



Engagement strategies for unknown vocabulary in L2 texts. Idioms**

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APA Citation:

Alagozlu, N. (2018). Engagement strategies for unknown vocabulary in L2 texts: Idioms. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 14(4)*, 259-271.

Submission Date: 26/08/2018

Acceptance Date: 19/11/2018

Abstract

Vocabulary researchers generally point out three strategies that learners apply in order to find out the meanings of unknown words on their own (Graves, 2006; 2007). The use of context, word parts, reference materials ((e.g. dictionaries, glossaries, thesauruses, both print and online) in-text definition/explanations, synonyms, examples, antonyms/contrasts, analogy have been added to these three ways (Gu and Johnson, 1996). The meaning of an idiom can be predicted by cashing in on world knowledge of the reader as it is not randomly constructed or an arbitrary assignment. In the depth of many idioms may lie a metaphor or an assumption, for example, to predict the meaning of an idiom like “the ball is in your court” may prerequisite the assumption that we play a game or the metaphor that life is a game. In the same way, one may find the meaning quite transparent if s/he has some encyclopedic assumptions about the type of activity, sport or game which the expression alludes to, and the ability to derive implications using these assumptions. Taking the predictability of the meaning of an idiom as idiom transparency, readers may also infer the meaning of an idiom by establishing relevance with their background experience and knowledge (Moreno, 2017). Taking all above into account, the present paper has a two-fold aim: It first aims to unveil vocabulary engagement strategies of L2 students in decoding word meaning in general at tertiary level in a state university in Turkey. Secondly, the way how the meanings of idioms are determined in the text is explored as the conflict between literal meaning and idiomatic expressions emerges as one of the challenges before the learners of foreign languages. With this aim, an already-prepared literature-based list of strategies were presented to the participants who are all college students after they were delivered the texts with unfamiliar vocabulary. Unfamiliar vocabulary also contained idioms that are transparent and opaque in meaning. The list contained strategies such as surrounding language cues, word parts, contextual cues, compositional meaning of the words, idiom-inherent features, and relevance to background knowledge and experience. The participants were also asked to describe their own way of deciphering unfamiliar word. It is expected that such an exploration of vocabulary engagement strategies will contribute to teaching vocabulary in foreign/second language teaching.

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Keywords: Vocabulary Learning Strategies, Idioms, Foreign Language Learning

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**This research was presented at GLOBELT2018 Conference in Belgrade, Serbia in May 10-13 , 2018 under the sponsorship of Hacettepe University Scientific Research Center

1. Introduction

Learning a word is a sine qua non in learning a foreign or a second language. Word knowledge is multi-layered and covers multiple aspects. One primarily has to learn the pronunciation, meaning, form and the spelling of the new words. However, how the learners achieve learning a word is quite complicated. To Nation, (2001), word knowledge covers the aspects of form (spoken, written, word parts), meaning (form and meaning, concept and referent and associations), and use (grammar and collocations), all of which cannot be acquired simultaneously. Some aspects like meaning and grammatical use can be easily addressed, but aspects like collocation, register, and intuitions of frequency can be mastered through extensive exposure to the use of the words in multiple texts (Schmitt, 2007 p. 751).

In general, vocabulary learning is realized in two ways: Intentional or formal learning and Incidental Learning. Formal learning is institution-sponsored, classroom-based and highly controlled. It is an explicit effort of the stakeholders in the learning process. Incidental learning, a component of informal learning is a by product of some other activities like task achievement, trial-error experiments, interpersonal interactions, extensive readings and even formal learning. It is not classroom-based and controlled. It is less structured. It does not occur when learners are conscious of their learning (Marsick & Watkins, 1990, p. 12, Paribakht and Wesche, 1999, Hulstijn, 2001). Although a strong association has been established between vocabulary learning and explicit and intentional instruction in the literature, learners or readers are alone in decoding the meaning in most cases where they are not provided with helpful foreknowledge and strategies. In times when looking up into a dictionary is not a practical solution as in reading, they have to develop their own way of coping with the unknown words.

Single words, string of words, or groups of words or phrases or multi word expressions that appear with novel meanings may be treated and inferred in the texts using various ways or strategies benefiting from various sources of knowledge. To explore how EFL learners cope with unknown words in the texts, Nation (1990) indicates that word guessing from the context is undoubtedly the most significant vocabulary learning strategy. Lexical inferencing from contextual clues, as Nation proposed, enables learners to make a well-formed guess at the meaning of an unfamiliar word in context without interrupting their own train of thought too much. Similarly, "What Haastrup (1990) concurs with Nation (1990) is that successful lexical inferencing depends on all available contextual clues, readers' L2 proficiency, readers' general knowledge of the world, and the parallel processing of word meaning, i.e., the interactive model of bottom-level and top-level.

Delving into the factors involved in lexical inferencing, reviewing the related literature, Paribakht (2005) indicates the existence of text and learner centered factors that influence lexical inferencing behaviour and success in guessing the meaning of the words and therefore their retention in the long run. The success of lexical inferencing has been shown to be influenced by such text-based factors as the occurrences (the number and the density) of the unknown word (Sternberg, 1987), text length (Haynes, 1993), comprehension tasks and word features (Fraser, 1999), size of receptive vocabulary (Coady et al, 1993), the presence of clear contextual clues (Dubin and Olstain, 1993). Reported learners centered factors that affect successful inferencing are procedural knowledge (Ellis, 1994), ability and inclination to pay attention to the details in context (Fratzen, 2003; Nassaji, 2003); preconceptions about the meaning of the words (Hucking and Bloch, 1993; Fratzen, 2003); the usefulness of previously known information in cue utilization. Specifically, Nagy (1997) considers the role of learners' pre-existing knowledge bases and how these knowledge bases influence learners' strategy use and success. Nagy groups learners' knowledge bases into three main categories: linguistic knowledge, world knowledge and strategic knowledge. The linguistic knowledge category covers all knowledge that learners possess about the linguistic context in which the word has occurred, including their syntactic knowledge, lexical knowledge, and knowledge of word schema (i.e., knowledge of possible meanings of the word).

Similarly, as one of the learner centered factors, deep and extensive vocabulary knowledge and lexical inferencing have been found closely intertwined (Haastrup, 1991; Itzes, 1991). Nassaji (2003) in his research where intermediate ESL learners attempted to infer new word meanings from context pinpoints a significant link between depth of vocabulary knowledge and the type and degree of lexical inferencing strategy use, specifically highlighting that (a) overall, the rate of success was low even when learners used the strategies and *knowledge sources* they had at their disposal, (b) different strategies contributed differentially to inferencing success, and (c) success was related more to the quality rather than the quantity of the strategies used.

Another factor influencing the ability to infer the word meaning in the texts has been reported to be learners' language proficiency, which may cover all the aspects expounded above. More proficient students are more successful in guessing the meaning of the words. (Bengeleil and Paribakh, 2004; Morrison, 1996; Haastrup, 1991; Itzes, 1991). In the same vein, Alhaysony (2017) in his research indicated that students having difficulty to understand idiomatic expressions most frequently are found to use strategies of guessing the meaning of idioms from context, predicting the meaning of idioms, and figuring out an idiom from an equivalent one in their mother language. His research illustrated that low-proficiency students face more difficulties than high-proficiency students, though the differences were not significant. He concluded that the greater the vocabulary knowledge, the greater the use of idiom-learning strategies, especially for idioms that require a wider knowledge in vocabulary.

Despite profoundly inadequate amount of research on idiom inferencing, the strategies used to grasp the meaning of multi-word units like phrasal words, idioms, fixed phrases and proverbs are expected to differ from inferencing strategies of single words. Defined as "multi-word phraseological units whose meaning is not predictable from their constituent parts" (Fraser, 1970; Makkai, 1972), there two contrastive views on idioms: Decomposable and Non-decomposable idioms. Non-decomposable idioms are usually thought to be arbitrary and treated as compounds that gain independent meanings from the literal meanings of the composing words. On the other hand, decomposable idioms are those whose figurative meanings are highly related to the literal meanings of the composing words and therefore predictable and analysable but are motivated by several insights. An integrative view on idiom comprehension is the hybrid models that lie between these two views on idioms. (e.g. Caillies & Butcher, 2007; Holsinger, 2013). It defends that idiom comprehension is achieved through a simultaneous processing of both compositional and non compositional nature of the idioms. Some idioms are transparent, which shows their decomposable nature. Some are conventional and automatized, therefore; arbitrary, non composable and easily retrievable as they are thought to be stored as a whole unit in the mental lexicon like literal meanings of the words (Cieslicka, 2010 p.150; Boers and Lindstromberg, 2008).

While inferring idiom meaning, success may result from or be linked to compositional structure of the idioms. Introspective research has shown that foreign language readers tend to rely on literal meanings of figurative utterances (Kecske, 2000 cited in Cieslicka, 2010 pp.154-155). The status of literal meanings in idiom inferencing is quite clearly shown in Abel's Dual Idiom Representation Model (2003). In her decomposability rating research, L2 learners tended to rate non-decomposable idioms as decomposable ones which shows that assume the literal meanings of both decomposable and non decomposable idioms contribute to the overall figurative meaning.

The role of readers' background knowledge in idiom comprehension and inference as well as in reading comprehension has also been shown in the literature (Carrell, 1983). Text-based components of *background knowledge* as reported by Carrell (1983) cover (1) prior knowledge in the content area of the text (familiar vs. novel); (2) prior knowledge that the text is about a particular content area (context vs. no context); and (3) degree to which the lexical items in the text reveal the content area (transparent vs. opaque). From a broader perspective, prior knowledge is what the reader brings to the text and uses

in constructing the meaning of either the text or the word clusters ranging from readers' personal experiences to readers' own culture, mother tongue and other culture based aspects. Cultural similarity has been reported to influence the ability of lexical inference (Qualls and Harris, 1999). How L2 readers perceive and see the world helps idiom comprehension. Easy comprehension of identical idioms in form and literal meaning implies readers' somewhat identical world view or cultures (Irujo, 1986).

Considerable research has also revealed that metaphors, metonymies, stories behind idioms contribute to the inference of the idiom meaning (e.g. Yasuda, 2010; Cserep, 2008, 2014; Bambini, et.al. 2014). On condition that the readers are equipped with related idiom history, inferencing can be far more successful. Therefore, introducing the metaphors or stories underneath was reported to be an effective cognitive vocabulary learning strategy and may be conceived as a complementary technique for L2 learners to learn phrasal verbs (Harmon et. al. 2010).

Idioms in L2 texts can also be inferred with the help of learners' mother tongue and its conceptual system that may allow them to transfer mother tongue equivalent of the idiom in question. Similarity in perceiving the world and the ways of learners' sense-making in two languages can help learners interpret the idioms in the texts. Kecskes' (2000) research showed that finding mother tongue equivalent was ranked as the most common source of knowledge resorted to reach the figurative meaning of the idioms. In the same way, Irujo (1986) and Mantyla (1997) found that the idioms having identical corresponding form and literal meaning in learners' first language were the easiest to understand and to produce.

Established on the dimensions of idiom interpretation above, the present study seeks to answer how the meanings of the idioms in the texts are inferred by L2 learners. Precisely, the research sought for the sources of knowledge Turkish ELT college freshmen students use most frequently in decoding in-text idiom meaning during reading, extending its scope to whether their knowledge based strategy use are related to their vocabulary size and correct idiom predictions.

1.1. Purpose and Research questions

This paper primarily explores types of sources of knowledge manipulated in in-text idiom inferencing as part of lexical inferencing process. In relation to that, first, the most frequently used sources of knowledge in idiom inference are therefore, identified. Secondly, assuming there is a connection between vocabulary size and degree of idiom inferencing capacity (correct predictions), it is aimed to look for a possible reciprocal relation between them. Finally, it is hypothesized that the vocabulary size of the learners affects learners' choice of knowledge source, which led us to a search for a possible link between knowledge based strategy use and the vocabulary size of the learners. We aimed to find the answers to the following:

1-what sources of knowledge do ELT college students in L2 reading class use most frequently in decoding in-text idiom meaning

2-Is there a correlation between their vocabulary size and the number of correct idiom predictions?

3-Is there a connection between number of sources of knowledge and vocabulary size of the learners?

4-Is there any association between knowledge bases in idiom inferencing and groups of different vocabulary size?

2. Method

2.1. Research Design/Participants/Setting

This is a quantitative case study with a limitation of generalizability. As known, case studies are in-depth studies, but they offer snapshots of the current situation. 48 freshmen Turkish college students (aged between 18-21) were enrolled into the research in the classroom environment during an L2 reading class where the students were engaged in a reading text. The text was a short story titled « Odd man Out » which is full of idioms marked in bold (18 idioms) (Appendix I)

It was made sure that the vocabulary chosen were totally unknown to the participants. First, their predictions of the idioms were elicited. The participants wrote their predictions in the blanks given near the idioms listed in a separate sheet (Appendix II)

They were also required to elucidate the strategies of how they could infer the idiom meanings. They had to choose among a formerly prepared checklist of knowledge sources. This was prepared based on Nagy's (1997) word knowledge definition of learners based on into three main categories: linguistic knowledge, world knowledge and strategic knowledge. In a given space, participants also described their knowledge sources if there are any other than the given in the checklist (Appendix III)

2.2. Instrument(s) and Procedure

Paul Nation's Vocabulary Size Test https://www.lextutor.ca/tests/levels/recognition/1_14k/ was applied to the students in the classroom which was a computer laboratory. They accessed the test via internet. They were given 40 minutes for answering the multiple choice questions in the first five thousand vocabulary band. In this version, there is a 14,000 version containing 140 multiple-choice items, with 10 items from each 1000 word family level. A learner's total score needs to be multiplied by 100 to get their total receptive vocabulary size. This served as the determination of the vocabulary size level of the students that were implemented for the first time in the department. All the respondents vocabulary knowledge/size were scored automatically online, which were reported/sent to the email/whatsapp of the researcher afterwards. In coding the data, the scores of the vocabulary size tests were obtained online. The number of the correct predictions of the idioms and the strategies were simply counted.

3. Results

Primarily, regarding what knowledge bases ELT college students use most frequently in decoding in-text idiom meaning, it is revealed that the most frequently used source of knowledge in the text was the use of « Surrounding semantic cues in the text» ($f=96$). Participants ranked «Relevance to background knowledge and experience» ($f=34$) as the second most frequent knowledge base (Table 1 and Figure 1).

Table 1. Frequency of Source of Knowledge in inferencing the meaning of the idioms.

Source of Knowledge (n=50)	Frequency
Surrounding semantic cues in the text	
Opposite meanings	9
explanations,	40
examples,	25
descriptions	22

Grammatical ties (cause effect, concession, negation, sentence types)	24
Compositional literal meaning of the words	29
Relevance to background knowledge and experience.	34
Relevance to a metaphor and a story	33
Relevance to culture: eg. a similar Turkish idiom	33

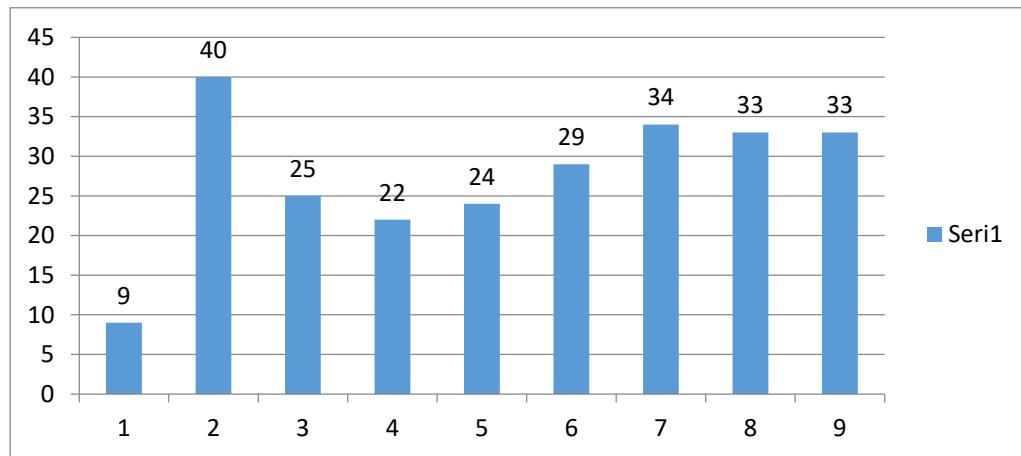


Figure 1. Mostly used contextual strategies in idiom inferencing

1. Opposite meanings
2. Explanations,
3. Examples,
4. Descriptions (1-2-3-4 Surrounding semantic cues in the text)
5. Grammatical ties (cause effect, concession, negation, sentence types)
6. Compositional literal meaning of the words
7. Relevance to background knowledge and experience.
8. Relevance to a metaphor and a story
9. Relevance to culture: eg. a similar Turkish idiom

With 48 participants, the results of Pearson Correlation Test indicated a correlation between vocabulary size (as revealed by Paul Nation Vocab Size Test) and the number of correct idiom predictions. First, "Shapiro-Wilk" test was used to test the normality of the scores. Significance values of "Shapiro-Wilk" test were above 0.05 therefore, data were normally distributed at 95 interval of confidence. $p = 0.045 > 0.05$ confirmed the correlation between vocabulary size and the correct prediction of the idioms. Pearson Correlation coefficient was 0.291 which displays a weak-moderate positive correlation as it is between 0.2-0.4 (<http://www.p005.net/analiz/korelasyon-analizi>).

Another correlation is found between strategy use (number of the strategies) and vocabulary size of the participants. $p=0.022$ which shows there is evidence for a correlation. Pearson Correlation coefficient is 0.330 which is another weak positive correlation. This means that the larger the vocabulary size/knowledge of the learners, the more strategies they employ in decoding meaning.

Any relation between the number of the strategies and correct predictions is not found with the value $p=0.231$ showing no evidence for relation.

Table 2. Correlations between Vocabulary Size, Strategy Use and Number of Correct Predictions

		Vocabulary Size	Strategy Use	Correct Predictions
Vocabulary Size .045	Pearson Correlation Sig.(2-tailed)	1	.330* .022	.291* .022
Strategy Use	Pearson Correlation Sig.(2-tailed)	.330* .022	1 .176 .231	.176 .231
Correct Predictions	Pearson Correlation Sig.(2-tailed)	.291* .045	.176 .231	1

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

N=48

As the last part of the analysis, in order to see if the learners with vocabulary size of 3000-4000 ve 4000-5000 intervals differed from each other in their strategy use, a Chi-square test was run after participants were classified into these two groups of vocabulary levels. The result of the Chi-square test showed that strategy use of two groups did not display any association ($r > 0.05$) in terms of Surrounding semantic clues, ($p=0.906$ $r= 0, 14$), grammatical ties ($p=0.072$ $r= 3.28$), compositional literal meaning of the words ($p=0.724$ $r= 0, 125$), Relevance to a metaphor and a story ($p=0.839$ $r= 0, 41$), Relevance to culture ($p=0.839$ $r= 0, 41$) except for the strategy “Relevance to background knowledge and experience” ($p=0.000$ $r= 12.738$). The only association was between the strategy «Relevance to background knowledge and experience» ($p=0.000$ $r= 12.738$) and word size levels ((3000-3900/4000s -5000), which means two levels only differed in using this strategy. Those at 5000 word band used this strategy more than the others, which means that the higher levels use this strategy more frequently. This may suggests better vocabulary knowledge is also connected with better prior knowledge.

With a closer look, at the strategy use and vocabulary size association, since the p-values slightly over significance level ($\alpha = 0.05$) (for grammatical ties for example $p = 0.072$), we do not reject the null hypothesis. Rather, we conclude that there is not enough evidence to suggest an association between the strategy use and vocabulary size groups. However, with more participants, an association could be found.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

Perhaps it is vital to recall the most cited quotation from Wilkins (1972) once again “Without grammar little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (pp. 111–112)..” so as to draw attention to the role of vocabulary in foreign/second language learning (F/SL). It is evident that vocabulary is sine qua non for language learners while both constructing and producing a text. In reading in a second language, words serve as life buoys in the construction of the message in the text for SL readers. They are the building blocks.

Multi-word units like phrasal words, idioms, fixed phrases and proverbs in English prove difficulty for any language learner. In a text, idioms are complimentary aspects of natural speech. They are usually thought to be arbitrary and treated as compounds that gain independent meanings from the literal meanings of the composing words. The type and the nature of the idioms determines the way they are predicted and inferred. In some other cases, the fact that behind idioms are generally metaphors, metonymies, stories (Boers, 2004) makes them related to prior world knowledge, which increase their predictability and teachability. They are therefore regarded teachable with explicit well organized and well grounded instruction that helps learning the idioms, their long term retention and correct use. The

decompositionality of the idioms may have some impact on their inference and comprehension. In most cases, idioms are complex phrases because the compositional meaning of the words does not usually reflect the literal meaning of each component. In time they gain totally different meanings from ingredient elements. In sum, the meaning of some idioms are apparent or transparent and predictable, however some are vague or opaque and cannot be figured out easily. In any case, SL readers when encountered with unknown constructions, need to develop certain strategies to overcome the task of interpretation of the text. They calibrate their cognitive skills to the type of the idioms and make use of the necessary sources of knowledge that guide them to the correct meaning.

At this juncture, the present study attempts to find possible knowledge bases in the texts for idiom prediction in a reading class at tertiary level in Turkey. Any relationship between knowledge bases and vocabulary size of the learners is also sought for. Additionally, self reported frequency of knowledge bases is thought to be associated with both vocabulary size and idiom prediction behaviour.

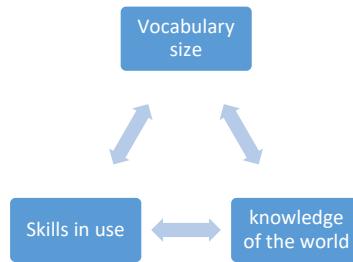
Results revealed that the most frequently used strategies were the use of «Surrounding semantic cues in the text» ($f=96$). In the texts, opposite meanings explanations, examples, and descriptions are found useful and made use of by the majority. Participants ranked «Relevance to background knowledge and experience» ($f=34$) as the second most frequent knowledge base. This may simply means they mostly draw on textual cues when compared with the use of background knowledge. A better engagement into the text leads to maximum benefit and inference of the unknown words.

It is seen that almost all textual knowledge sources are used by the participants with different vocabulary size, looking into the relation between strategy use and the number of correct predictions, however, strategy use and correct number of the predictions were not found correlated. Thus it can not be asserted that more strategy use leads to or ends in correct predictions. This may be another representation of the interpretation Nassaji (2003) makes, that supports an inferencing model that distinguishes between strategies and the ability to use them appropriately and effectively in conjunction with various sources of knowledge in lexical inferencing.

Doubtless to say, the correlation between vocabulary size and the number of correct idiom predictions suggests that enhancing vocabulary knowledge would lead to better idiom inference. Inferencing is reported to be closely hooked with better retention and retrieval of the vocabulary acquired by many researchers (Bialystock, 1983; Bensoussan and Laufer, 1984; Nation, 1982; Nation and Coady, 1988; and Hulstijn, 1992). Therefore, once the meaning is obtained via a strategy, it will probably stay in the long term memory.

The correlation found between the number of the inference strategies used and vocabulary size of the participants also denotes that larger vocabulary size encourages strategy use or use of multiple strategies as in the case of more correct idiom inference.

All suggest that vocabulary size has an undeniable impact on idiom predictions in particular in line with Nation (1993 p.117) and a remote reference to inferencing skills in text decoding in general, and also affected by world knowledge. Skill in language use depends on vocabulary size.



Concerning pedagogical value of this research, the most frequently used in text knowledge bases were identified and “surrounding semantic cues in the text» and “the use of background world knowledge” were found as the most favoured ones. With a rigorous instructional approach, L2 readers are to be trained with an appropriate textual analysis and a proper needs-centered strategy training seems to be a crucial resort for the L2 readers when facing not only unfamiliar idioms but also all other unknown vocabulary. L2 readers have to be provided with the knowledge of how to benefit from the text as a whole. On the other hand, the relation between vocabulary size and the number of correct predictions and the number of knowledge bases resorted to no doubt calls for larger vocabulary and enhancing the vocabulary size of the learners. To conclude, prominent outcomes of this research are two-way: one is to provide the readers with written contexts and the necessary textual use guide and cues regarding how to exploit them. Two is the strategy training of both knowledge and practices to make sure that knowing what kind of knowledge facilitates prediction or confirm correct predictions.

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APPENDIX I

The Story

Odd Man Out

I recently watched a movie called Odd Man Out. It was about a man named Bob who decided to **live out of his suitcase**.

Bob had a little money **socked away**, so he didn't have to **live from hand to mouth**. I found the reasons for his decision **to throw in the towel** and become free as a bird compelling. In any case, Bob had been working for over twenty years for a corporation. While he had been successful at his job, and had **made plenty of hay** while the sun was shining, he still felt he was tilting at windmills. "I mean," he said to himself "how hard can it be **to strike out on your own and live off the fat of the land?**" The more he pondered the idea the more he came to realize that **he wasn't able to see the forest for the trees**. Certainly, he never questioned **the powers that be**, but he did wonder if things might be a bit more interesting if he gave **living by the seat of his pants a go**. Bob was very careful not to let on what he was thinking to anyone until he got **all his ducks in a row**. He knew that such a decision couldn't be made **on the spur of a moment**. Things could go terribly wrong **in the twinkling of an eye**. "No," he thought to himself "I need a plan." It was then he remembered his grandfather Bill. Bill was **salt of the earth**. He never cared too much for the "finer things in life", as he liked to call them. Bill repeatedly told Bob that tagging along with everyone else would eventually get boring. Bill made his living as **a jack-of-all-trades**. Sure, he never had **money to burn**, but he managed to get by. More importantly, Bill was content, and never worried about what others were saying or who he had to impress to get promoted. In any case, these memories of Bill came **flooding back** as Bob began to to prepare to **get a new lease on life**. Finally, the big day arrived and Bob announced that he was stepping down as manager. His colleagues were incredulous: "How can you throw all you've worked for down the drain?" they commented. "He's **lost his marbles**" commented others. However, Bob was in the the prime of life and he was ready for adventure. He walked out the door and never looked back. Who knows where he is and what he's doing today, but my guess is that he's happy - if not wealthy.

► (Taken from <https://www.thoughtco.com/odd-man-out-1211989>)

APPENDIX II

II.A. List of the Idioms

1. ***live out of his suitcase:*** to stay very briefly in several places, never unpacking one's luggage.
2. ***sock away*** = to save money
3. ***live from hand to mouth*** = to live with just enough money to survive
4. ***throw in the towel*** = to quit
5. ***live off the fat of the land*** = to live from the products of nature
6. ***make hay while the sun is shining*** = earn money and save while you have the opportunity
7. ***not able to see the forest for the trees*** = become so focused on details that you lose knowledge of the more important things in life
8. ***the powers that be*** = phrase used to speak about those in power
9. ***by the seat of one's pants a go*** = improvising and learning as you go
10. ***get one's all ducks in a row*** = to do all the necessary preparations in order to do something
11. ***on the spur of the moment*** = deciding something without thinking about it
12. ***in the twinkling of an eye*** = instantly, immediately
13. ***salt of the earth*** = simple, honest person without pretensions
14. ***jack-of-all-trades*** = person who does many different types of jobs
15. ***money to burn*** = money to waste
16. ***flood back***=come back, reappear, revisit
17. ***get a new lease on life*** = to develop a new attitude towards life
18. ***lose one's marbles*** = to go crazy

II.B. Checklist of the Strategies

1. Surrounding semantic cues in the text opposite meanings explanations, examples, descriptions
2. Grammatical ties (cause effect, concession, negation, sentence types)
3. Compositional literal meaning of the words
4. Relevance to background knowledge and experience.
5. Relevance to a metaphor and a story
6. Relevance to culture: eg. a similar Turkish idiom

İkinci dil metinlerde bilinmeyen sözcük anlamı çıkarma stratejileri: Deyimler

Öz

Sözcük üzerine çalışanlar öğrenenlerin kendi başlarına bilinmeyen sözcüklerin anlamlarını bulmak için genellikle uyguladıkları üç stratejiden bahsederler (Graves, 2006; 2007). Bağlamın kullanımı, sözcük bölümleri ve kaynak materyaller (hem sanal hem de basılı sözlükler, terimler listesi ve eşanlamlılar sözlüğü gibi). Metin içi tanımlar, açıklamalar, eşanlamlılar, zıtlıklar/zıt anlamlı sözcükler, benzerlikler de bu üç stratejiye eklenmiştir (Gu and Johnson, 1996). Bilmediği bir deyimin anlamını okuyucu, rastgele oluşmadığı veya kendiliğinden ortaya çıkmadığı için anlAMI dünyaya dair bilgisinden faydalananarak çıkarır. Derinlemesine bakıldığında, birçok deyimin altında eğitilemeler veya varsayımlar yatar. Örneğin “İngilizce de top sizin sahanızda” deyimi bir oyun oynuyoruz varsayımini ya da hayat bir oyundur eğitilemesini önceler. Aynı şekilde, bir öğrenen deyimle ilgili etkinlik türü, spor ya da oyunlarla ilgili varsayımlara ya da bilgiye sahipse ve de bu varsayımlardan çıkarımlar yapacak beceriye sahipse anlAMI oldukça şeffaf bulabilir. Bir deyimin tahmin edilebilirliğini “deyim şeffaflığı” olarak alarak, okuyucular deyimin anlamını kendilerinin geçmiş deneyim ve bilgileri ile ilişkilendireerek çıkarabilir (Moreno, 2017). Tüm bu yukarıda anlatılanları gözönüne alarak, bu yazı iki amaçlıdır: Birincisi üniversite öğrencilerinin kullandığı ikinci dil metin içi sözcük anlAMI çıkarma/ çözümleme stratejilerini ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlar. İkinci olarak, deyimlerde sözcüklerin sözlük anlamları ile deyimsel anlam arasındaki çatışmanın öğrenmede büyük zorluk çıkarması sebebiyle, deyimlerin anlamlarının metin içinde ortaya çıkarılma yolları da çatışmanın kapsamı içindedir. Bu amaçla, içerisinde bilinmeyen sözcük ve deyimlerin olduğu bir metin ve literatüre dayalı önceden hazırlanmış strateji listesi katılımcılara sunulmuştur. Deyimler hem saydam ve saydam olmayan deyimlerdir. Strateji listesi dilsel ipuçları, sözcük parçaları, bağlamsal ipuçları, sözcüklerin bileşimsel anlamları, deyim-merkezli özellikler, ve önceki deneyim ve bilgi ile ilişkilendirme gibi stratejileri içermektedir. Katılımcıların metin içindeki bilinmeyen sözcüklerle başetme yöntemlerini tarif etmeleri de istenmiştir. Öğrenenlerin ikinci dilde metin içi sözcük anlamını ortaya çıkarma stratejilerinin incelenmesinin yabancı ya da ikinci dil sözcük öğretimine katkıda bulunacağı beklenmektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Sözcük öğrenme stratejileri; deyimler; yabancı dil öğrenme

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