beepers, and pagers. There is an advantage: customers and clients have access to business people at any time, anywhere. However, there is also a (11) **whistinkesh**: many businesspeople don't want to be (12) **amihable** day and night. They prefer to have a break from their work life.

## Workaholism

In the new millennium, as in the 1990s, workaholism will continue to be a fact of life for many workers. Workaholics are as (13) **thalleted** to their work as other people are to drugs or alcohol. This sounds like a problem, but it isn't always. Some people overwork but don't enjoy their work. They don't have time for their family, friends, or (14) **bogusare hesarices** such as hobbies, sports, and movies. These people become tired, angry, and depressed. The tension and stress often cause physical (15) **ummugans** such as headaches and stomach ulcers. However, other

people love their work and receive great (16) **meracism** from it. These people appear
to be overworking but are actually very happy. Psychologists tell us that the most
successful people in the changing world of work are *qunowen*, creative, disciplined,
and passionate about their work. But they are also people who make time for relaxing
activities and for other people. They enjoy their work and enjoy time away from it,
too.

PART B: Write a synonym for the following words:

1- sinate:

2- wanhered:

3- yates:

4- cest:

5- vesk-janince:

6- qunowen:

7- dapolial:

8- begivare:

9- ohenis:

10- tilikess:

11- whistinkess:

12- amihable:

13- thalleted:

14- bogusare hesarices:

15- ummugans:

16- meracism:

APPENDIX B

THE TEXT USED FOR THE TRAINING SESSION

The Human Brain – New Discoveries

Left Brain / Right Brain: Creativity

Psychologists agree that most of us have creative ability that is greater than what we use in daily life. In other words, we can be more creative than we realize! The problem is that we use mainly one hemisphere of our brain – the left. From childhood, in school, we are taught reading, writing, and mathematics; we are (1) **yobited** to very little music or art. Therefore, many of us might not (2) **hedfinize** our right hemisphere much, except through dreams, symbols, and those wonderful insights in which we suddenly find the answer to a problem that has been (3) **remdeting** us – and do so without the need for logic. Can we be taught to use our right hemisphere more? Many experts believe so.

Differences in Male and Female Brains

Watch a group of children as they play. You will probably notice that the boys and girls play differently, and are interested in different things. When they grow into men and women, the differences do not disappear. Many scientists are now studying the (4) **pafamades** of these gender differences. Some are searching for an explanation in the human brain. Some of their findings are interesting. For example, they have found that more men than women are left-handed; this reflects the

(5) **seminance** of the brain's right hemisphere. By contrast, more women listen

equally with both ears while men listen mainly with the right ear. Men are better at

reading a map without having to rotate it. Women are better at reading the

(6) **manicions** of people in photographs.


Write a synonym for the following words:


    1- yobited:

    2- hedfinize:

    3- remdeting:

    4- pafamades:

    5- seminance:

    6- manicions:

APPENDIX C

THE THINK-ALOUD PROTOCOL READING TASK

<u>How to Read a Newspaper</u>

You sometimes ask me for (1) **pracks**. You want quick and easy ways to learn this language, to learn a huge vocabulary, to read fast and understand more, to become good writers. You want magic. You think I have some secret magic *pracks* that I am (2) **danding** – not letting you have. This is not true. There are no easy *pracks*. But there are some techniques that work better than others. One of the best techniques I can think of is to read an English-language newspaper (3) **chaningly**. This will allow you to "kill two birds with one stone" – well, actually, three "birds": increase your vocabulary, improve your reading skills, and learn something about how to write. One caution, however: newspaper language is very difficult. It does become more possible, though, if you read the paper *chaningly* – several times a week – because you will see the same vocabulary over and over.

<u>A Perfect Sunday</u>

When I was young and newly married, my husband and I used to (4) **glurk** most of every Sunday reading The Times. We made a big pot of coffee and lay on the living room floor, surrounded by sections of the paper: national and international news, business, sports, entertainment, book reviews, classified ads. Occasionally, we read something (5) **adant** to each other: "Just listen to this! You won't believe it." From time to time, we exchanged sections. It was a lovely way to *glurk* a leisurely Sunday, but it did take almost the whole day. Now I can't imagine *glurking* so much

time reading the paper. Now I have to be efficient and practical. I have picked up a few suggestions that I can share with you.

## Which Paper?

First, you need to choose a newspaper and know which not to choose. In some English-speaking countries, as you wait in the checkout line at the supermarket, you might notice something that looks like a newspaper. You read the (6) **predpines**: "Woman Gives Birth to Baby with Two Heads!" or "Elvis Presley Seen in Bus Station in Texas" or UFOs from Mars Land in Soccer Stadium Parking Lot." Trust me. These are not newspapers. They are rubbish. To be more accurate, they are called "tabloid" newspapers, simply the worst examples of "yellow" journalism – newspaper writing that is full of (7) **bissip**, half-truths, and too many exclamation marks (!!!). If your goal is just to learn a little vocabulary and have some fun, go ahead and read them. But don't expect to find (8) **hatal** news or good writing or the truth. For that, you need a real newspaper such as the Christian Science Monitor, the International Herald Tribune, USA Today, The London Times or The Chicago Tribune.

## What You Will Find

Next, you need to know about the various parts of a newspaper. This will help you decide what to read and what to skip. In most English-language papers, the "hard" news is in the first section, beginning on the front page. Hard news (9) **mintends** everything that has happened that day – politics, crime, scientific discoveries, economics, weather, and local events. The "top" (or most (10) **reminent**) news story of the day can be found in the upper right-hand corner of the

front page. Journalism students soon learn that ethical writing of hard news must be (11) **artictive -**- in other words, contain only facts, not the journalist's opinion – and balanced (contain both sides of a story). In any good newspaper, opinion is clearly separated from hard news. Opinion appears in advice columns, in movie, TV, or book reviews, in editorials, and in letters to the editor. Most of the rest of the newspaper contains advertising. Advertisers pay for this space, and it is not the news.

<u>How to Get the Most Out of the Paper and Not *Glurk* All Day Doing It</u>

At this point, you are ready to start reading. When you read a newspaper – especially in a language new to you – it is almost impossible to begin on page one and read through the (12) **wist** page. Don't even think of trying this. Instead, begin by throwing away the sections that you have no interest in. This makes the paper a good deal thinner. Next, (13) **pretern** the rest of the paper. That is, briefly look over each section for articles that especially interest you. Then go to the front page. On this page, read each *predpine* – the title of every article. You might be surprised by how much you can learn from just the *predpines*. Then, for each of these articles, read only the first paragraph or two. This is where you will find the *reminent* information: who, what, when, where, why. Then you can move on to a section that interests you, such as entertainment, business, or sports. Last, you might look for some small piece of information that you need at the moment – the weather (14) **sidelt** or where a certain movie is playing. Most *reminent* – don't worry too much about vocabulary. Guess the meaning from the context and use a dictionary for only a few words. If you read the paper several times a week, you will discover many of the same words appearing again and again.

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Write a synonym for the following words:

1- pracks:

2- danding:

3- chaningly:

4- glurk:

5- adant:

6- predpines:

7- bissip:

8- hatal:

9- mintends:

10- reminent:

11- artictive:

12- wist:

13- pretern:

14- sidelt:

APPENDIX D

TRAINING SESSION TALK

(ENGLISH VERSION)


In this study, I am investigating the strategies students use to guess the meanings of unknown words encountered when reading English texts. For this reason, I am asking you to think aloud, that is, to say whatever comes to your mind while you are trying to guess the meaning of the vocabulary written in bold in the text I am going to give you. Do not hesitate to verbalize whatever goes through your mind even if they seem irrelevant to you. When you are reading the text and guessing the word meanings, behave as if I were not in the room. Suppose that you are in your room, studying and do whatever you do when you encounter unknown words in any English text. I am not interested in how successful you are in guessing word meanings. For this reason, do not be afraid of saying whatever comes to your mind. As you are reading and guessing the word meanings, I will not interrupt you. However, if you stay silent for more than 15 seconds, I will warn you to report your thoughts. Please reflect your thoughts without stopping.

Now, before starting the main study, I will demonstrate you how this technique is applied. Then, I will ask you to apply the same technique. When you are thinking aloud, you have the chance to choose to voice your thoughts in Turkish or English.

APPENDIX E

TRAINING SESSION TALK

(TURKISH VERSION)


Bu çalışmada, öğrencilerin İngilizce metinleri okurken karşılaştıkları bilinmeyen kelimelerin anlamlarını tahmin edebilmek için hangi stratejileri kullandıklarını araştırıyorum. Bu amaçla, size vereceğim metinde kalın harflerle yazılmış kelimelerin ne anlama geldiğini tahmin etmeğe çalışırken sesli düşünmenizi, yani aklınıza gelen her şeyi söylemenizi rica ediyorum. Aklınızdan geçenler size ilgisiz görünse dahi, bunları dile getirmekte tereddüt etmeyin. Metni okurken ve kelimelerin anlamlarını tahmin ederken, ben odada yokmuşum gibi davranın. Kendinizi odanızda tek başınıza ders çalışıyor farzedin ve herhangi bir İngilizce metinde bilinmeyen kelimelerle karşılaştığınızda ne yapıyorsanız burada da aynısını yapın. Sizin kelimeleri tahmin etmekte ne kadar başarılı olduğunuzla ilgilenmiyorum. Bu nedenle aklınıza gelenleri söylemekten çekinmeyin. Siz okurken ve kelimeleri tahmin ederken ben hiç müdahale etmeyeceğim. Ancak 15 saniyeden fazla sessiz kalırsanız düşündüklerinizi aktarmanız için sizi uyaracağım. Lütfen, hiç durmaksızın düşüncelerinizi yansıtın.

Şimdi, asıl çalışmaya başlamadan önce, ben size bu tekniğin nasıl uygulandığını göstereceğim. Daha sonra da sizden aynı tekniği uygulamanızı isteyeceğim. Sesli düşünürken, düşüncelerinizi Türkçe ya da İngilizce dile getirmek konusunda seçim şansına sahipsiniz.

APPENDIX F

THE CODING SCHEME FOR THE CONTEXTUAL GUESSING STRATEGIES

INCLUDED IN THE TAXONOMY


| | |
|---|---|
| /CC/ | Contextual Clues |
| /PS/ | Part of Speech |
| /IEC/ | Interlingual Collocation |
| /IAC/ | Intralingual Collocation |
| /IP/ | Intralingual Phonology |
| /PN/ | Punctuation |
| /L1/ | L1 Knowledge |
| /TR/ | Translation |
| /SR/ | Section Repeating |
| /WR/ | Word Repeating |
| /SQ/ | Self-Questioning |
| /VER/ | Verifying |
| /MON/ | Monitoring |
| /DK/ | Discourse Knowledge |
| /WK/ | World Knowledge |
| /MK/ | Morphological Knowledge |

APPENDIX G

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

| | |
|---|---|
| <u>underlined letters</u> | Segments from the reading text |
| lower case letters | Segments from the TAPs and RIs |
| . (a dot) | A pause for 5 or 6 seconds |
| … (three dots) | A long pause |
| * (an asterix) | Unintelligible segments from the TAPs and RIs |
| ? (a question mark) | Rising intonation |
| (parentheses) | Para-verbal and extra-verbal behaviour |
| [brackets] | Researcher's comments |
| / (a slash) | Words that are not completed |
| *italicized letters* | Segments from the TAPs and RIs that are translated from Turkish into English |
| **bold letters** | Target words |
| **/bold letters in slashes/** | Strategy codes |

SAMPLE CODED THINK-ALOUD PROTOCOL 1

1    how to read a newspaper gazete nasıl okuruz **/TR/** you sometimes ask me for

2    **pracks** you want quick and easy ways to learn this language to learn a huge

3    vocabulary questions olabilir . **/CC/ pracks /WR/** to read fast and understand

4    more to become good writers bir yazarın bir özelliği abilitysi de olabilir **/CC/**

5    **/L1/** you want magic heralde büyük bir şey isteniyor **magic** dediğine göre

6    **/L1/ /CC/** you think I have some secret magic **pracks** that I am **danding** not

7    letting you have this is not true there are no easy **pracks** . üç kere geçmiş ama

8    hala çıkaramadım ne olduğunu **/MON/** you think I have some secret magic

9    **pracks** . **/SR/** there are no easy **pracks** . questions yani bir bilinmezlik söz

10   konusu orada **/CC/** but there are some techniques that work better than

11   others one of the best techniques I can think of . is to read an English

12   language newspaper changingly **chaningly** . en iyi tekniklerden biri . gazete

13   okumak . **/TR/** English language newspaper **/SR/ chaningly** bir adverb **/PS/**

14   this will allow you to kill two birds with one stone çok yararlı bişey demek ki

15   bir taşla iki kuş dediğine göre **/TR/ /L1/ /CC/** well actually three birds

16   increase your vocabulary improve your reading skills and learn something

17   about how to write one caution however newspaper language is very difficult

18   it does become more possible though if you read the paper **chaningly** .

19   several times a week because you will see the same vocabulary over and over

20   often gibi bişey olabilir **chaningly** . **/CC/** ee a perfect sunday (writes + often)

21    when I was young and newly married my husband and I used to **glurk** most

22    of every sunday reading The Times . ambitious? tarzında bişey galiba **/CC/**

23    we made a big pot of coffee and lay on the living room floor surrounded by

24    sections of the paper . hım oturma odasında uza/ yere uzanarak . kağıtlara

25    **/TR/** national and international news business sports entertainment book

26    reviews classified ads occasionally we read something **adant** to each other .

27    just listen to this you won't believe it . from time to time we exchanged

28    sections it was a lovely way to **glurk** . a leisurely sunday but it take it did take

29    almost the whole day now I can't imagine . **glurking** so much time reading

30    the paper . çok geçiyor bu kelime ama zor **/MON/** now I have to be efficient

31    and practical I have picked up a few suggestions that I can share with you .

32    efficientın da anlamını bilmem gerekiyor burada **/MON/** (reads quickly +

33    picked up a few suggestions that I can share with you) … **/SR/** we read

34    something **adant** to each other . **adant** uymak? ve yapmak olabilir . **/CC/**

35    **/L1/ /SQ/** (reads in a low voice + my husband and I used to **glurk** most of

36    every sunday reading The Times) bir alışkanlık habitten bahsediyor olabilir

37    **/L1/ /CC/** . which paper first you need to choose a newspaper and know

38    which not to choose in some English speaking countries as you wait in the

39    checkout (reads in a low voice + line at the supermarket you might notice

40    something that looks like a newspaper you read the **predpines** . woman gives

41    birth to baby with two heads or Elvis Presley seen in bus station in Texas)

42    (reads murmuring) these are not newspapers they are rubbish önemsiz bişey

43    demek ki **/L1/** to be more accurate they are called tabloid newspapers simply

44    the worst examples of yellow journalism . newspaper writing that is full of

45  **<u>bissip</u>** . saçmalık gibi bişey herhalde **bissip** anlamsız bişey **/CC/ /L1/** <u>half-</u>

46  <u>truths and too many exclamation marks . if your goal is just to learn a little</u>

47  <u>vocabulary and have some fun go ahead and read them</u> dergi tarzında

48  bişeylerden bahsediyor herhalde <u>but don't expect to find</u> **hatal** <u>news or</u>

49  <u>good writing or the truth . hatal?</u> news . işe yarar ola/ useful olabilir **/L1/ /CC/**

50  (writes + useful) <u>for that you need a real newspaper such as the Christian</u>

51  <u>Science Monitor the</u> (reads in a low voice + <u>International Herald Tribune</u>

52  <u>USA Today The London Times or The Chicago Tribune</u>) (turns the page)

53  <u>what you will find next you need to know about the various parts of a</u>

54  <u>newspaper this will help you decide what to read and what to skip in most</u>

55  <u>English language papers the hard news is in the first section beginning on the</u>

56  <u>front page hard news</u> **mintends** <u>everything that has happened that day</u>

57  içermek olabilir include **/L1/ /CC/** (writes + include) <u>politics crime</u>

58  <u>scientific discoveries economics weather and local events the top news story</u>

59  <u>of the day can be found in the upper right hand corner of the front page</u>

60  <u>journalism students soon learn that ethical writing of hard news must be .</u>

61  **<u>artictive</u>** . gazetecilikte okuyan öğrenciler . hemen öğrenirler . etik yazının

62  **/TR/** … har/ zor yazılar **artictive** olmalı **/TR/ /WR/**  başka bir deyişle **/TR/**

63  <u>contain only facts not the journalist's opinion</u> objective olabilir **/CC/** (writes

64  + objective) <u>and balanced in any good newspaper opinion is clearly separated</u>

65  <u>from hard news opinion appears in advice columns in movie TV or book</u>

66  <u>reviews in editorials and in letters to the editor most of the rest of the</u>

67  <u>newspaper contains advertising . advertisers pay for this space and it is not</u>

68    the news how to get the most out of the paper and not **glurk** all day doing it

69    … gazetenin … bütün gün . **/TR/** yok at this point you are ready to start

70    reading when you read a newspaper especially in a language new to you yeni

71    öğrenilen bir dil **/TR/** it is almost impossible to begin on page one and read

72    through the **wist** page . ilk sayfayı okudu sonra devam ettiğine göre ikinci

73    sayfa gibi bişey olabilir **/TR/ /L1/ wist** next **/CC/** (writes + next)

74    don't even think of trying this instead begin by throwing away the sections

75    that you have no interest in this makes the paper a good deal thinner next

76    **pretern** . the rest of the paper göz atmak incelemek gibi bişey heralde **/L1/**

77    that is briefly look over each section for articles that especially interest you .

78    then go to the front page . on this page read each **predpine** . bölüm gibi bişey

79    heralde page dediğine göre **/L1/ /CC/** the title of every article . you might be

80    surprised by how much you can learn from just the **predpines** . başlık bölüm

81    **/L1/** then for each of these articles read only the first paragraph or two this is

82    where you will find the **reminent** information . useful **/CC/** who what when

83    where why then you can move on to a section that interests you such as

84    entertainment business or sports last you might look for some small piece of

85    information that you need at the moment the weather? **sidelt** or (reads in a

86    low voice + where a certain movie is playing) situation olabilir **/CC/ sidelt** .

87    **/WR/** most **reminent** . don't worry too much about vocabulary . guess the

88    meaning from the context and use a dictionary for only a few words . if you

89    read the paper several times a week you will discover many of the same

90    words appearing again and again (turns the paper) başa dönelim ilk

91    bilmediğimiz kelime **pracks** you sometimes ask me for **pracks** questions

92    olduğunu düşünüyorum . **/CC/ danding** <u>you think I have some secret magic</u>

93    **pracks** <u>that I am **danding** /SR/</u> bir fiil **/PS/** <u>not letting you have</u> **/SR/** başka

94    bir yerde de geçmiyor **danding** . <u>you think I have some secret magic</u> **pracks**

95    <u>that I am **danding**</u> . <u>not letting you have … not letting you</u> … **/SR/**

96    [devam et konuşmaya lütfen]

97    <u>this is not true there are no easy</u> **/SR/ chaningly** onu often olarak not etmiştim

98    zaten . <u>when I was young and newly married my husband and I used to</u> **glurk**

99    <u>most of every sunday … used to</u> **glurk /SR/** yine bir fiil **/PS/ glurk** başka

100   nerde var **/SQ/** <u>it was a lovely way to</u> **glurk** <u>a leisurely sunday  can't imagine</u>

101   **glurking** <u>so much time</u> . **/SR/** bir eylem söz konusu **/PS/** … **glurking** <u>spare</u>

102   gibi zaman harcamak **/CC/ /L1/ glurking** <u>time</u> dediğine göre **/IAC/ adant**

103   bunu hemen geçiyorum **predpines** <u>you read the</u> **predpines** <u>woman gives</u> title

104   **/CC/ bissip** <u>newspaper writing that is full of</u> **bissip** dedikodu gossip gibi bir

105   şey heralde **/CC/ /L1/ hatal** bunu kullanışlı **/L1/** useful olarak düşündüm

106   **mintends** . içermek **/L1/** include **reminent** <u>the top or most</u> . hard news

107   **mintends** <u>everything that has happened that day politics crime the top or</u>

108   <u>most reminent</u> . <u>news story of the day can be found in the … or most</u>

109   **reminent /SR/** geçelim **artic/ artictive** . objective … **wist** onu da next olarak

110   düşündüm **pretern** . <u>next</u> **pretern**  <u>the rest of the paper</u> look at olabilir **/CC/** .

111   **sidelt** da <u>the weather</u> dediğine göre … hava durumu situation **/CC/ /IEC/**

112   veya <u>weather</u> reportla kullanılabilir **/CC/ /IAC/ adant**ı bulamadım **/MON/**

113   dönüp tekrar bakayım <u>occasionally we read something</u> **adant** <u>to each other</u> .

114   hı ya da ilgilendiren olabilir **/CC/ /L1/** <u>we read something</u> . interested **/VER/**

115   (writes + interested) olabilir bir de **reminent** kaldı **reminent** nerdeydi **/SQ/**

116  <u>the top or most **reminent** /SR/</u> … <u>the top new story of the day **reminent** most</u>

117  **reminent** dediğine göre çok **/CC/ /TR/** <u>news story of the day can be found</u>

118  <u>in the upper</u> . **reminent** da ilgilenilen **/CC/ /L1/** … karşılığı ne olabilir **/SQ/**

119  <u>the top news story of the day</u> . most **reminent** most wanted gibi **/CC/** . ilgi

120  çekici olabilir **/L1/** wanted olarak yazdım

SAMPLE CODED THINK-ALOUD PROTOCOL 1

(TRANSLATED VERSION)

1    <u>how to read a newspaper</u> *how we read newspaper* **/TR/** <u>you sometimes ask</u>

2    <u>me for</u> **<u>pracks</u>** <u>you want quick and easy ways to learn this language to learn a</u>

3    <u>huge vocabulary</u> *it can be* <u>questions</u> . **/CC/** **<u>pracks</u>** **/WR/** <u>to read fast and</u>

4    <u>understand</u> <u>more to become good writers</u> *it can be a characteristic of a writer*

5    *it can also be his ability* **/CC/ /L1/** <u>you want magic</u> *as it says* magic

6    *something big is wanted* **/L1/ /CC/** <u>you think I have some secret magic</u>

7    **<u>pracks</u>** <u>that I am</u> **<u>danding</u>** <u>not letting you have this is not true there are no</u>

8    <u>easy</u> **<u>pracks</u>** . *it appeared three times but still I couldn't infer what it is*

9    **/MON/** <u>you think I have some secret magic</u> **<u>pracks</u>** . **/SR/** <u>there are no easy</u>

10    **<u>pracks</u>** . *questions well there is an uncertainty there* **/CC/** <u>but there are some</u>

11    <u>techniques that work better than others one of the best techniques I can think</u>

12    <u>of . is to read an English language newspaper changingly</u> **<u>chaningly</u>** . *one of*

13    *the best techniques . reading a newspaper .* **/TR/** <u>English language newspaper</u>

14    **/SR/** **chaningly** *an adverb* **/PS/** <u>this will allow you to kill two birds with one</u>

15    <u>stone</u> *so as it says two birds with one stone it is something very useful* **/TR/**

16    **/L1/ /CC/** <u>well actually three birds increase your vocabulary improve your</u>

17    <u>reading skills and learn something about how to write one caution however</u>

18    <u>newspaper language is very difficult it does become more possible though if</u>

19    <u>you read the paper</u> **chaningly** . <u>several times a week because you will see the</u>

20     same vocabulary over and over **chaningly** *can be something like often* . **/CC/**

21     ee a perfect sunday (writes + often) when I was young and newly married my

22     husband and I used to **glurk** most of every sunday reading The Times .

23     *something like* ambitious? *I guess***/CC/** we made a big pot of coffee and lay

24     on the living room floor surrounded by sections of the paper . hım *in the*

25     *living room la/ laying on the floor . to the papers* **/TR/** national and

26     international news business sports entertainment book reviews classified ads

27     occasionally we read something **adant** to each other .just listen to this you

28     won't believe it . from time to time we exchanged sections it was a lovely

29     way to **glurk** . a leisurely sunday but it take it did take almost the whole day

30     now I can't imagine . **glurking** so much time reading the paper . *this word*

31     *appears many times but hard* **/MON/** now I have to be efficient and practical

32     I have picked up a few suggestions that I can share with you . *here I need to*

33     *know the meaning of efficient also***/MON/** (reads quickly + picked up a few

34     suggestions that I can share with you) … **/SR/** we read something **adant** to

35     each other . **adant** *can be to suit*? *and doing* . **/CC/ /L1/ /SQ/** (reads in a low

36     voice + my husband and I used to **glurk** most of every sunday reading The

37     Times) *it can be talking about a habit* habit **/L1/ /CC/** . which paper first you

38     need to choose a newspaper and know which not to choose in some English

39     speaking countries as you wait in the checkout (reads in a low voice + line at

40     the supermarket you might notice something that looks like a newspaper you

41     read the **predpines** . woman gives birth to baby with two heads or Elvis

42     Presley seen in bus station in Texas) (reads murmuring) these are not

43     newspapers they are rubbish *so something unimportant* **/L1/** to be more

44      accurate they are called tabloid newspapers simply the worst examples of

45      yellow journalism . newspaper writing that is full of **bissip** . *probably*

46      *something like nonsense* **bissip** *something without meaning* **/CC/ /L1/** half-

47      truths and too many exclamation marks . if your goal is just to learn a little

48      vocabulary and have some fun go ahead and read them *it is probably talking*

49      *about something like a magazine* but don't expect to find **hatal** news or

50      good writing or the truth . **hatal**? news . *it  ca/ useful . useful can be*

51      **/L1/ /CC/** (writes + useful) for that you need a real newspaper such as the

52       Christian Science Monitor the (reads in a low voice + International Herald

53       Tribune USA Today The London Times or The Chicago Tribune) (turns the

54      page) what you will find next you need to know about the various parts

55       of a newspaper this will help you decide what to read and what to skip in

56      most English language papers the hard news is in the first section beginning

57      on the front page hard news **mintends** everything that has happened

58      that day *it can be contain* include **/L1/ /CC/** (writes + include) politics crime

59      scientific discoveries economics weather and local events the top news story

60      of the day can be found in the upper right hand corner of the front page

61      journalism students soon learn that ethical writing of hard news must be .

62      **<u>artictive</u>** *journalism students learn immediately ethical writing*

63      **/TR/** … har/ *hard writings  must be artictive* **/TR/ /WR/** *in other words* **/TR/**

64      contain only facts not the journalist's opinion *it can be objective* **/CC/** (writes

65      + objective) and balanced in any good newspaper opinion is clearly

66      separatedfrom hard news opinion appears in advice columns in movie TV or

67      book eviews in editorials and in letters to the editor most of the rest of the

68    newspaper contains advertising . advertisers pay for this space and it is not

69    the news how to get the most out of the paper and not **glurk** all day doing it

70    . *newspaper's* . *all day***/TR/** *no* at this point you are ready to start

71    reading when you read a newspaper especially in a language new to you

72    *a newly learnt language* **/TR/** it is almost impossible to begin on page one

73    and read through the **wist** page . *since it read the first page then followed*

74     *it can be something like the second page* **/L1/ wist** next **/CC/** (writes + next)

75    don't even think of trying this instead begin by throwing away the sections

76    that you have no interest in this makes the paper a good deal thinner next

77    **pretern** . the rest of the paper *something like scan skim probably***/L1/**

78    that is briefly look over each section for articles that especially interest you .

79    then go to the front page . on this page read each **predpine** . *probably*

80    *something like section as it says page* **/L1/ /CC/** the title of every article . you

81    might be surprised by how much you can learn from just the **predpines** .

82    başlık bölüm **/L1/** then for each of these articles read only the first paragraph

83    or two this is where you will find the **reminent** information . useful **/CC/** who

84    what when where why then you can move on to a section that interests you

85    such as entertainment business or sports last you might look for some small

86    piece of information that you need at the moment the weather? **sidelt** or

87    (reads in a low voice + where a certain movie is playing) *it can be situation*

88    **/CC/ sidelt** . **/WR/** most **reminent** . don't worry too much about vocabulary .

89    guess the meaning from the context and use a dictionary for only a few words

90    . if you read the paper several times a week you will discover many of the

91    same words appearing again and again (turns the paper) *let's look back the*

92    *first unknown word* **pracks** you sometimes ask me for **pracks** *I think it is*

93    questions . **/CC/ danding** you think I have some secret magic **pracks** that I

94    **danding /SR/** *a verb* **/PS/** not letting you have **/SR/**

95    **danding** *does not appear in any other place* .

96    you think I have some secret magic **pracks** that I am **danding** . not letting

97    you have … not letting you … **/SR/** [please tell me what you are thinking]

98    this is not true there are no easy **/SR/ chaningly** *I already noted it down as*

99    *often* . when I was young and newly married my husband and I used to **glurk**

100   most of every sunday … used to **glurk /SR/** *again a verb* **/PS/ glurk** *where*

101   *else does it appear* **/SQ/** it was a lovely way to **glurk** a leisurely sunday  can't

102   imagine **glurking** so much time . **/SR/** *there is an event* **/PS/** … **glurking**

104   *something like spend spend time* **/CC/ /L1/ glurking** *time as it says glurking*

104   *time* **/IAC/ adant** *immediately skip this* **predpines** you read the

105   **predpines** woman gives title **/CC/ bissip** newspaper writing that is full of

106   **bissip** *gossip something like* gossip *probably* **/CC/ /L1/ hatal** *I thought*

107   *this as useful* **/L1/** useful **mintends** . *contain* **/L1/** include **reminent** the top or

108   most . hard news **mintends** everything that has happened that day politics

109   crime the top or most reminent . news story of the day can be found in the …

110   or most **reminent /SR/** *let's skip* **artic/ arctive** . objective … **wist** *I thought*

111   *that as* next **pretern** . next **pretern**  the rest of the paper *it can be have a look*

112   *at* **/CC/** . **sidelt** *as it says* the weather … *weather situation* situation **/CC/**

113   **/IEC/** or weather *can be used with* report **/CC/ /IAC/** *I couldn't*

114   *find* **adant** *let me look back* **/MON/**  occasionally we read

115   something **adant** to each other . *or it can be interested* **/CC/ /L1/** we read

116    something . interested **/VER/** (writes + interested) *can be one more*

117    **reminent** *remained* **reminent** *where was it* **/SQ/** the top or most **reminent**

118    **/SR/** … the top new story of the day **reminent** most **reminent** *as it says*

119    *very* **/CC/ /TR/** news story of the day can be found in the upper .

120    **reminent** *interesting* **/CC/ /L1/** … *what can it be* **/SQ/** the top news story of

121    the day . most **reminent** most wanted *as if it is most wanted* **/CC/** . *it can be*

122    *interesting* **/L1/** *I wrote as wanted*

SAMPLE CODED THINK-ALOUD PROTOCOL 2

1    how to read a newspaper ee bir gazete nasıl okunur **/TR/** you sometimes ask

2    me for ee bazen sorarız **/TR/** **pracks** isteriz benden istersin **/WR/** **/TR/**

3    **pracks** istersin . bilgi falan olabilir haber olabilir **/CC/** **/TR/ /L1/** you want

4    quick and easy ways to learn this language ee bu dili öğrenmenin kolay

5    yolları kolay ve hızlı öğrenmek istersin bu dili **/TR/** sometimes ee istersin

6    **/TR/** neyse ee büyük bir sözlük öğrenmek hızlı okumak ve daha fazla

7    anlamak pratik olabilir mi bu? **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/ /SQ/** to become good writers

8    ee iyi yazar olabilmek için daha fazla ve daha fazla anlayıp ve hızlı

9    okuyabilmek için tamam bir sihir istiyorsun . ımm elimde gizli bir **pracks** var

10   **/TR/ /WR/** I am I have some gizli bir gizli sihirli **pracksler** var bilgi olabilir

11   **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** … I am **danding** not letting you have . ımm I am **danding**

12   not letting you have **/SR/**sahip olduğum izin izinsiz izin olmadan sahip

13   olduğum **/TR/ /L1/** I am **danding** **/SR/** … bu doğru değil **/TR/** ee there are no

14   easy **pracks** . hiç kolay **pracks** yoktur **/TR/ /WR/** tamam but there are some

15   techniques ama bazı teknikler var diğerlerinden daha iyi çalışan teknikler var

16   bunlardan en iyisi … bir İngiliz dil gazetesini okumak **/TR/** bu zarf **/PS/** nasıl

17   bir şekilde okumak? **/SQ/** ben düşünebilirim düşünüyorum **/TR/** ( reads in a

18   low voice + *) **chaningly** . bu tekniklerden en iyisi benim düşünceme göre bir

19   İngiliz dil gazetesini bir şekilde okumak ama nasıl okumak **/TR/ /SQ/** … this

20   will allow you to kill two birds with one stone . ee bu sana izin verecek iki

21    kuşu öldürmene bir taşla iki kuşu öldürmek için izin verecek bir şeymiş hım .

22    **/TR/** <u>well actually three birds . increase your vocabulary</u> senin sözlüğün

23    yükselecek **/TR/** <u>increase</u> **/WR/** ee okuma yeteneklerin gelişecek . ve nasıl

24    yazacağın hakkında bilgi edineceksin öğreneceksin . ımm gazete * çok zordur

25    daha fazla muhtemel olabilir **/TR/** (reads in a very low voice + *)

26    [yüksek sesle konuşabilirsen]

27    <u>if you read the paper</u> **chaningly** eğer gazeteyi . **chaningly** şekilde okursan

28    birkaç hafta **/CC/ /TR/** . ımm <u>because you will see the same vocabulary over</u>

29    <u>and over</u> çünkü göreceksin aynı kelimeleri **/TR/** . **chaningly**? … dikkatlice

30    olabilir … **/CC/ /L1/** <u>a perfect sunday</u> harika bir pazar ben genç/ gençken

31    ımm daha yeni evliyken eşim . **/TR/** ımm **glurk** fiil bişey yaparmış **/PS/ /TR/**

32    <u>most of every sunday reading The Times</u> ımm . hemen hemen her pazar

33    Times okurmuş . sevmek olabilir **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** <u>used to . like</u> olabilir **/VER/**

34    eskiden yapılmış şimdi yapılmayan bir fiil bir yazalım . **/PS/** <u>we made a big</u>

35    <u>pot of coffee ee and lay on the living room floor</u> oturma odasının dö/

36    döşemesine yatardık gezinirdik **/TR/** <u>by sections of the paper</u> gazetelere göz

37    atardık . ulusal uluslararası haberler iş spor eğlence kitap görüşleri . **/TR/**

38    <u>occasionally</u> . (in a low voice + <u>occasionally)</u> **/WR/** <u>we read something</u>

39    birşeyler okurduk **/TR/** **adant** <u>to each other</u> . ımm birbirimize birşeyler

40    okurduk **/TR/** . <u>something</u> . (in a low voice + **adant** <u>to)</u> **/SR/** . <u>just listen to</u>

41    bunu dinle buna inanamayacaksın <u>something interesting</u> **/CC/ /TR/ /VER/**   *

42    ilginç bişeyler mi okurduk acaba . **/L1/ /SQ/** (in a low voice + <u>something *  to</u>

43    <u>each other)</u> **/SR/** <u>something interesting things</u> iki kelime olur neyse **/VER/**

44    zaman zaman  değişiverdik bölümleri **/TR/** . ee it was a lovely way to **glurk** .

45    a leisurely sunday buna like demiştim it was a lovely way bu güzel bir yol to

46    like a olabilir **/CC/ /TR/ /VER/** but it did take almost the whole day bütün

47    gün yapabilirdik götürebilirdik şimdi hayal edemiyorum **/TR/ glurking** so

48    much I can't imagine **glurking** so much time reading the paper **/SR/** bu kadar

49    uzun süre gazete okumaktan hoşlanmayı hayal edemiyorum edemem **/TR/**

50    **/L1/ /VER/** now I have to be efficient and practical daha fazla pratik

51    yapmalıyım ve **/TR/** I have picked up a few suggestions that I can share with

52    you . hı . which paper first you need to choose a newspaper and know which

53    not to choose seçmek için **/TR/** which not to ee choose **/SR/** seçmemek neyi

54    seçmemek **/TR/ /SQ/** bildik **/TR/** (murmurs when reading + you need to

55    choose a newspaper) **/SR/** bir gazete seçme ihtiyacın varsa ve biliyorsan

56    hangisini seçmen gerektiğini biliyorsan **/TR/** in some English speaking

57    countries İngilizce konuşulan bazı ülkelerde **/TR/** as you wait in the checkout

58    line at the supermarket süpermarketten bekliyorsun **/TR/** you might notice

59    something that looks like a newspaper bir gazete gibi görünen ee birşeylerin

60    ee farkına varıyorsun **/TR/** you read the **predpines** manşet olabilir **/CC/ /L1/**

61    … ımm you read the **predpines** woman gives birth to baby with two heads

62    ımm iki kafalı bebek dünyaya gelmiş veya Elvis Presley Texasta bir otobüs

63    istasyonunda görülmüş veya UFOlar Marstan UFOlar evet bu manşet **/CC/**

64    **/TR/ /L1/** trust me bana güven bunlar gazete değil . bunlar **/TR/** rubbish ımm

65    (in a low voice + daha fazla) **/TR/** they are called tabloid newspaper bunlar .

66    başka bir isimle anılırmış gazete değillermiş **/TR/** daha basit olarak en kötü

67    örnek ee sarı journalism örneklerinin en kötüsü **/TR/** newspaper writing that

68    is full of **bissip bissip**le dolu şeyler yazıyormuş gazeteler yalan olabilir **/CC/**

69    **/TR/ /L1/** yarı doğru hım . yarı doğru … **/TR/ /WR/** and too many

70    exclamation marks writing that is full of yalanlarla dolu yalan da olabilir .

71    **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** if your goal is just to learn şuna (writes in the paper + lies +

72    desek not true) if your goal ımm * learn a little vocabulary az bir sözcük

73    öğrenmek biraz neşe git oku **/TR/** but don't expect to find ama umma **/TR/**

74    find **hatal** news or good writing or the truth ımm good writing ve gerçek **/SR/**

75    **/TR/** gerçek haber diyeceğim gerçeği kullanmış . **/L1/** bulmayı umma nasıl

76    haberler bulmayı umma **/TR/ /SQ/** gerçek olur  neyse ya **/L1/** gerçek haber

77    bulmayı umma veya iyi yazılmış gerçekleri . umma bulamazsın gibi bir şey

78    gerçekler/ he real news neyse **/TR/ /L1/ /VER/** gerçek bir gazete **/TR/**

79    Christian Science Monitor gibi örnek olarak **/TR/** . International Herald

80    Tribune USA Today (turns the page) what you will find . you will find **/SR/**

81    ne bulacaksın . ımm sonra . gazetenin çeşitli bölümleri hakkında bilgiye

82    ihtiyacın var . bu sana yardım edecek karar vermene nasıl ee ne okuyacağın

83    yani **/TR/** (in a low voice + skip . in most English language papers) birçok

84    İngiliz dili İngilizce gazeteler **/TR/** hard news is in the first section ilk

85    bölümde zor haberler mi **/TR/  /SQ/** . beginning on the front page sayfanın

86    önünde başlıyor **/TR/** manşet gibi bişey bu **/L1/ /WK/** hard news **mintends**

87    everything that has happened that day hard news **mintends** everything that

88    has happened he bugün olan herşeyi özetliyor olabilir **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** politics

89    crime scientific politika suç bilimsel keşifler ekonomi hepsi hakkında bir kısa

90    bilgi özet olabilir **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** ama burada fiil bu **/PS/** özetlemek **/L1/** .

91     summary başka briefly brief … fiil anlamı ne brief özet … (in a low voice +

92     briefs? böyle kullanılır mı) **/L1/ /SQ/** <u>the top or most **reminent** news story</u>

93     <u>of the day</u> **reminent** yeni gazete hikayelerinden top oluşturuyorlarmış

94     **/WR/ /TR/** <u>be found in the upper right</u> * sayfada **/TR/** <u>hand corner of the</u>

95     <u>front page</u> sonraki sayfanın kö/ köşesinde ee gazetecilik * neyse öğrencileri

96     öğreniyorlar etik yazmayı işte <u>hard news</u>un etiğini yazmayı **/TR/** <u>must be</u>

97     **artictive** <u>in the other words</u> diğer bir şekilde diyorsa bu bunun eşanlamlısı

98     olabilir **/TR/ /DK/** <u>contain only facts</u> sadece gerçekleri <u>contain</u> eden birşey

99     olabilir **/TR/ /WR/** hı <u>journalism students soon learn that ethical writing of</u>

100   <u>hard news</u> em * olabilir **artictive** olabilir **/WR/** diğer bir deyişle sadece

101   gerçek <u>contain</u> olabilir **/TR/ /WR/** … şunu atlamışız <u>the top or most</u>

102   **reminent /SR/** <u>top</u> en çok okunan haberler olabilir mi ki . **/CC/ /L1/ /SQ/**

103   okunan haberler en çok * haberler **/L1/** <u>the top or most **reminent**</u> okunan

104   desek **/CC/ /L1/** … <u>the most</u> merak edilen olabilir **reminent** . **/CC/ /L1/**

105   **/WR/** * hikaye günün en iyi hikayesi . önemli diyelim daha yok en önemli

106   hikayesi gibi bir şey . **/L1/ /TR/** neyse . <u>soon learn that ethical writing of hard</u>

107   <u>news . must be</u> **artictive** yani <u>contain only facts</u> **/SR/** sadece gerçekler **/TR/**

108   tık <u>not the journalist's opinion</u> ımm <u>and balanced contain both sides of a story</u>

109   hikayenin taraf/ her iki tarafında <u>contain</u> **/TR/ /WR/** denge **/TR/** <u>not the</u>

110   <u>journalist's opinion</u> gazetecilerin fikri . dengesi **/TR/ /SR/** . ımm tık

111   yapamayacağım **/MON/** <u>in any good in any good newspaper . ımm opinion is</u>

112   <u>clearly separated from hard news . opinion appears in advice columns</u> tavsiye

113   satırlarında fikirler görünür **/TR/** <u>in movie TV or book reviews in editorials</u>

114    and in letters to editor editör mektuplarında ımm gazete yorumlarında TVde

115    ve televizyonda olan şeyler görünürmüş **/TR/** … most of the rest of the

116    newspaper contains advertising . şu containsi bilsem her yerde çıkıyor **/MON/**

117    … how to get the most out of the paper and not **glurk** all day doing it **glurk**a

118    . **glurk /WR/** hatırlama* not **glurk** all day doing it like desek hoşlanmamak

119    bütün gün bişey yapmaktan hoşlanmamak **/CC/ /L1/ /TR/** nasıl . ımm gazete

120    dışardaki nasıl alınır falan herhalde **/TR/** . burada **/TR/** at this point okumaya

121    hazırız **/TR/** when ee okuduğumuzda özellikle . yeni bir dil diyor . bir dil

122    içindeki yenilik yeni gelen şeyler okuduğumuzda **/TR/** it is almost impossible

123    imkansız gibidir di/ diğer sayfaya başlamak **/TR/** . and . **wist** page ee through

124    doğru **/TR/ wist** page e doğru **/SR/ /TR/ wist** bir sıfat burda **/WR/ /PS/** it is

125    almost impossible to begin **/SR/** imkansız **/TR/** on page one  diğer . **/CC/ /L1/**

126    through the next page **/VER/** sonraki sayfaya doğru okumak **/L1/ /TR/** read

127    okumak . sonraki sayfaya doğru okumak **/WR/ /TR/ /L1/** … * değil ama

128    through **/WR/** … don't even think of trying this bunu denemeyi düşünme

129    **/TR/** . instead begin by throwing away the sections that you have no interest

130    in . this makes the paper a good deal thinner daha ince deal **/TR/ /WR/** next

131    **pretern** the rest of the paper sonra **/TR/ pretern** fiil büyük ihtimal **/WR/**

132    **/PS/** . **pretern** the rest of the paper gazetenin restine dönmek falan olabilir mi

133    **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/ /SQ/** this makes bu göster/ bu yapar gazeteyi iyi bir şey yapar

134    sonra **/SR/ /TR/** . turn * olur mu ki **/SQ/** … that is briefly özetçe **/TR/** look

135    over each section for articles articleların her bölümü üzerinde **/TR/** . look

136    gösteri/ ımm kısaca bakarsın özellikle ilgilendiğin yere çevirmek de olabilir

137    **/WR/ /TR/ /L1/  pretern** çevirmek veya dönmek . büyük ihtimal çevirmektir

138 turn . **/CC/ /L1/** <u>then go to the front page</u> sonraki sayfaya git . bu sayfada her

139 **predpine**ı oku **/WR/ /TR/** . <u>the title of every</u> he her articleın başlığını . he

140 başlıkmış demek ki olabilir **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** . her satır manşet başlık başlık

141 olabilir **/L1/** . (looks for the word on the other page + bir yerde daha var

142 mıydı **/SQ/**) manşet evet manşet daha mantıklı **/L1/** … <u>the title of</u>  her

143 articleın başlığı **/SR/ /TR/** . işaret olduğuna göre eş anlamlı büyük ihtimal

144 **/PN/** … başlık diyim buna . başlıktır büyük ihtimal **/L1/** çünkü gazetenin

145 ortasında manşet olmaz ilk sayfada olur sadece **/WK/** <u>you might be surprised</u>

146 şaşıracaksın ne kadar **/TR/** <u>you can learn from just the</u> **predpines** başlıklardan

147 öğrendiklerine ne kadar şaşıracaksın ne kadar öğrendiklerine şaşıracaksın

148 sonra **/TR/** ım <u>for each of these articles</u> bu başlıklar bu articlelar için **/TR/**

149 <u>read only the first paragraph or two</u> ilk paragraf veya ikinci paragrafı

150 okuyacaksın sadece **/TR/** <u>this is where you will find the</u> **reminent**

151 <u>information . this is you will where you will</u> **/SR/** nerede bulacaksın <u>the</u>

152 **<u>reminent</u>** <u>information</u> **/TR/ /SR/** . ımm **reminent** sıfat **/WR/ /PS/** important

153 demiştim ona . ımm önemli bilgileri **/TR/** <u>you will find</u> bulacaksın evet

154 olabilir important **/CC/ /TR/** . <u>who what when where why then you can move</u>

155 <u>on to a section that interests you</u> he <u>you can move</u> hareket edeceksin diğer

156 partlara doğru **/SR/ /TR/** <u>such as</u> eğlence örnek eğlence iş ve spor son olarak

157 **/TR/** <u>you might look for some small piece of information</u> son ımm . bir parça

158 bilgi şu/ bir parça bilgi arayacaksın **/TR/** <u>you need</u> şu anda ihtiyacın olan .

159 **/TR/** <u>the weather</u> herhalde örnek veriyor **/DK/ sidelt** <u>or . where a certain</u>

160 <u>movie is playing . movie is playing</u> **/SR/** . <u>the weather</u> hava durumu veya .

161 nerde ne oynuyor . **/CC/ /L1/ /TR/** hava durumu olabilir **/L1/** durum

162     hal situation da havayla kullanılır mı **/SQ/** . <u>the weather situation</u> **/VER/** .

163     hava durumu **/L1/** . tık olmaz büyük ihtimal (writes + durum + yazalım) <u>most</u>

164     **reminent** <u>most important</u> bu evet **/VER/** <u>don't worry</u> en önemlisi **/TR/** ımm

165     <u>don't worry too much about vocabulary</u> **/SR/** kelime  hakkında * cümle . he

166     anlamları contextten bağlamdan çıkartmak için tahmin yolunu yürüt ee veya

167     birkaç kelime için sözlük kullan **/TR/** <u>if you read the  paper several times</u> eğer

168     birkaç kez okursan haftada ee yeni şeyler keşfedeceksin tekrar tekrar

169     görünecek **/TR/** . bitti yapamadıklarım hangisi bunlara birşeyler dedim şuna

170     geri dönebilirim ımm <u>journalism students soon learn that ethical writing of</u>

171     <u>hard news</u> **/SR/** ımm zor haberlerin yazımı etik yazımı **/TR/** <u>must be **artictive**</u>

172     <u>must be</u> **/SR/** <u>art/</u> . <u>must be shown</u> **/VER/** ne olabilir **/SQ/** gösterecek **/L1/**

173     ımm . <u>balanced</u> denge **/WR/ /TR/** ımm . <u>ethical writing of hard news</u> şimdi *

174     yapamayacağım **/MON/** diğer bir deyişle **/TR/** <u>only facts</u> **/SR/** sade gerçekleri

175     <u>contain</u> eden **/TR/ /WR/** . gösteren **/L1/ /SQ/** neyse gösteren diyelim yazalım

176     … galiba bu kadar

APPENDIX K

SAMPLE CODED THINK-ALOUD PROTOCOL 2

(TRANSLATED VERSION)

1    <u>how to read a newspaper</u> ee *how a newspaper is read* **/TR/** <u>you sometimes</u>

2    <u>ask me for</u> ee *we sometimes ask* **/TR/ pracks** *we want you want from me*

3    **/WR/ /TR/ pracks** *you want . it can be information it can be* news **/CC/**

4    **/TR/ /L1/** <u>you want quick and easy ways to learn this language</u> ee *easy ways*

5    *to learn this language you want to learn this language easily and quickly*

6    **/TR/** <u>sometimes</u> ee *you want* **/TR/** *anyway* ee *to learn a huge dictionary read*

7    *fast and understand more can this be practical?* **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/ /SQ/** <u>to</u>

8    <u>become good writers</u> ee *to become a good writer more and to understand*

9    *more and read faster OK you want magic .* ımm *I have a secret* **pracks** *in my*

10    *hand* **/TR/ /WR/** <u>I am I have some</u> *a secret there are secret magic* **pracks** *it*

11    *can be information* **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** … <u>I am **danding** not letting you have</u> .

12    ımm <u>I am **danding** not letting you have</u> **/SR/** *the permission I have got*

13    *without permission that I have without permission* **/TR/ /L1/** <u>I am **danding**</u>

14    **/SR/** … *this is not true* **/TR/** ee <u>there are no easy **pracks**</u> . *there aren't any*

15    *easy* **pracks /TR/ /WR/** *OK* <u>but there are some techniques</u> *but there are*

16    *some techniques there are techniques that work better than others the best of*

17    *these … is to read an English language newspaper* **/TR/** *this an adverb* **/PS/**

18    *to read in what manner?* **/SQ/** *I can think I am thinking* **/TR/** ( *reads in a low*

19    *voice + \*)* **chaningly** . *the best of these techniques in my opinion is to read an*

139

20  *English language newspaper in a kind of manner but to read how* **/TR/ /SQ/**

21  … this will allow you to kill two birds with one stone . ee *this will let you kill*

22  *two birds this is something that will let you kill two birds with one stone*  ıım

23  . **/TR/** well actually three birds . increase your vocabulary *your dictionary*

24  *will increase*  **/TR/** increase **/WR/** ee *your reading abilities will improve . and*

25  *you will learn get informed about how you should write .* ıım *newspaper  \**

26  *is very difficult it can be more probable*  **/TR/** (reads in a very low voice + \*)

27  [*if you could talk loudly*]

28  if you read the paper **chaningly** *if newspaper you read in a .* **chaningly**

29  *manner for several weeks*  **/CC/ /TR/** . ıım because you will see the same

30  vocabulary over and over *because you will see the same words* **/TR/** .

31  **chaningly**? … *it can be carefully …* **/CC/ /L1/** a perfect sunday *a perfect*

32  *sunday when I was you/ young*  ıım *when newly married my spouse .* **/TR/**

33  ıım **glurk** *verb was doing something* **/PS/ /TR/** most of every sunday

34  reading The Times ıım . *almost every sunday read*  Times . *it can be like*

35  **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** used to . like  *it can be* **/VER/** *a verb that was done in the*

36  *past but not done now .* **/PS/** we made a big pot of coffee ee and lay on the

37  living room floor *we lied wandered on the living room flo/ floor* **/TR/** by

38  sections of the paper *we had a look at the newspapers . national and*

39  *international news business sports entertainment book opinions .* **/TR/**

40  occasionally . (in a low voice + occasionally) **/WR/** we read something

41  *read something* **/TR/** **adant** to each other . ıım *we read something to each*

42  *other* **/TR/** . something . (in a low voice + **adant** to) **/SR/** . just listen to *listen*

43  *to this you won't believe this* something interesting **/CC/ /TR/ /VER/** \* *is it*

44    *that we read interesting things .* **/L1/ /SQ/** (in a low voice + something <u>*</u> to

44    each other ) **/SR/** something interesting things *it would be two words anyway*

45    **/VER/** *time to time we exchanged sections* **/TR/** . ee <u>it was a lovely way to</u>

46    **glurk** . <u>a leisurely sunday</u> *I said like for this* <u>it was a lovely way</u> *this is a good*

47    *way* to like a *it can be* **/CC/ /TR/ /VER/** <u>but it did take almost the whole day</u>

48    *we could do take whole day now I can't imagine* **/TR/ glurking** <u>so much I</u>

49    <u>can't imagine</u> **glurking** <u>so much time reading the paper</u> **/SR/** *I can't imagine*

50    *liking to read a newspaper for such a long time* **/TR/ /L1/ /VER/** <u>now I have</u>

51    <u>to be efficient and practical</u> *I should do more practice and* **/TR/** <u>I have picked</u>

52    <u>up a few suggestions that I can share with you</u> . hı . <u>which paper first you</u>

53    <u>need to choose a newspaper and know which not to choose</u> *to choose* **/TR/**

54    <u>which not to</u> ee <u>choose</u> **/SR/** *not to choose not to choose what* **/TR/ /SQ/**

55    *familiar* **/TR/** (murmurs when reading + <u>you need to choose a newspaper</u>)

56    **/SR/** *if you need to choose a newspaper and know which to choose* **/TR/** <u>in</u>

57    <u>some English speaking countries</u> *in some countries where English is spoken*

58    **/TR/** <u>as you wait in the checkout line at the supermarket</u> *you wait at the*

59    *supermarket* **/TR/** <u>you might notice something that looks like a newspaper</u>

60    *something that looks like a newspaper* ee *you notice something* **/TR/** <u>you read</u>

61    <u>the **predpines**</u> *it can be headlines* **/CC/ /L1/** … ımm <u>you read the **predpines**</u>

62    <u>woman gives birth to baby with two heads</u> ımm *a baby with two heads was*

63    *born or* Elvis Presley *was seen in* Texas *in a bus station or*  UFO*s from*  Mars

64    UFO*s yes this is headline* **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** <u>trust me</u> *trust me these are not*

65    *newspapers . these are* **/TR/** <u>rubbish</u> ımm (in a low voice + *more*) **/TR/** <u>they</u>

66    <u>are called tabloid newspaper</u> *these . are called by a different name they are*

67    *not newspapers* **/TR/** *more simple the worst example* ee *the worst example of*

68    *yellow* journalism **/TR/** newspaper writing that is full of **bissip** *newspapers*

69    *are writing things full of* **bissip** *it can be a lie* **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** *half truth* ım .

70    *half truth …* **/TR/ /WR/** and too many exclamation marks writing that is full

71    of *full of lies it can also be lie .* **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** if your goal is just to learn

72    *for that* (writes in the paper + lies + *let's say* not true) if your goal ımm *

73    learn a little vocabulary *to learn a little vocabulary a little fun go read* **/TR/**

74    but don't expect to find *but don't expect* **/TR/** find **hatal** news or good

75    writing or the truth ımm good writing *and truth* **/SR/ /TR/** *I will say real*

76    *news it used real .* **/L1/** *don't expect to find don't expect to find what kind of*

77    *news* **/TR/ /SQ/** *it is real anyway* **/L1/** *don't expect to find real news or well*

78    *written truths . something like don't expect you can't find truth/* he real news

79    *anyway* **/TR/ /L1/ /VER/** *a real newspaper* **/TR/** *such as* Christian Science

80    Monitor *as an example* **/TR/** . International Herald Tribune USA Today

81    (turns the page) what you will find . you will find **/SR/** *what you will find .*

82    ımm *then . you need information about the different sections of the*

83    *newspaper . this will help you to decide how* ee *what to read* **/TR/** (in a low

84    voice + skip . in most English language papers) *many English language*

85    *English newspapers* **/TR/** hard news is in the first section *in the first section*

86    *difficult news is it* **/TR/ /SQ/** . beginning on the front page *begins in front of*

87    *the page* **/TR/** *this is something like headline* **/L1/ /WK/** hard news

88    **mintends** everything that has happened that day hard news **mintends**

89    everything that has happened *yeah it can be that it summarizes everything*

90    *that has happened today* **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** politics crime scientific *politics*

91    *crime scientific discoveries economy it can be a short information summary*

92    *about all these* **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** *but here it is a verb* **/PS/** *to summarize* **/L1/** .

93    summary *what else*  briefly brief … *what is the meaning of it as a verb* brief

94    *summary … (in a low voice + briefs? can it be used like this)* **/L1/ /SQ/** the

95    top or most **reminent** news story of the day **reminent** *they make up the top*

96    *from new newspaper stories* **/WR/ /TR/** be found in the upper right * *on the*

97    *page* **/TR/** hand corner of the front page *at the cor/ corner of the next page*  ee

98    *journalism * anyway students learn to write ethical well  to write the ethic of*

99    hard news **/TR/** must be **artictive** in the other words *if it says in other words*

100   *this can be its synonym* **/TR/ /DK/** contain only facts *it can be something that*

101   contain *only the facts* **/TR/ /WR/** hı journalism students soon learn that

102   ethical writing of hard news em * *it can be*  **artictive** *can be* **/WR/** *in other*

103   *words it can be* contain *only the fact* **/TR/ /WR/** … *I skipped this* the top or

104   most **reminent** **/SR/** top *can it be the news that are read most* . **/CC/ /L1/**

105   **/SQ/** *the news read most * news* **/L1/** the top or most  **reminent** *let's say that*

106   *are read* **/CC/ /L1/** … the most *wondered it can be* **reminent** . **/CC/ /L1/**

107   **/WR/** * *story the best story of the day* . *let's say important more no most*

108   *important anyway* . soon learn that ethical writing of hard news . must be

109   **artictive** *well* contain only facts **/SR/** *only the facts* **/TR/** tık not the

110   journalist's opinion ımm and balanced contain both sides of a story *si/ both*

111   *sides of the story* contain **/TR/ /WR/** *balance* **/TR/** not the  journalist's

112   opinion *journalists' opinions . balance*  **/TR/ /SR/** . ımm tık *I won't be able to*

113   *do*  **/MON/**  in any good in any good newspaper . ımm opinion is clearly


143

114    <u>separated from hard news . opinion appears in advice columns</u> *in advice lines*

115    *opinions appear* **/TR/** <u>in movie TV or book reviews in editorials and in letters</u>

116    <u>to editor</u> *in editor letters* ımm *newspaper comments on* TV *and television*

117    *appears the things that happened* **/TR/** … <u>most of the rest of the newspaper</u>

118    <u>contains advertising</u> . *if only I knew this* contains *it appeaes everywhere*

119    **/MON/** … <u>how to get the most out of the paper and not</u> **glurk** <u>all day doing it</u>

120    **glurk**a . **glurk /WR/** *remember* * <u>not</u> **glurk** <u>all day doing it</u> *say* like *not to*

121    *like not to like doing something all day* **/CC/ /L1/ /TR/** *how* . ımm *it is how a*

122    *newspaper outside is bought probably* **/TR/** . *here* **/TR/** <u>at this point</u> *we are*

123    *ready to read* **/TR/** <u>when</u> ee *we read especially* . *a new language it says* .

124    *novelty in a language when we reaed the new things* **/TR/** <u>it is almost</u>

125    <u>impossible</u> *it is almost impossible to start the ot/ other page* **/TR/** . <u>and .</u> **wist**

126    <u>page ee through</u> *towards* **/TR/** *towards the* **wist** <u>page</u> **/SR/ /TR/** **wist** *is an*

127    *adjective here* **/WR/ /PS/** <u>it is almost impossible to begin</u> **/SR/** *impossible*

128    **/TR/** <u>on page one</u> *other* . **/CC/ /L1/** <u>through the next page</u> **/VER/** *to read*

129    *towards the next page* **/L1/ /TR/** <u>read</u> *to read* . *to read towards the next page*

130    **/WR/ /TR/ /L1/** … * *not but* <u>through</u> **/WR/** … <u>don't even think of trying this</u>

131    *don't think of trying this* **/TR/** . <u>instead begin by throwing away the sections</u>

132    <u>that you have no interest in . this makes the paper a good deal thinner</u> *thinner*

133    <u>deal</u> **/TR/ /WR/** <u>next</u> **pretern** <u>the rest of the paper</u> *then* **/TR/** **pretern** *verb*

134    *most probably* **/WR/ /PS/** . **pretern** <u>the rest of the paper</u> *can it be to return to*

135    *the rest of the newspaper* **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/ /SQ/** <u>this makes</u> *this show/ this*

136    *makes makes the newspaper a good thing* **/SR/ /TR/** . *turn* * *can it be* **/SQ/** …

137    <u>that is briefly</u> *in summary* **/TR/** <u>look over each section for articles</u> *on every*

138    *section of the* articles **/TR/** . <u>look</u> *showi/* ımm *briefly you look at the place*

139    *especially  you are interested in it can also be to turn* **/WR/ /TR/ /L1/**

140    **pretern** *turn or return  most probably turn* turn **/CC/ /L1/** <u>then go to the front</u>

141    <u>page</u> *go to the next page . on this page read each*  **predpine /WR/ /TR/** . <u>the</u>

142    <u>title of every</u> *yeah the title of every article . yeah so it is title it can be* **/CC/**

143    **/TR/ /L1/** . *every line headline title it can be title*  **/L1/** . (looks for the word

144    on the other page + *did it appear in another place*) **/SQ/** *headline yes*

145    *headline more logical* **/L1/** … <u>the title of</u>  *the title of every article* **/SR/ /TR/** .

146    *as there is hyphen a synonym most probably* **/PN/** … *let me say title for this .*

147    *it is title most probably* **/L1/** *because there aren't headlines in the middle of*

148    *the newspaper they are on the first page only* **/WK/** <u>you might be surprised</u>

149    *you will be surprised how much* **/TR/** <u>you can learn from just the</u> **predpines**

150    *you will be surprised how much you have learnt from the titles how much you*

151    *will be surprised then* **/TR/** ım <u>for each of these articles</u> *these titles for these*

152    article*s* **/TR/** <u>read only the first paragraph or two</u> *you will read the first or the*

153    *second paragraph only* **/TR/** <u>this is where you will find the</u> **reminent**

154    <u>information . this is you will where you will</u> **/SR/** *where you will find*  <u>the</u>

155    **reminent** <u>information</u> **/TR/ /SR/** . ımm **reminent** *adjective* **/WR/ /PS/** *I said*

156    important *for that* . ımm *important information* **/TR/** <u>you will find</u> *you will*

157    *find yes it can be*  important **/CC/ /TR/** . <u>who what when where why then you</u>

158    <u>can move on to a section that interests you</u> *yeah*  <u>you can move</u> *you will move*

159    *to the other* part*s* **/SR/ /TR/** <u>such as</u> *entertainment example entertainment*

160    *business and sports last* **/TR/** <u>you might look for some small piece of</u>

161  information *last* ımm *. a piece of information th/ you will look for a piece of*

162  *information* **/TR/** you need *that you need at the moment .* **/TR/** the weather

163  *probably it is giving an example* **/DK/** **sidelt** or *. where a certain movie is*

164  playing *. movie is playing* **/SR/** *.* the weather *weather situation or . what is*

165  *playing where* *.* **/CC/ /L1/ /TR/** *it can be weather situation* **/L1/** *situation*

166  *condition can* situation *be also used with weather* **/SQ/** *.* the weather situation

167  **/VER/** *. weather situation* **/L1/** *.* tık *can't be most probably* (writes +

168  *situation + let's write*) most **reminent** most important *this yes* **/VER/** don't

169  worry *most important* **/TR/** ımm don't worry too much about vocabulary **/SR/**

170  *about vocabulary * sentence . yeah to infer the meanings from context guess*

171  ee *or use a dictionary for a few words* **/TR/** if you read the paper several

172  times *if you read several times a week* ee *you will discover new things it will*

173  *appear again and again* **/TR/** *. finished which ones I couldn't do I said*

174  *something for these I can turn back for that* ımm journalism students soon

175  learn that ethical writing of hard news **/SR/** ımm *the writing of difficult news*

176  *their ethical writing* **/TR/** must be **artictive** must be **/SR/** art/ *. must be shown*

177  **/VER/** *what can it be* **/SQ/** *it will show* **/L1/** ımm *.* balanced *balance* **/WR/**

178  **/TR/** ımm *.* ethical writing of hard news *now * I won't be able to do* **/MON/**

179  *in other words* **/TR/** only facts **/SR/** *that* contain *only facts* **/TR/ /WR/** *. that*

180  *show* **/L1/ /SQ/** *anyway let's say write that show … I think that's all*

## SAMPLE CODED RETROSPECTIVE INTERVIEW 1

1  İ:      ilk kelime **pracks** için questions olabilir demişsin ne yardım etti

        tahmin etmene

    B:      bir şey bulamayınca burada <u>ask</u> geçtiği için herhalde **/CC/**

    İ:      ee sonraki kelime **danding** için hiçbir şey söylememişsin neydi seni

5         zorlayan acaba orada

    B:      bu bir kere fiil olduğu için milyonlarca şey olabilir **/PS/** <u>I am</u> **danding**

        yani bir sürü şey olabilir bir şey şey yapamadım **/CC/ /MON/**

    İ:      anladım sonraki kelime **chaningly** için bir adverb demişsin nerden

        anladın

10  B:      işte sonundaki ly harfleri **/MK/**

    İ:      sonra often olabilir demişsin nereden çıkarım yaptın

    B:      biraz o şey gibi olmuş uydurma tarzında bir şey olmuş pek alakası yok

        **/VER/** şimdi başka bir şey geldi aklıma da

    İ:      ama o beni ilgilendirmiyor o zaman ne düşündün sana oftenı buldurtan

15       onu hatırlayamıyor musun

    B:      … hatırlamıyorum uydurmuşum gibi biraz da şimdi güzel bir şey geldi

        aklıma

    İ:      ee sonraki kelime **glurk**ü ilk gördüğünde ambitious demişsin ee sana

        ambitious dedirten neydi acaba ilk gördüğünde sonrakileri görmeden

20  B:      <u>most of every sunday</u>  pazarları böyle ısrarla yapıyor ya **/CC/ /L1/**

| | İ: | sonra parçayı tekrar okuduğunda bir fiil olduğunu anlamışsın nasıl |
|---|---|---|
| | B: | şurada way to **glurk** dediğine göre to dan sonra fiil gelir **/CC/ /PS/** |
| | İ: | sonra da spend zaman harcamak demişsin nasıl buldun |
| | B: | hepsinin sonunda bir zaman gelmiş sunday işte sunday falan mutlaka |
| 25 | | dedim zamanla ilgilidir **/CC/ /IAC/** |
| | İ: | evet sonraki kelime **adant** için ilgilendiren demişsin nasıl buldun |
| | B: | şimdi just listen to this you won't believe it falan deyince hani böyle |
| | | değişik bir şey görmüş diğerine gösteriyor dedim herhalde enteresan |
| | | bir şey **/CC/ /L1/** |
| 30 | İ: | **predpines** için bölüm ya da başlık demişsin ne düşündün |
| | B: | tırnak içinde vermiş woman gives birth to baby baş harfleri büyük |
| | | falan **/PN/ /CC/** |
| | İ: | peki ee **bissip** için dedikodu gossip demişsin ne düşündün |
| | B: | **bissip** deyince hani orada gossip **bissip** gibi okunuyor diye |
| 35 | | düşündüm **/CC/ /IP/** işte half-truth falan demiş yani yarı gerçek falan |
| | | **/CC/ /TR/** |
| | İ: | **hatal** için useful demişsin onu nereden çıkardın |
| | B: | truth good writing falan deyince herhalde dedim olumlu güzel birşey |
| | | **/CC/ /WK/** newsdan önce zaten bir sıfat gelecek useful **/CC/ /PS/** |
| 40 | İ: | peki **mintends** için içermek include demişsin nasıl karar verdin |
| | B: | işte haberler herşey diyor haber herşeyi ne yapar içerir diye düşündüm |
| | | **/TR/ /CC/ /SQ/ /WK/ /L1 /** |
| | İ: | **reminent** için ilgi çekici ya da wanted demişsin niye |
| | B: | ee düşündüm düşündüm bulamadım **/MON/** sonra most deyince **/CC/** |

| 45 | | de aklıma bilgisayar oyununun adı geldi most wanted diye **/WK/** onu koydum mantıklı geldi sonra dedim bu tamam **/VER/** |
| | İ: | evet **artictive** objective olabilir demişsin |
| | B: | <u>only facts</u> deyince hani sadece gerçekleri içeren bir şey objective olur yani **/CC/ /TR/ /WK/** |
| 50 | İ: | evet **wist** için next demişsin onu nereden buldun |
| | B: | <u>read through</u> deyince hani direk bir sonraki sayfaya geçersin diye düşündüm <u>through the next page</u> **/CC/ /L1/ /VER/** |
| | İ: | anladım **pretern** için have a look at demişsin nasıl buldun |
| | B: | <u>rest of the paper</u> deyince okumayla ilgili bir eylem olacağı kesin diye |
| 55 | | düşündüm **/CC/ /PS/** read falan da biraz basit olur diye have a look at dedim |
| | İ: | son olarak **sidelt** için weather situation ya da |
| | B: | Türkçe düşünmüşüm biraz **/IEC/** |
| | İ: | evet (laughs) ama sonra da weather report demişsin nasıl buldun |
| 60 | B: | pek bir şey gelmedi aklıma <u>weather</u>dan sonra da direk aklıma <u>weather</u> ne olabilir ki diye düşündüm **/CC/ /SQ/ /IAC/** hava durumu **/IEC/** |

SAMPLE CODED RETROSPECTIVE INTERVIEW 1

(TRANSLATED VERSION)

1   İ:   *for the first word* **pracks** *you said* questions *what helped you guess*

    B:   *as I couldn't find anything probably because there* is <u>ask</u> *here* **/CC/**

    İ:   ee *for the next word* **danding** *you didn't say anything what challenged you there*

5   B:   *it can be a million things as this is a verb* **/PS/** <u>I am</u> **danding** *well it can be a lot of things I couldn't do anything* **/CC/ /MON/**

    İ:   *I see for the next word* **chaningly** *you said an adverb where did you understand it from*

    B:   *well the letters* ly **/MK/**

10  İ:   *then you said that it could be* often *where did you infer it from*

    B:   *a little that was something like something made-up it is not quite related* /V**ER/** *now something else came to my mind*

    İ:   *but that doesn't concern me what did you think at that time that made you find often can't you remember that*

15  B:   … *I can't seems like I made it up a little bit now something good came to my mind*

    İ:   ee *when you saw the next word* **glurk** *first you said* ambitious ee *what was it that made you say ambitious when you first saw it before you saw the others*

20 B:     <u>most of every sunday</u> *he does it insistently on sundays* **/CC/ /L1/**

İ:     *then when you read the text again you understood that it was a verb*

       *how*

B:     *here as it says* <u>way to **glurk**</u> *there comes a verb after* <u>to</u> **/CC/ /PS/**

İ:     *then you said* spend *spend time how did you find it*

25 B:     *there came a time after all of them* <u>sunday</u> *well* <u>sunday</u> *well I said it is*

       *certainly related to time* **/CC/ /IAC/**

İ:     *yes for the next word* **adant** *you said interested how did you find it*

B:     *now as it says* <u>just listen to this you won't believe it</u> *well I said she*

       *saw something different showing it to the other probably something*

30     *interesting* **/CC/ /L1/**

İ:     *for* **predpines** *you said section or title what did you think*

B:     *it gave in quotation marks* <u>woman gives birth to baby</u> *well all the first*

       *letters capitalized* **/PN/ /CC/**

İ:     *OK ee for* **bissip** *you said gossip* gossip *what did you think*

35 B:     *when it says* <u>**bissip**</u> *well there* gossip *sounds like* **bissip** *I thought* **/CC/**

       **/IP/** *well it said* <u>half-truth</u> *that is half true* **/CC/ /TR/**

İ:     *for* **hatal** *you said* useful *where did you infer it from*

B:     *as it said* <u>truth good writing</u> *I said probably something positive good*

40     **/CC/ /WK/** *also before* <u>news</u> *an adjective will come* **/CC/ /PS/**

İ:     *OK for* **mintends** *you said contain* include *how did you decide*

B:     *well it says news everything what does news do everything includes I*

       *thought* **/TR/ /CC/ /SQ/ /WK/ /L1 /**

İ:     *for* **reminent** *you said interesting or* wanted *why*

| 45 | B: | ee *I thought and thought couldn't find* **/MON/** *then as it says* <u>most</u> |
| | | **/CC/** *the name of a computer game which is* most wanted *came to my* |
| | | *mind* **/WK/** *I put it it seemed logical then I said it's OK* **/VER/** |
| | İ: | *yes* **artictive** *you said that it could be* objective |
| | B: | *when it says* <u>only facts</u> *well something that only contains facts can be* |
| 50 | | objective **/CC/ /TR/ /WK/** |
| | İ: | *yes for* **wist** *you said* next *where did you find it* |
| | B: | *when it says* <u>read through</u> *well directly I thought that you go to the* |
| | | *next page*   <u>through the next page</u> **/CC/ /L1/ /VER/** |
| | İ: | *I see for* **pretern** *you said* have a look at *how did you find it* |
| 55 | B: | when it says <u>rest of the paper</u> I thoght it is certain that it is something |
| | | related to reading **/CC/ /PS/** read *might be a little simple so I said* |
| | | have a look at |
| | İ: | *last for* **sidelt** weather situation *or* |
| | B: | *I thought a little bit in Turkish* **/IEC/** |
| 60 | İ: | *yes* (laughs) *but then you said* weather report *how did you find it* |
| | B: | *not much came to my mind after* <u>weather</u> *directly to my mind* <u>weather</u> |
| | | *what can it be I thought* **/CC/ /SQ/ /IAC/** *weather situation* **/IEC/** |

SAMPLE CODED RETROSPECTIVE INTERVIEW 2

1      İ:      ilk kelime **pracks** bilgi ya da haber olabilir demişsin sana ne yardım

etti hatırlıyor musun

F:      ımm bir tekrar etmem lazım cümleyi … (reads silently) yani burda

sonraki cümlede hızlı ve kolay yolla bir şey öğreniyor bir dil

5        öğreniyor ve ee ondan önceki cümlede bir şey ister ve ondan sonra

öğrenir **/TR/ /CC/** bilgiyi ister diye düşündüm yani bilgi olmazsa

öğrenemez diye düşündüm aslında **/L1/ /WK/**

İ:      sonradan geçtiğinde oldu mu düşündüğün bir şey

F:      evet <u>there are no easy</u> **pracks** **/SR/** demiş ben de bunu üsttekine bilgi

10       deyince bunu yerine koydum kolay bilgi yoktur yazıyor mantıklı geldi

onda karar kıldım **/VER/ /TR/**

İ:      evet güzel sonraki kelime **danding** için sanırım bir fikrin yokmuş

neden zor bulduğunu hatırlıyor musun

F:      bilmiyorum yani hiç aklıma gelmedi o gün düşündüm bir şeyler

15       koymayı ama mantıklı gelmeyince . **/MON/** koymadım

İ:      sonraki kelime **chaningly** hemen görür görmez bu zarf demişsin

öncelikle zarf olduğunu düşündürten şey neydi sana

F:      sonundaki ly ekiydi zarflarda genellikle onlar oluyor **/MK/**

İ:      sonra da dikkatlice olabilir demişsin

20     F:      evet carefully

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İ:      buna nasıl karar verdin

F:      ee . bu tekniklerin en iyisi demiş … bir gazeteyi bir şekilde okumak

        diye geçiyor **/TR/ /CC/** hızlı okumak olabilirdi işte hızlı okuyunca

        anlamak daha zor olabilir belki ee … haftada birkaç

25      kez … şu anda aklıma gelmiyor aslında

İ:      anladım sonraki kelime **glurk** için ilk önce hemen bu bir

F:      fiil **/PS/**

İ:      evet sana fiil olduğunu düşündürten neydi

F:      <u>used to</u> kullanmış used to alışkanlıklarla ilgili bir fiil yani eskiden

30      yapıp şu anda yapmadığı bir şey ve yani used to dan sonra fiil gelir

        diye hatırlıyorum öyle düşündüm **/CC/ /PS/**

İ:      evet sonra da sevmek demişsin ee acaba ne düşündün bu da yine

        birden fazla geçen bir kelimeydi

F:      ee birincide yerine koydum birincide onu düşündüm ya eşimle ben

35      önceden işte ee her pazar Timesı okumaktan bir şey yapardık **/CC/**

        **/TR/** diye düşündüm o bir şey de like olabilir dedim yani okumaktan

        hoşlanabilirler diye düşündüm **/L1/** ve diğer **glurk** geçen her yere de

        like koyup kontrol ettim ve yani mantıklı geldi **/VER/**

İ:      ee sonraki kelime şey **adant** için interesting demişsin ne düşündün

40  F:  he interestingi söyleme nedeni ondan bir iki cümle sonrası <u>just listen</u>

        <u>to this you won't believe it</u> yani bunu sadece dinle inanamayacaksın

        dediğine göre ilginç bir şey olabilir **/TR/ /CC/ /L1/** yani biz neye

        inanamayız **/SQ/** böyle ilginç şeylere inanamayız diye düşündüm

        **/WK/** bir iki sonraki cümle etkiledi beni

154

| 45 | İ: | ee **predpine**ı görür görmez manşet demişsin nasıl karar verdin |
|---|---|---|
|  | F: | tırnak içindeki şeyleri gördüm gazete başlıklarını **/PN/ /CC/** ve yani |
|  |  | gazetenin ilk sayfasında genelde ayrıntılar değil de içindeki haberler |
|  |  | yazar manşetler veya başlıklar yazar **/WK/** direk o geldi aklıma o |
|  |  | şeyleri gördüğümde o başlıkları gördüğümde |
| 50 | İ: | tekrar geçiyor **predpine** orada görünce |
|  | F: | başlık **/L1/** |
|  | İ: | başlık olabilir manşet olamaz herhalde çünkü manşetler ilk sayfada |
|  |  | olur sadece demişsin |
|  | F: | sizin de söylediğiniz gibi ilk başta manşet dedim manşet benim |
| 55 |  | bildiğim kadarıyla ilk sayfada olur **/L1/ /WK/** ama burada her |
|  |  | sayfadaki **predpine**ları okuduğunuzda **/CC/ /TR/** işte ondan |
|  |  | bahsetmiş ve her sayfada da manşet olmaz gibi geldi bana başlık |
|  |  | olabilir dedim **/L1/** yani ilk sayfada da başlıklar olabilir ortada da |
|  |  | olabilir sonda da manşet sadece ilk sayfada olur diye düşündüm **/WK/** |
| 60 | İ: | sonra **bissip**i görünce de yalan olabilir demişsin ne düşündün |
|  | F: | he he yalan veya yarı doğru dedim **/L1/** çünkü ee **bissip**ten sonra iki |
|  |  | virgül arasında bir kelime var <u>half-truths</u> ve bildiğim kadarıyla bu |
|  |  | şekilde verildiğinde eş anlamlısı veya yakın anlamlısı oluyor daha iyi |
|  |  | anlamamız için ifade ediliyor **/PN/ /CC/** ve <u>half-truths</u> yarı doğru |
| 65 |  | demek **/CC/ /TR/** ben onun yarı doğru veya yalan yanlış bir şey |
|  |  | olabileceğini düşündüm **/L1/** bir de <u>full of</u> diyor yalanlarla dolu bir |
|  |  | gazete de mantıklı **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/ /VER/** öyle gazeteler var **/WK/** |
|  | İ: | sonraki kelimemiz **hatal** real olur demişsin nasıl karar verdin |

F:      ee burada şey diyor ama ee daha öncesine bakayım bir iki cümle

70      gerisine gideyim biraz eğlence var diyor git ve oku diyor ama **hatal**
        <u>news</u>ları bulmayı umma diyor **/TR/ /CC/** gerçek haberleri bulmayı
        umma mantıklı geldi çünkü eğlenceden bahsediyor burada <u>have some</u>
        <u>fun</u> **/L1/ /TR/ /CC/** eğlenceler her zaman gerçek olaylardan
        kaynaklanmaz biraz da hayal ürünü olabilir diye düşündüm **/WK/**

75      burada <u>or</u> kullanmış ee işte burada dedim gerçek haberleri bulmayı
        umma veya iyi yazılmış gerçekleri umma yazıyor devamında da <u>or</u>
        dediği için yine eş anlamlı olabileceğini düşündüm <u>or</u> da çünkü eş
        anlamlılar için kullanılabiliyor aynı virgül gibi iki virgül gibi öyle
        düşündüm **/TR/ /DK/ /PN/**

80  İ:  evet güzel ee sonraki kelime **mintends** için özetliyor olabilir demişsin
        ee bir fiil olduğuna karar vermişsin ee nasıl karar verdin

    F:  heh fiil olduğunu düşündüm çünkü s takısı var **/PS/ /MK/** işte şey bu
        present simple olduğunu düşündüm hem de fiil gelmek zorunda
        burada fiili yok cümlenin ımm günün olan şeylerini yani bugün ne

85      olduysa onları **mintends** yapıyormuş **/TR/** özetliyor olarak düşündüm
        **/L1/** çünkü tırnak işaretinden sonra <u>politics crime scientific</u>
        <u>discoveries</u> falan var işte politika suç ve bilimsel deneyler hakkında
        özet verir diye düşündüm yani **/PN/ /CC/ /TR/ /L1/** beni etkileyen şu
        <u>politics crime scientific discoveries economics weather</u> oldu onları

90      görünce dedim kesin özettir veya kısa başlıklar gibi bir şey düşündüm
        **/CC/ /L1/**

    İ:  sonraki kelimemiz **reminent**ı okuduktan sonra şey demişsin

F:      important

İ:      evet important olduğuna nasıl karar verdin

95  F:  ee en sondakini <u>most</u>la kullanmış **/CC/** sonra <u>don't worry too much</u>
        <u>about vocabulary</u> yani sözlük hakkında üzülme demiş **/TR/ /CC/** yani
        en önemlisi sözlük hakkında üzülme mantıklı geldi bana **/L1/ /TR/**
        **/VER/** burada yani bir öncekinde <u>this is where you will find the</u>
        **reminent** information he önemli bilgileri ee bulacaksın yerine

100     koyduğumda burada da çok mantıklı geldi **/CC/ /L1/ /VER/** ee bunları
        görünce ilkine döndüm tekrar <u>most important news</u> demiş yine burada
        yerine koyunca işte günün en önemli hikayeleri diye düşündüm **/VER/**
        **/TR/ /L1/** sadece yerine koyduğumda mantıklı geldi hepsinde de

    İ:  ee **artictive** için gerçekleri gösteren demişsin ne düşündün

105 F:  ee burada <u>in the other words</u>ten sonrasına çok dikkat ettim çünkü diğer
        bir deyişle dediği için büyük ihtimal ona yakın bir şey söyleyecek
        **/DK/** ve tırnak işaretinde <u>contain only facts</u> demiş **/PN/ /CC/** sadece
        gerçekleri contain eder **/TR/** containin anlamını bilmediğim için
        **/MON/** o an gösterir geldi aklıma sadece gerçekleri gösterir mantıklı

110     geldi **/TR/ /L1/ /VER/** bu tarafa döndüğümde hıı <u>must be **artictive**</u>
        yani göstermek zorundadır dedim **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** burayı baştan
        okuyayım … ee zor haberlerin etik yazımlarını gösterir diğer bir
        deyişle … he gazetecilerin fikrini değil gerçekleri gösterir gibi bir şey
        düşündüm **/TR/ /L1/ /CC/**

115 İ:  evet ee **wist** için sıfat demişsin ve next olduğunu düşünmüşsün nasıl
        karar verdin

157

F:    … next olduğuna nasıl karar verdim **/SQ/** hatırlayamıyorum **/MON/**

İ:    hatırlayamıyorsun tamam sonra **pretern**i görünce fiil demişsin

dönmek çevirmek olabilir demişsin ne düşündün

120  F:    sayfadan bahsediyordu yani paperdan bahsettiği için **/CC/** ee ve bir

sonraki sayfada başka haberler olabilir **/WK/** burada çünkü şey demiş

ee briefly şey özetle **/CC/ /TR/** ee articleların her bölümü özellikle

senin ilgilendiklerin demiş **/TR/** … paper deyince sayfa ne yapılır diye

düşündüm sayfa büyük ihtimal çevrilir diye düşündüm **/WK/**

125  İ:    son kelime **sidelt** için hava durumu demişsin nasıl karar verdin

F:    ee . or kullanmış **/CC/ /DK/** … yani küçük bir bilgi vardı demiş ve

senin şu anda ihtiyacın olan **/TR/** sonra tire işaretinde bunun örneğini

vermiş ee ya oynayan bir film ya da hava durumu diye düşündüm

**/PN/ /CC/ /TR/ /L1/** çünkü gazetelerde hava durumu sıkça verilir

130    **/WK/** ve burada örnek olduğunu düşündüm çünkü iki tırnak arasında

kullanılmış ve orla bağlanmış **/PN/ /DK/** ondan sonraki cümle bir

filmin oynamasıysa diğeri de ona benzer bir örnek diye düşündüm bir

gazetede olan başka bir örnek diye düşündüm **/ DK/** hava durumu **/L1/**

APPENDIX O

SAMPLE CODED RETROSPECTIVE INTERVIEW 2

(TRANSLATED VERSION)

1    İ:    *first word* **pracks** *you said it could be information or news do you*

             *remember what helped you*

    F:    ımm *I need to repeat the sentence …* (reads silently) *well here in the*

             *next sentence he learns something  quickly and in an easy way learns*

5             *a language and* ee *in the sentence after that he wants something and*

             *then learns* **/TR/ /CC/**  *he wants information I thought well actually I*

             *thought he won't be able to learn if there isn't information* **/L1/ /WK/**

    İ:    *was there something you thought when it appeared later*

    F:    *yes*  there are no easy **pracks** **/SR/** *it said I this as I said information*

10           *for the one above I put it here it writes there is no easy information it*

             *seemed logical I decided on it* **/VER/ /TR/**

    İ:    *yes good for the next word* **danding** *I guess you didn't have an idea*

             *why did you find it difficult do you remember*

    F:    *I don't know well nothing came to my mind that day I thought to put*

15           *something but as it didn't seem logical .* **/MON/** *I didn't*

    İ:    *next word* **chaningly** *as soon as you saw it you said it was an adverb*

             *first what made you think that it was an adverb*

    F:    *it was the  ly at the end of it they are in adverbs generally* **/MK/**

    İ:    *then you said it could be carefully*

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20    F:     *yes* carefully

      İ:     *how did you decide on this*

      F:     ee . *it said the best of these techniques … it says to read a newspaper*
             *in some  manner* **/TR/ /CC/** *it could have been to read fast well when*
             *you read fast it could be more difficult to understand perhaps* ee …
25           *several times a week it doesn't come to my mind now actually*

      İ:     *I see for the next word* **glurk** *first immediately this is a*

      F:     *verb* **/PS/**

      İ:     *what made you think that it is a verb*

      F:     *it used* <u>used to</u> used to *is a verb related to habits that is something he*
30           *did in the past but doesn't do now and well I remember that there*
             *comes a verb after* used to *I thought like that* **/CC/ /PS/**

      İ:     *yes then you said like* ee *what did you think this was also a word that*
             *appeared more than once*

      F:     ee *in the first one I put it there for the first one I thought it well my*
35           *husband and I before well* ee *I thought like every sunday we did*
             *something reading* Times **/CC/ /TR/** *and I said that something could*
             *be* like *well I thought they may like reading* **/L1/** *and I checked by*
             *putting*  like *everywhere* **glurk** *appeared and well it seemed logical*
             **/VER/**

40    İ:     ee *for the next word* **adant** *you said*  interesting *what did you think*

      F:     *yeah the reason for saying*  interesting *is that  after one or two*
             *sentences* <u>just listen to this you won't believe it</u> *that is as it said jut*

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*listen to this you won't believe it it could be something interesting*

**/TR/ /CC/ /L1/** *well what can't we believe* **/SQ/** *we can't believe*

45      *interesting things like this I thought* **/WK/** *the sentence after one or*

*two sentences influenced me*

İ:      ee *as soon as you saw* **predpine** *you said headline how did you decide*

F:      *I saw the things in quotation marks the newspaper titles* **/PN/ /CC/**

*and well on the first page of a newspaper generally not details but the*

50      *news in it is written headlines are written titles are written* **/WK/** *I*

*remembered this directly when I saw those things those titles*

İ:      **predpine** *appears again when you saw it there*

F:      *title*  **/L1/**

İ:      *you said it could be title it probably can't be headline because*

55      *headlines are on the first page you said*

F:      *as you told I said headline at first headlines are on the first page as*

*far as I know* **/L1/ /WK/** *but here when you read the* **predpine***s on*

*each page* **/CC/ /TR/** *well it mentioned about that and t seemed to me*

*that there aren't headlines on each page I said it could be title* **/L1/**

60      *well there can be titles on the first page in the middle at the end I*

*thought that headlines are only on the first page* **/WK/**

İ:      *then when you saw* **bissip** *you said it could be lie what did you think*

F:      *yeah yeah I said lie or half-true* **/L1/** *because* ee *after* **bissip** *there is a*

*word between two commas* <u>half-truths</u> *and as far as I know when it is*

65      *given like this it is a synonym or it is close in meaning it is done to*

*make us understand better* **/PN/ /CC/** *and*  <u>half-truth</u> *means half-true*

**/CC/ /TR/** *I thought that it could be something half-true or wrong*

**/L1/** *also it says* <u>full of</u> *a newspaper full of lies is also logical* **/CC/**

**/TR/ /L1/ /VER/** *there are such newspapers* **/WK/**

70    İ:    *the next word is* **hatal** *you said it is* real *how did you decide*

      F:    ee *here it says but* ee *let me look at what comes before let me go one*

            *or two sentences back it says there is some fun it says go and read but*

            *it says don't expect to find* **hatal** <u>news</u> **/TR/ /CC/** *don't expect to find*

            *real news seemed logical because it mentions about fun here* <u>have</u>

75          <u>some fun</u> **/L1/ /TR/ /CC/** *I thought that fun does not always come*

            *from real events it could be because of a little imagination* **/WK/**

            *here it used* <u>or</u> ee *well here I said don't expect to find real news or it is*

            *written don't expect well-written truths as it says* <u>or</u> *after that again I*

            *thought it could be a synonym because* <u>or</u> *could also be used for*

80          *synonyms just like two commas like two commas I thought* **/TR/ /DK/**

            **/PN/**

      İ:    *yes good for the next word* **mintends** *you said it could be summarizes*

            ee *you decided that it is a verb* ee *how did you decide*

      F:    *yeah I thought that it is a verb because it has the morpheme* s **/PS/**

85          **/MK/** *well this I thought it is* present simple *also there should come a*

            *verb here the sentence does not have a verb* ımm *the things that has*

            *happened that day that is it* **mintends** *whatever happened that day*

            **/TR/** *I thought as summarizes* **/L1/** *because there is* <u>politics crime</u>

            <u>scientific discoveries</u> *after quotation marks well it gives a summary of*

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| 90 | | *politics crime and scientific experiments* **/PN/ /CC/ /TR/ /L1/** *what* |
| | | *influenced me was this* politics crime scientific discoveries economics |
| | | weather *when I saw them I said that it certainly is summary or* |
| | | *something like short titles I thought* **/CC/ /L1/** |
| | İ: | *after you read the next word* **reminent** *you said* |
| 95 | F: | important |
| | İ: | *yes how did you decide that it is* important |
| 95 | F: | ee *it used the last one with* most **/CC/** *then* don't worry too much |
| | | about vocabulary *that is don't worry about dictionary it said* **/TR/** |
| | | **/CC/** *well most important don't worry about dictionary seemed logical* |
| | | *to me* **/L1/ /TR/ /VER/** *here that is in the preceding one* this is where |
| | | you will find the **reminent** information *yeah when I put important* |
| 100 | | *information there* ee *you will find it seemed really logical also here* |
| | | **/CC/ /L1/ /VER/** ee *when I saw these I went back to the first one* |
| | | *again it said* most important news *again when I put it here well the* |
| | | *most important stories of the day I thought* **/VER/ /TR/ /L1/** *just when* |
| | | *I put it it seemed logical in all of them* |
| 105 | İ: | ee *for* **artictive** *you said showing truths what did you think* |
| | F: | ee *here I paid great attention to what comes after* in the other words |
| | | *because as it says in other words it will most probably say something* |
| | | *close to that* **/DK/** *and it said* contain only facts *in quotation marks* |
| | | **/PN/ /CC/** *it contains only facts* **/TR/** *as I don't know the meaning of* |
| 110 | | contain **/MON/** *at that moment showing came to my mind showing* |
| | | *only the truths seemed logical* **/TR/ /L1/ /VER/** *when I turned here* hıı |

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must be **artictive** that is must be showing I said **/CC/ /TR/ /L1/** let me read here again … ee shows the ethical writing of difficult news in other words … yeah I thought that it is like something showing the

115   truths not the journalists' opinion **/TR/ /L1/ /CC/**

İ:   yes  ee for **wist** you said adjective and you thought that it is next how did you decide

F:   … how did I decide that it is next **/SQ/** I can't remember  **/MON/**

İ:   you can't remember OK then when you saw **pretern** you said verb it

120   could be return or turn you said what did you think

F:   it was mentioning about the page that is as it mentioned about paper **/CC/** ee and there could be other news in the following  page **/WK/** here because it said ee briefly well in summary  **/CC/ /TR/** ee each section of the  articles especially the ones you are interested in it said

125   **/TR/** … as it said paper what is done with a page I thought a page is most probably turned I thought **/WK/**

İ:   for the last word **sidelt** you said weather forecast how did you decide

F:   ee . it used or  **/CC/ /DK/** … that is there was a little information it said and that you need at the moment **/TR/** then it gave the example of

130   this with a hyphen ee either a movie playing or weather forecast I thought **/PN/ /CC/ /TR/ /L1/** because weather forecast is frequently given in newspapers **/WK/** and I thought that it is an example here because it is used in two quotation marks and connected with  or **/PN/** **/DK/** if the sentence after that is a movie's playing the other one is

135     *also an example similar to that I thought another example that is in a*

*newspaper I thought* **/DK/** *weather forecast* **/L1/**