



ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษของ
นักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 6 ในจังหวัดบุรีรัมย์

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เสนอต่อมหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์ เพื่อเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษา
ตามหลักสูตรศิลปศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

กันยายน 2557

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|----------------------|--|---------------|------------|
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| ผู้วิจัย | กรรณิการ์ เผ่าเวียงคำ | | |
| ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ | ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.นวมินทร์ ประชานันท์ | ที่ปรึกษาหลัก | |
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| สถานศึกษา | มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์ | ปีที่พิมพ์ | 2557 |

บทคัดย่อ

การวิจัยครั้งนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาและเปรียบเทียบความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 6 ในจังหวัดบุรีรัมย์ โดยจำแนกตามเพศและเกรดเฉลี่ย สะสม กลุ่มตัวอย่าง ได้แก่ นักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 6 จำนวน 94 คน โดยกำหนดขนาดของกลุ่มตัวอย่างโดยใช้ตารางของเครซีและมอร์แกน แล้วทำการสุ่มอย่างง่าย เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลเป็นแบบสอบถาม สถิติที่ใช้ในการวิเคราะห์ประกอบด้วย ค่าร้อยละ ค่าเฉลี่ย ส่วนเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐาน ค่าคะแนนที่ที่เป็นอิสระต่อกัน และการวิเคราะห์ความแปรปรวนทางเดียว โดยกำหนดค่านัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ .05

ผลการวิจัย พบว่า

1. ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 6 ในจังหวัดบุรีรัมย์ โดยภาพรวมอยู่ในระดับเห็นด้วยปานกลาง เมื่อพิจารณาเป็นรายด้าน พบว่า ทุกด้าน ได้แก่ ด้านความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษโดยทั่วไป ด้านความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับประเภทของพจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ และด้านความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับข้อดีของพจนานุกรมประเภทต่างๆ อยู่ในระดับปานกลางเช่นกัน
2. การเปรียบเทียบความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 6 ในจังหวัดบุรีรัมย์ เมื่อจำแนกตามเพศ พบว่า ไม่แตกต่างกัน
3. การเปรียบเทียบความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 6 ในจังหวัดบุรีรัมย์ เมื่อจำแนกตามเกรดเฉลี่ยสะสม พบว่า โดยภาพรวมแตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ .05 เมื่อพิจารณาเป็นรายด้าน พบว่า ด้านความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับข้อดีของพจนานุกรมประเภทต่างๆ แตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ .05

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|------------------------|--|---------------|---------|
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| SCHOOL | Buriram Rajabhat University | YEAR | 2014 |

ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were to investigate and compare grade 12 students' beliefs in using dictionaries, classified by gender and G.P.A. The samples were 94 grade 12 students who were selected by using the table of Krejcie and Morgan and simple random sampling technique. The research instrument was the questionnaire.

The statistics used for analyzing the data were percentage, mean, standard deviation, independent samples t-test and one-way analysis of variance with the statistically significant difference set at .05 level. The results revealed as follows:

1. The overall beliefs in using dictionaries by grade 12 students in Buriram Province were at the mediocre level. When considering in each aspect of beliefs, it was found all aspects, namely "beliefs about English dictionaries in general", "beliefs about relative strengths of different types of English dictionaries", and "beliefs about specific types of English dictionaries" were also at the mediocre level.

2. The comparison of the beliefs in using dictionaries of grade 12 students in overall and each aspect of beliefs, classified by gender was not different.

3. The comparison of the beliefs in using dictionaries of grade 12 students in overall and each aspect of beliefs, classified by G.P.A. in overall was statistically significant difference at .05 level. When considering in each aspect of beliefs, it was found with statistically significant difference at .05 of the beliefs about relative strengths of different types of English dictionaries.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere thanks and appreciation to many persons who inspired, encouraged, and supported me in completing my thesis.

First and foremost, I would like to thank my thesis major advisor, Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant who had supported me with his knowledge, advised and guided throughout my time working on this research. Special gratitude to my co-advisor, Dr. Surachai Piyanukool for his kind suggestions and encouragement. Without them, this thesis would not have been completed. I would like to express my deepest gratitude to the thesis committees, Dr. Prayoon Chaowaneenart, the chairperson, and Dr. Chookiat Jarat for their suggestions that helped me improve and complete this thesis.

I would like to be thankful to three experts, namely Mr. Sittisak Pongphuehee, an English lecturer of Buriram Rajabhat University, Miss Chontichaline Kanson, an English lecturer of Buriram Rajabhat University, and Mrs. Wiphaporn Dang Sri, an English teacher of Phrakonchaipittayakom School, who helped check my research instrument and also gave useful suggestions to make it more valid and reliable. Thanks also go to grade 12 students of Khumuangwitayakam School in academic year 2014 for their cooperation in participating in my survey study.

Sincere thanks to Khumuangwitayakam School and also Buriram Rajabhat University, that gave me a chance to upgrade my knowledge and have more higher education. During my studying in Buriram Rajabhat University, my sincere thanks also go to Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, Assistant Professor Dr. Suthiap La-ongthong, Dr. Surachai Piyanukool, Dr. Saowarot Ruangpaisan,

Dr. Chookiat Jarat, and Dr. Khampeeraparb Intanoo who have devoted their time to teach, to guide, to advice, and to support me in various occasions and aspects.

Finally, I would like to thank my beloved parents, my older sisters, my younger brother and my friends, especially my beloved husband and two daughters for their assistance both in moral and financial supports, encouragement and understanding all along until my graduation of Master of Arts in English.

Kannikar Phoweangkam

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Since 1980's, the use of dictionaries by second language learners has become an increasingly important research issue not only in the field of lexicography but also in the context of foreign language learning and instruction. Studies have shown positive effects of dictionary use on reading comprehension (Summers, 1988; Tono, 1989; Knight, 1994; McCreary & Dolezal, 1999), and on vocabulary learning (Knight, 1994; Hustijin et al. 1996; Laufer & Hill, 2000). In addition, studies of Notohyara (1987) and Tono (1989) have revealed positive correlation between dictionary skills and overall English proficiency. Although relatively few studies (e.g. Ard, 1982; Hatherall, 1984; Nesi & Meara, 1994; Nuccorini, 1994) have been done on dictionary use in encoding activities, there has been a growing awareness that dictionaries may play an important role in second language writing as in reading as a result of the increasing opportunity of email communication and net chatting in the Internet community.

Despite the possibility of transfer of learners' perceptions of Thai dictionaries to their beliefs about English dictionaries, the overall English learning environment in Thailand and the indelible impact of the grammar-translation method on the English teaching appear to be more crucial in influencing learners' beliefs about the importance as well as necessity of dictionary use to improve their English. Although communicative language learning is becoming main stream in formal English learning

and teaching settings in Thailand, the grammar-translation approach still remains relatively alive in diverse types of non-institutional English learning such as English cram schools, and these settings also contribute to shaping learners' belief about the helpfulness of dictionary use in translation and expanding English vocabulary.

In particular, despite teachers' constant advice to avoid it, the use of translation to facilitate English learning is still a dominant learning habit among English learners in Thailand. As indicated in Piyanukool (2001), Thai EFL learners believe that the use of translation was beneficial for their English reading and vocabulary learning for more empirical studies of the influence of using Thai translation in learning English. Moreover, he found most of his Thai EFL learning, and English dictionary use was also found in his study to be one of the most frequently used translation strategies by the students. English dictionaries are efficient translation providers; it is, therefore, not difficult to understand why EFL learners in Thailand make habitual use of English dictionaries to foster English learning. This tendency of dictionary use for the translation purpose is particularly evident in learners' extensive use of electronic dictionaries, which are widely known as translation machines as if they are intended for the translation purpose only.

Despite their frequent use of and heavy reliance on English dictionaries, many EFL learners in Thailand do not seem to gain benefit from dictionary use in improving their English. Habitual English dictionary users do not necessarily turn out to be proficient English learners. The causes of this outcome may reside in how learners envision, and how they make use of dictionaries. Some of the notions students have about dictionaries and the way they use dictionaries may turn out to be, in EFL teachers' views, deleterious misconceptions and less thoughtful strategy use.

One group of learners, for instance, intuitively believe that dictionaries, particularly electronic dictionaries, are intended only for translation, and tend to use electronic dictionaries to meet their instantaneous translation needs, understanding and using the supplied Thai or English translations indiscriminately in reading and writing tasks. Many of these learners are also inclined to resort impulsively to dictionaries upon encountering unknown words while reading English or whenever uncertain how to render a Thai thought into English while writing English. Another group of learners tend to use dictionaries at decontextualized settings, browse dictionaries randomly, and learn vocabulary incidentally, perceiving dictionaries as an important resource for conscious learning of English vocabulary.

Although EFL teachers seem to be aware of students' dictionary perceptions and their dictionary strategy use, their own beliefs about dictionaries may differ from students', and students' actual dictionary use behaviors may run counter to teachers' expectations. For example, despite teachers' discouragement from using electronic dictionaries, students still use them frequently for the sake of convenience, fast accessibility, or even fashion. In addition, despite teachers' advice to make more use of monolingual instead of bilingual dictionaries, students still rely tremendously on the bilingual dictionary for a translation aid while learning English. Unfortunately, teachers' preconceptions of dictionaries may not necessarily reflect the truth of the matter. Students' hands-on electronic dictionary use experience, for example, may lead to some beliefs about this dictionary medium's advantages and disadvantages of which their teachers are not aware. Teachers, consequently, may overgeneralize the disadvantages of electronic dictionaries while ignoring their latest features and potential benefits to students.

Investigating students' dictionary beliefs, especially in high schools in Buriram Province, Thailand is therefore important in that it provides a source of knowledge teachers can build on to communicate with students and to confront nonfactual or erroneous beliefs with the new information. Discussions between teachers and students about their own dictionary beliefs will sensitize students' awareness of their own beliefs, and adjust or increase teachers' understanding of how students perceive and use dictionaries, which ultimately helps to foster more effective learning strategies in their students. In Buriram Province as well as in Thailand, there is no more research conducting to investigate the beliefs in using English dictionaries, therefore, this present study will be as the pioneer research related to the dictionary's belief in such situation.

1.2 Purposes of the Study

1. To investigate grade 12 students' beliefs in using English dictionaries.
2. To compare grade 12 students' beliefs in using English dictionaries classified by gender and G.P.A.

1.3 Research Questions

- 1.3.1 What are grade 12 students' reported beliefs in using dictionaries?
- 1.3.2 Is there any difference in using dictionaries of grade 12 students classified by gender and G.P.A?

1.4 Significance of the Study

1.4.1 The findings will be useful for grade 12 students as well as Thai EFL high school students in Buriram Province, Thailand who employ dictionaries to help them improve their vocabulary and reading skills in the lessons learned.

1.4.2 The findings of this study are expected to generate implications for the role of English dictionary education in English classroom settings in Buriram Province, Thailand.

1.4.3 Given that communicative language teaching is becoming the current trend of English instruction in Thailand, the findings of this research may provide some directions of thinking as to whether English dictionary education is suitable in the meaning and communication-based language classroom.

1.4.4 The findings will be fit into the setting of communicative learning and teaching, as well as what should be imparted to students with respect to dictionary beliefs.

1.5 Scope and Limitations of the Study

1.5.1 Since the survey employed in this study requires the participants to reflect retrospectively on their dictionary use, students' responses to the questionnaire items are subjective and might not entirely reflect their actual dictionary beliefs and dictionary strategy use. Respondents' desire to conform to teachers' or social expectations or their inability to evaluate, judge or recall dictionary use situations in detail might distort the data. Moreover, the reliability of respondents' responses to the questionnaires could also be a problem. Dictionary beliefs held by learners who use dictionaries more frequently are expected to be more stable and hence more reliable.

1.5.2 The low stability of respondents' dictionary beliefs could also be affected by the clarity of the belief items. This is a possibility in the present study. For example, although detailed response guides and explanations of what 'dictionaries' or 'English dictionaries' are supposed to refer to in the survey are given at the beginning of the two major questionnaires, there is no guarantee that each respondent read these explanations or understood them exactly as intended by the researcher.

1.5.3 While being able to generate a more comprehensive picture of learner dictionary beliefs and strategy use, questionnaires generally do not generate a rich picture of any behavior since they might miss other delicate and interacting factors involved.

1.5.4 The findings are based on a sample population of grade 12 students in Buriram Province. As a result, the generalization of the results is confined to the population with a homogeneous nature, and does not apply to population with different educational, cultural, or native language backgrounds.

1.5.5 Students' reported beliefs about English dictionaries do not necessarily suggest that they would act on these beliefs and put them into actual dictionary strategy use, and eventually improve their English. In this connection, the social desirability scale is limited in the sense that it cannot predict the effect of an individual's response behavior on his or her language proficiency.

1.5.6 The relationships or correlations found in this study between or among various belief, strategy, or learner background variables do not necessarily imply causal relationships.

1.6 Definitions of Key Terms

The following are operational definitions of key terms for this study:

1.6.1 Dictionary beliefs refer to beliefs about using English dictionaries of grade 12 students in Buriram Province, Thailand in four major areas: 1) expectations and motivations of dictionary use; 2) role of English dictionaries in English learning process; 3) perceived values of unconventional and conventional English dictionaries; and 4) relative strengths of different types and media of English dictionaries.

1.6.2 Dictionary Use refers to the use of bilingual dictionaries within the regular English lessons across a two-to-three month period in a classroom setting (as it is not feasible to monitor students' dictionary use in a non-classroom setting).

1.6.3 A Standard Bilingual Dictionary refers to the two object languages, and provides equivalents in the associated cultural environment in the target language (Hartmann. 2001: 44; Tarp. 2002 : 64). It is bidirectional, consisting of two alphabetical listings, and should meet the encoding and decoding needs of speakers of both languages.

1.6.4 A Bilingual Dictionary refers as a hybrid dictionary that contains the two types of information (monolingual and bilingual) (Laufer & hadar. 1997 : 190) , while Nation (2001: 288-89) further defines an English monolingual dictionary as one that has an English headword, an English definition, and all the examples and other information in English; whereas, bilingual dictionaries give the head word and the examples and other information in English; whereas, bilingual dictionaries give the head word and the examples in one language (English) and the meaning in another (Thai)

1.6.5 Grade 12 Students refers secondary students who study grade 12 in the 4high schools in Khumuang district under The Secondary Educational Service Area 32 in the first semester of academic year 2014.

1.6.6 G.P.A. refers to the grade point average of grade 12 students in Khumuang district under The Secondary Educational Service Area Office 32. It can be classified into three groups: low group = G.P.A. from 1.00 – 2.00; moderate group = G.P.A. from 2.01 – 3.00; and high group = G.P.A. from 3.01 – 4.00, respectively.

1.6.7 Buriram Province refers the province in the Northeastern Region of Thailand. In this study, it refers to Khumuang district where the schools of grade 12 students study. There are 3 schools in Khumuang district, Buriram Province, namely Kumuangwitthayakhom School, Prakhrupittayakhom School, and Toomyaiwitthayakhom School.

1.7 The Overviews of the Research

This research reports a survey that is to collect information about the various beliefs about English dictionaries. This study is thematically organized as follows: Chapter 1 introduces an overview of the thesis, presenting the context of the problem, its theoretical framework and the focus of the project. Chapter 2 presents a review of the related literature and research studies pertaining to the subject of this research, Chapter 3 outlines methodological framework. The chapter describes the data collection method pertaining to the research site, participants, and data collection procedures, and then ends with a description of data analysis. Chapter 4 presents the research result related to all research questions while Chapter 5 discusses these results and suggests recommendations for further studies.

1.8 Summary of the Chapter

In conclusion, this chapter has presented the background of the research, the purposes of the research, and the research questions. The current research is attempted to identify grade 12 students' beliefs about English dictionaries and dictionary strategy use in Buriram Province, Thailand. This research also provides the definitions of key terms used to define the research variables. In the next chapter, chapter Two presents the review of the related literature.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter first reviews studies on dictionary use in the context of ESL/ EFL reading, vocabulary learning, and writing. The beliefs and strategies learners have about dictionaries are an integral part of their entire learning belief and learning strategy systems and are likely to influence the way they use dictionaries. Therefore, the research on learner beliefs about foreign language learning, learning strategies in foreign language learning, and the relationships between learning beliefs and learning strategies will be reviewed. Next studies on dictionary needs, which usually embrace investigations into learners' dictionary perceptions and preferences will be discussed. The final section summarizes the past studies related to the present investigation.

2.1 Effect of Dictionary Use on the EFL/ ESL Reading Comprehension

A considerable number of dictionary-use studies have been devoted to investigating the effect of dictionary use on ESL/ EFL reading comprehension. The picture is mixed. Several studies on the relation between dictionary use and reading comprehension scores are reviewed. In these studies, the use of a dictionary is usually controlled (i.e. use and non-use of dictionary) to see how it affects the reading comprehension test scores.

Bensoussan, Sim and Weiss (1984) reported the results of three studies on the effect of English dictionaries on the performance of Israeli students on EFL reading tests. The first study was conducted at Ben Gurion University (N=91), The second at the University of Haifa (N=670), and the third also at Haifa (N=740), The text length

was about 500 to 800 words. In the first study, the participants were randomly assigned to the bilingual dictionary group, the monolingual dictionary group, and the control (no-dictionary) group. For the second and third studies, the subjects were allowed to bring their own dictionaries, the titles of which were reported in the questionnaire. In the Ben Gurion study, the participants were asked to take a three-hour battery of three reading comprehension tests (one hour for each text with 10 multiple-choice questions) while in the Haifa studies the experiment was done as a part of the official final examination, in which the students could spend up to 120 minutes to complete the test (only one text with 20 multiple-choice questions) and were permitted to choose a dictionary.

It was found that dictionary use did not have a significant effect on reading comprehension scores. In the Ben Gurion study, for instance, there was no significant difference between the test scores for each of the three texts, regardless of whether a dictionary was used or which dictionary type was used. The Haifa studies produced similar results.

Tono's 1989 study, however, contradicted the findings of the Ben Gurion and Haifa studies on the relationship between dictionary use and reading comprehension scores. The sample was made up of 17 first-year and 15 second-year Japanese junior high school students. These students attended special English courses and many had taken a training course specifically on dictionary skills. The test itself was composed of six separate tests in four categories: 1) placing words in alphabetical lists; 2) finding meanings by using a dictionary; 3) finding the fittest sense from those listed in the entry on the basis of context; and 4) finding idioms. There was also a comprehension test in which participants read two passages of about 100 to 150 words (one passage

with the aid of a dictionary and the other without) and then were asked to select correct statements about the contents about the contents of the passage. It was found that the subjects made a higher proportion of errors when they did not use dictionaries than when they used dictionaries. The results of this study also indicated that dictionary skills are significantly correlated with reading comprehension scores, suggesting that better dictionary skills will lead to better at reading texts without a dictionary, especially those who had spent more time on dictionary –skill training. Accordingly, the author argued that dictionary use must have a long-term effect on overall reading comprehension ability.

In Knight's 1994 study of the relationship between dictionary use and reading comprehension scores, the primary goal was to investigate incidental vocabulary learning from context. A subsidiary aim was to examine the effect of access to computerized dictionary on reading comprehension. The participants were 112 American second-year college students learning Spanish at Central Michigan University. Four authentic Spanish texts no longer than 250 words each were selected for the readings. The immediate recall protocol was employed to assess the participants' reading comprehension. Students were told that they could read the text as often as they liked and that when they finished they would be asked to write in English everything that they remembered from the text. The results showed that the dictionary group had a significantly higher reading comprehension mean than the no-dictionary group, and this result was not affected by text types.

2.2 Effect of Dictionary Use on the ESL/ EFL Reading Comprehension

Process in General

In addition to studies of the effect of dictionary use on reading-test scores, several studies attempted to understand the effect of dictionary use on the reading comprehension process in general. Pardon and Waxman (1988), for example, investigated the effect of reading strategies on reading achievement. Eighty-two Hispanic ESL students were randomly selected for the study. The reading comprehension section of the Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test was administered twice at 3-month intervals to determine the relationship between the strategies cited by students and gains in reading comprehension. Immediately after completing the post-test, students were administered a Reading Strategy Questionnaire, a 14-item, Likert-type questionnaire developed by the researchers. The results showed that among other strategies, looking up words in the dictionary was negatively related to students' reading achievement. However, the relationship between dictionary use and reading achievement was not discussed in detail in the study.

Another pessimistic view of the effect of dictionary use on reading comprehension was reported in Neubach and Cohen (1988). The participants in this study were six students at the Pre-Academic Center of the Hebrew University of Jerusalem. Two students each were selected from high, intermediate, and low-level EFL classes, every student completed two tasks individually, each requiring the use of a dictionary. The second task was a reading comprehension task in which students were confronted with ten words to look up while reading a passage of about 150 words written by Helen Keller. In this task, subjects could decide whether to use a dictionary and select whichever dictionary they preferred. Subjects were to provide

verbal report protocols while searching for words in the dictionary, indicating the processes they were using in their search. The protocols were tape-recorded. The study found that as an aid in facilitating reading comprehension, dictionaries did not seem to provide much help. In addition, although the lower-level students had difficulty understanding the meaning of specific words, they still managed to understand the main idea.

Unlike the preceding studies, Hulstijn (1993) examined the influence of task variables such as reading goal, word relevance, and word infer ability on foreign language learners' lookup behaviors. The experiment involved the use of computers and pseudo-words to find out when students looked up words. No actual paper dictionaries were used for the experiment, but a computer showed the meaning of difficult words in a text available both on paper and on a personal computer screen as they consulted words on the computer, computer-generated log files registered the subjects' lookups. In addition, eight pseudo-words were inserted in the text in order to ensure that every subject would look up these particular words. It was found that words which students considered important to their reading goal were looked up more frequently than words considered irrelevant. In addition, words whose meanings could be inferred from context were looked up less frequently than words considered irrelevant whose meanings could not be inferred easily.

Hulstijn's (1993) findings revealed two notable lookup behaviors. First, students did not consult the meaning of all the unknown words, nor the meaning of all relevant words, even when under no time constraint. Second, students with larger vocabularies generally looked up fewer words than students with smaller vocabularies. However, high-level inference ability does not necessarily result in less

dictionary use than low-level inference ability. On the contrary, students with high-level inference ability decided to look up words not because they did not understand the meaning but because they wanted to verify their inferences. In other words, Hulstijn (1993) suggested that guessing from context and dictionary use were not mutually exclusive, or that inferring meaning from context and checking meaning in a dictionary may take place simultaneously.

With different research goals from Hulstijn's (1993) and without controlling for dictionary use, Aust et al. (1993), in addition, employed a 2 x 2 factorial design to compare the effects of dictionary type (i.e. monolingual vs. Bilingual Dictionary) and dictionary medium (i.e. Print vs. computerized Dictionary) on the measures of 80 undergraduate Spanish learners' lookup frequency, lookup efficiency, text study time, and reading comprehension. The results indicated that the bilingual dictionary (BD) group and the computerized dictionary (CD) group had higher lookup frequency and lookup efficiency, but less text study time, than the monolingual dictionary (MD) and the print dictionary (PD) group. However, no significant group differences in reading comprehension were found between the MD and MD and BD, or between the PD and CD groups.

2.3 Dictionary Use in ESL/ EFL Vocabulary Learning

Dictionary use plays an important role in the context of EFL vocabulary learning. Research on this language learning issue is limited but the quantity appears to be steadily increasing. One of the pioneers works in this field, Summers (1988) examined the influence of dictionary information on vocabulary learning by testing three different dictionary -entry types, those that presented information for production

only, for comprehension only, and for both comprehension and production. In the study, a reading passage roughly equivalent to the level between FCE (First Certificate in English) and the Cambridge Proficiency exam was prepared with eight unknown target words selected. The sample entries were written for each of the eight words. One entry consisted entirely of example sentences. Another entirely of word definitions, and the third of word definitions plus example sentences, the different entry types were typed onto index cards and mixed so that each student received entries of all three types. The subjects were then asked to answer multiple-choice comprehension questions with the help of these index cards. Blank cards were used as control conditions. They did the test twice, once with the cards and once without the cards during the meaning retention test. The results showed that in all cases, comprehension was substantially improved by using the dictionary entries, together with the text, but that there was no statistically significant difference between the success rate of the three different entry types.

Like Summers (1988), Laufer (1993) examined the relative effects of dictionary definitions and examples, trying to understand which component of dictionary information contributed to better vocabulary learning. In the study, the effectiveness of definitions, examples, and the combination of both were compared in

The comprehension and production of new words includes two variables, namely, information type (definition only, example only, combined) and tasks (comprehension and production), were counterbalanced in the within-subject design and tested for the effect. The results of MANOVA showed that new words were best learned with the help of both definitions and examples. In addition, definitions only were significantly better than examples only for comprehension. It was also found

that subjects improved significantly in the comprehension of new words more when definitions were added than when examples were added. Altogether, the definition component seemed to have a more positive effect on comprehension, on the production side, moreover, the combined-information type was better than either of the two information types, but no significant difference was found between definition-only and example-only information types.

Quite different questions were researched by Krants (1991), who was interested in understanding to what degree vocabulary learning takes place simply by reading words in context (the read-only group) versus by both reading and dictionary use (read-and-lookup group), and which is more efficient, a monolingual or bilingual dictionary. In the study, 52 Swedish undergraduate students majoring in English and Economics were asked to read a book in their reading sessions and to consult a dictionary on computer. Pre-post design was used to assess the subjects' vocabulary knowledge before and after reading. The results showed that 213 different word types were looked up, which was equivalent to 1.7 lookups per page and 42% of the unknown test-word types. The words looked up were predominantly of non-Germanic origin. There was no difference between the monolingual and bilingual dictionary groups in the average time taken for lookup. It was also shown that one-fifth of the test words were actually learned, and that there was no significant difference between the two types of dictionaries used.

Laufer and Melamed (1994) examined the relative effectiveness of monolingual, bilingual and bilinguallized (a hybrid of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries on the comprehension and production by EFL learners of 15 low-frequency words in English. As part of a regular language exercise, 122 EFL students

(76 pre-advanced and 46 advanced) were given a list of 15 target words with their dictionary entries. A multiple-choice test was administered to check the students' comprehension. As an evaluation of their production of the test words, the participants were asked to write original sentences with each of the target words to compare the three types of dictionaries. The results showed that the bilingual dictionary was significantly more effective than the other two types of dictionaries in comprehension. No significant difference was found between the monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. However, For English production, no significant difference was found between the bilingualized and bilingual dictionaries, but both types were better than the monolingual dictionary.

Laufer and Melamed (1994) also examined the relationship between learners with different dictionary skills and their use of the three types of dictionaries. It was found that the bilingualized dictionary seemed to be the best choice in both comprehension and production for unskilled and average learners, while there was no significant difference between the three types of dictionaries in comprehension, production, or both for good dictionary users.

Unlike Laufer and Melamed (1994), which used commercially marketed dictionaries in the experiment, Knight (1994) supplied dictionary definitions on computer in a study that investigated the effect of dictionary use on vocabulary learning while reading. A controlled experiment was designed in which groups with two different levels of verbal ability (High and Low) were assigned to work on reading tasks on computer and all the looked-up words and reading times were recorded in log files. The results of immediate and delayed supply-the -definition vocabulary scores showed that students with high verbal ability learn more words than

those with low verbal ability, and that students who use a dictionary learn more than those who do not.

Lupescu and Day (1993) investigated the relative amount of vocabulary learning taking place while students were reading with and without the help of dictionaries. In the study, 293 Japanese college students were asked to read a short story with and without a dictionary. They were told to take as much time as they needed to read the passage. Students in the experimental group were not. The vocabulary test consisted of multiple-choice question items, each with five choices: one key, three distractors, and one 'I don't know' choice. Overall, despite their initial hypothesis, dictionary use was found to have a significant effect on students' performance on the vocabulary test.

Hulstijn et al (1996) studied the effect of marginal glosses, dictionary use, and reoccurrence of unknown words on vocabulary learning in French. In the study, 78 Dutch university students (advanced L2 learners of French) read a short story under one of the following three conditions: with marginal glosses, with dictionary access, or without either (control). A vocabulary-knowledge pre-test, three pot-tests, a recognition and recall test with words in isolation, and another recall test with words in context, were administered. The results showed that the use of marginal glosses yielded much better retention scores than the use of dictionaries. This result seems questionable, however. As pointed out by Tono (2001), unless the task ensures that participants look up in a dictionary all the words that are also explained in marginal glosses, the effect of dictionary use cannot be compared with that of marginal glosses. As also shown in the results of Hulstijn et al. (1996), when participants in a dictionary group actually looked up a word, their chance of remembering its meaning

was greater than the average retention in the marginal gloss group (ibid : 334), which suggests the value of dictionary use in word retention.

2.4 Dictionary Use in ESL/EFL Encoding Activities

Dictionary use can be investigated from the perspective of whether learners access dictionaries for decoding/receptive purposes such as listening, reading, and L2-L1 translation, or for encoding/productive purposes such as speaking, writing, and L1-L2 translation (Rundell . 1999) . Probably because reading rather than writing tasks are more common in the second-language classroom, dictionary use is more observable in association with reading activities, while the productive use of dictionaries tends to be neglected(Tono.2001) However, there has been a growing awareness that dictionaries are as necessary and important tools for writing as they are for reading. The Hulstijn and Atkins survey (1998) of prior studies on dictionary use registered as many studies on the productive as on the receptive use of dictionaries. This growing awareness of the need for dictionaries in language production seems to parallel the trend Hartmann (1992) noted: the movement of pedagogical lexicography away from the receptive or passive dictionary for decoding purposes towards the more productive or active dictionary for encoding purposes. In the following section I will review the previous research on the productive use of dictionaries in ESL/EFL writing.

One important area of research on the productive use of dictionaries is the productive effectiveness of dictionary definitions, which, according to Nesi (2000), was examined in two major ways. The first approach involved compiling a corpus of spontaneously produced errors and examining dictionary definitions to see if the

errors might have been corrected had the writers consulted a dictionary. The other approach involved collecting examples of writing produced after dictionary consultation in order to determine what word knowledge the writers have acquired through dictionary use.

The focus of the research adopting the first approach has largely been on EFL learning situations. Studies such as Huang (1985), Nesi (1987), and Meara and English (1988) have gathered examples of errors produced by non-native speaker writers, and then investigated the relevant entries in major EFL learners' dictionaries. Huang (1985) gathered examples of errors produced by his Chinese EFL sophomore students, and then investigated the relevant entries in major EFL learners' dictionaries to see how words (e.g. verbs) misused by the students were grammatically dealt within the learners' dictionaries such as Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD), Longman Dictionary of contemporary English (LDOCE), and Chambers Universal Learners' Dictionary (CULD), and whether the errors might have been predicted had the writers consulted a dictionary. The author demonstrated the typical linguistic difficulties which Chinese learners of English had in writing, such as the use of verbs, subject-verb agreement, structural words, distinction between synonyms, etc., and showed how EFL lexicographers could help users prevent problems of production. The errors were held to be inter-lingual, as in sentences 1 – 3, or intralingual, as in sentences 4 – 5 below:

1. Although it was supposed to be very funny, but nobody laughed.
2. In order to get into the German-occupied area, he pretended an old lady.
3. You are not a teacher of French, are you?

Yes, I am not. I am a teacher of English.

4. He has become a police officer for ten years.

5. Then the seller ran after me and offered \$8 for it.

The errors in 1 – 3 were claimed to result from L1 interference, traced to direct translations from Chinese. On the other hand, the errors in 4 – 5 were conceived to be confusion type errors stemming from the misapplication of target language rules, such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn the conditions of rule application, rather than the misapplication of source language rules. The author noted that beginning students were more likely to make inter-linguistic errors, while intermediate or advanced students tended to make confusion errors. He claimed that we could not expect learners' dictionaries to help with interference errors not shared by different language groups, but that learner's dictionaries could help the student apply target language rules in order to be aware of and, if possible, avoid confusion errors.

Along the same lines, Nesi (1987) examined the treatment in the same three dictionaries of semantic or lexical errors produced by overseas postgraduate students at Aston University, Birmingham, England. The study also attempted to understand what happened when a student consulted a dictionary when uncertain about a choice of word, and why a word choice was marked wrong. It was noted in the study that, as a major feature, learners' dictionaries included grammatical and phonetic information to help learners produce language, but the lexical – semantic information in such dictionaries provided little help in terms of language production or context. Three types of lexical errors, and errors of meaning. The three dictionaries examined were shown to seriously mislead the student even in the choice of common words.

Meara and English (1988) took Nesi (1987) as a starting point for a large-scale investigation of learners' errors and their treatment in the Longman Active study dictionary. This study examined the effectiveness of English dictionaries in correcting errors made by beginner ESL learners. Lexical errors made in exam essays were collected and coded by type, and the usefulness of the Longman Active study Dictionary, designed for ESL learners, in helping to correct the errors was analyzed. The results reveal systematic differences in error types made by students of different language backgrounds. The authors remarked that analyses of errors made by language learners can be useful to dictionary writers in increasing the materials' effectiveness, and that a particular dictionary can vary in effectiveness for different target – language groups.

The three studies employing the first approach to the study of the productive use of dictionary definitions have use fully identified areas where dictionary definitions ignore or even appear to condone the mistakes writers make, and their findings have led to some changes in learners' dictionaries.

The second approach to studying the productive use of dictionary definitions is complementary to the first, but so far only one or two studies of EFL dictionary use have adopted it, notably Jain(1981) and Nesi and Meara (1994).

Jain (1981) discussed the limitations of foreign learners' dictionaries, which are characterized by a controlled vocabulary in dictionary definitions to promote learner comprehension, and the elaboration of pronunciation and grammatical information to facilitate production. The author maintained that comprehensive grammatical information was a necessary but not a sufficient requirement for the learner to use the dictionary successfully in the production mode, and that no less

important was the lexical-semantic information. He addressed the disadvantages of using limited or controlled vocabulary in the definitions of monolingual learner's dictionaries, and demonstrated that vocabulary limitations might lead to incomplete and inadequate lexical-semantic information, making it difficult to meet the production needs of the learner, and easy to make errors. Some errors, for example, resulted from the confusion of one-word synonyms in the dictionary definitions (e.g. dress as a synonym for clothes); others were caused by the lack of explanation by the dictionary of the basic differences between easily confused words like cry/weep, afire/ablaze, conveyance/transport/vehicle; still others were derived from the lack of information regarding selectional restrictions of verbs. For the last case, for example, learners were told by a certain dictionary that collide was intransitive and could be used with or without with, but no mention was made about selectional restrictions. Sentences such as 'I saw his car collide with my own eyes' were therefore produced by students.

Nesi and Meara (1994) analyzed the errors EFL Learners made while using learners' dictionaries to write sentences containing unfamiliar words. The study was interested in understanding whether the kid rule strategy of Miller and Gildea (1985, 1987) accounted for the errors the adult L2 learners made when they used dictionaries, and what other patterns of lookup behaviors were also involved in the way learners used dictionaries. In the study, 52 non-native English-speaking adults were presented with pairs of words (one high-frequency word all subjects should have known; the other, unfamiliar to all of the subjects) rather than a single target word, and were asked to use both of the words in a single sentence. The participants were divided into three groups according to which of the three on-line dictionary options

(i.e. Longman Dictionary of contemporary English, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, an Collins Covuild English Dictionary) they had access to. Statistical procedures were conducted to analyze the different mean scores of the three groups. The study focused on the 712 collective lookups and examined the corpus of errors produced by the subjects as a whole. The corpus of errors produced by the non-native adult speakers of English suggested that they were employing the Kidrule strategy, which consists of four steps: (1) read the definition, (2) select a short, familiar segment, (3) compose a sentence containing that segment, and (4) substitute the target word for the selected segment. It was found in the study that some errors arose because the dictionary users latched onto a part of the dictionary definition without really understanding how it related to the word they were looking up, or because the dictionary entries were misleading and defective.

As Nesi (2000) remarked, a certain degree of overlap is to be expected in the findings of research using the first and the second approaches, especially where weak

Definitions allow for typical misconceptions about the meaning and grammar of words. Although the second approach may well miss many common errors that dictionaries fail to correct, it may also bring to light errors actually induced by dictionary use. Both approaches are therefore necessary if we want to obtain a rounded picture of the productive effectiveness of dictionary definitions.

In addition to the research on the productive use of dictionary definitions, another line of research investigated how learners use dictionaries, especially bilingual dictionaries, in the writing task, and whether example sentences supplied in a dictionary contribute to better writing.

Ard (1982) attempted to understand whether the use of bilingual dictionaries helped or hindered progress in ESL writing tasks. It combined filmed protocols with oral interviews in order to directly observe the dictionary consultation activities in authentic setting. The author reported on students' word choices from their bilingual dictionaries, and critically looked at actual dictionary use by Japanese, Arabic, and Spanish speakers while writing short compositions. The actual instances of dictionary use analyzed in the study were based on three sources: 1) students' recollections of how they use bilingual dictionaries, 2) actual instances of words chosen from bilingual dictionaries by students when writing in class, and 3) protocols of students' writing and their simultaneous oral comments about their writing. It was found in the study that use of bilingual dictionaries as well as L1 knowledge engendered immediate errors, and that certain prominent types of errors could be predicted based on the properties of the existing bilingual dictionaries and on the inter-linguistic relationship. Moreover, Ard found that different patterns and degrees of errors could be linked to different language groups, and suggested that learners with an L1 closer to English (in this study, Spanish) were more likely to succeed in L2 writing.

Nesi (1994), in addition, investigated the essays written by 51 Portuguese and 44 Malaysian college students and found that the context of target-language use and learners' cultural background could be important factors for proficient dictionary use. Portuguese students were found to have looked up fewer words and made fewer words and made fewer lexical errors in their writing even though they had an EFL learning background. While Malaysia is an ESL environment and these subjects seemed to have more lexical knowledge than Portuguese students, they looked up more words in dictionaries and ended up with more lexical errors. Nesi compared the

number of cognates in the essays, which possibly helped the learners with their writing, but found that L1 – related words do not always have a positive effect on the quality of writing, thus questioning the assumption that learners whose L1 is closer to English experience more proficient dictionary use and perform better in L2 writing.

Moreover, Nesi (1996) tested the assumption held by many lexicographers and ESL/EFL teachers that illustrative examples supplied in dictionaries together with word definitions are valuable aids to proficient language production. This study investigated whether dictionary definitions with illustrative examples were more helpful than definitions without illustrative examples in the productive use of dictionaries. The participants were 40 adult non-native speakers studying English at the advanced level in Britain. They were asked to produce sentences containing a target word and a high-frequency word. They were also allowed to choose whether or not to access dictionary information before writing each sentence. There were 18 target words and 2 versions of the test. In each version, example sentences and Phrases for half the target words were removed . In other words, in each version of the test, participants were provided with example sentences for only half of the target words. Statistical analyses of the produced sentences showed that there was no significant difference between the participants with and those without the aid of the illustrative examples on the measure of writing performance.

Still another experimental study on the productive use of EFL dictionaries is Laufer and Hadar (1997) . Assuming that the majority of the foreign language learners used bilingual dictionaries, although monolingual dictionaries were conceived to be more useful, this study explored whether a hybrid such as a “bilingualized” , or

“semibilingual”, dictionary that contains two types of information (monolingual and bilingual) was a more effective product for EFL learners. It compared the effects of the three types of EFL dictionaries (i.e. monolingual, bilingual, and bilingualized dictionaries) on the production as well as reception of new words. The participant received a list of 15 target words with their dictionary definitions. Five target words were supplied with entries from a monolingual learner’s dictionary, five from a bilingual learner’s dictionary, and five from a bilingualized dictionary, so that each word was tested by three dictionaries and each student was exposed to three dictionary types. The students were measured on their ability to use the target words in sentences as well as on their comprehension of the words. The group using the bilingualized dictionary tended to perform better than the other two groups. However, the relative effectiveness of the monolingual and the bilingual dictionary might well depend on the learners’ lookup skills or language ability (unskilled, average, and good), and on the task to be performed (comprehension or production).

2.5 Learner Beliefs and learning Strategies in Foreign Language Learning

Since dictionaries are commonly used in the context of foreign language reading, writing, or other language learning tasks, learner beliefs about dictionaries should be incorporated into the overall foreign language learning belief system, and dictionary strategies can be seen as an integral part of the overall system of foreign language learning strategies before reviewing studies of learner perceptions of dictionaries in foreign language learning. In addition, since learners’ perceptions of dictionaries may influence how they use dictionaries, studies on the relationship

between foreign language learning beliefs and learning strategies will also be reviewed next.

2.5.1 Learner Beliefs about Foreign Language Learning

Second or foreign language learners often come to English classes with many preconceived ideas about language learning, or they may arrive at the language learning task with definite preconceived notions of how to go about it (Horwitz, 1987, 1988). Learners' different preconceived notions of or beliefs about language learning are likely shaped by their previous learning experiences and cultural backgrounds (Horwitz, 1987, 1988). Abraham and Vann (1987) also contended that learners' language learning philosophy or beliefs and the patterns of learning strategy use are likely associated with background factors such as native language, other languages known, profession motivation for learning English, cognitive style, personality traits, and intelligence.

In the foreign or second language learning literature learner beliefs are also referred to as their metacognitive knowledge, or simply knowledge about learning (Wenden, 1998, 1999). Metacognitive knowledge is that segment of our stored world knowledge that has to do with people as cognitive creatures and with their diverse cognitive tasks, goals, actions, and experiences (Flavell, 1979 : 906 - 907). According to Flavell, metacognitive knowledge consists primarily of knowledge or beliefs about what factors or variables act and interact in what ways to affect the course and outcome of cognitive enterprises. Wenden (1999 435 - 436) suggested that this knowledge is a stable body of knowledge that may change over time, and that it may be acquired unconsciously through observation and imitation, or consciously as learners listen to advice about how to learn from teachers, parents, or peers. Also, as

learners become cognitively mature, they may reflect on their learning process and revise earlier assumptions or develop new ones, and be able to bring this knowledge to consciousness and talk about it. When addressing the effects of metacognitive knowledge, White (1999 : 443) claimed that the belief systems held or developed by learners contributed to their adjusting to new environments, defining what is expected of them, and acting in accordance with those understandings.

In Wenden (1986b), 25 advanced ESL students were interviewed and requested to report retrospectively on their English learning in varied social settings where English was used. It was found that in addition to discussing their own language learning strategies, the students could talk about the following aspects of their language learning: 1) the language, including its formal structure, discourse, and function; 2) their proficiency and progress in the language, areas of difficulty, and Comparisons with others; 3) the outcome of using a selected strategy; 4) the learning process and learner variables associated with this process; and 5) the best approach to learning a second language. Wenden referred to these five belief dimensions as designating, diagnosing, evaluating, Self-analyzing, and theorizing, respectively.

As the first researcher to identify language learners' beliefs in a more systematic manner, Horwitz (1985,1987,1988) developed a belief scale, the Beliefs About Language learning Inventory (BALLI), on the basis of free-recall protocols and focus group discussions with EFL/ESL students and teachers of different cultural backgrounds. The BALLs about language learning in five major areas: 1) foreign language aptitude, 2) the difficulty of language learning, 3) the nature of language learning, 4) learning and communication strategies, and 5) motivations and expectations (Howritz.1987). This instrument was used to assess and report many

discrete learning beliefs of ESL students (Horwitz, 1987) and becoming –level American university students of French, Spanish, and German (Horwitz, 1988). In order to identify cultural differences in learner beliefs, Horwitz (1999) reviewed the individual beliefs of groups of language learners as reported in several studies using the BALLI. The study concluded that although a number of instances of intra- and inter-cultural group differences seemed to exist, clear-cut conclusions about cultural differences did not seem possible. It also suggested that the differences identified in the various American groups and the two groups of Korean and Turkish learners seemed to be more attributable to differences in learning circumstances than cultural differences.

2.5.2 Foreign Language Learning Strategies

Following Rubin (1987), O'Malley et al. (1983), and Brown et al. (1983), learner or learning strategies generally refer to what learners do to learn or what they do to regulate their learning, and these strategies may include steps, methods, plans, or routines employed by learners to facilitate their obtaining, processing, storing, retrieving, and using information. Addressing, also the affective perspective of learning strategies, Oxford (1990 : 8) expanded the preceding cognitive or metacognitive view of learning strategies and offered a more comprehensive characterization of 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. Unlike the authors of the preceding definitions, Cohen (1998) tended to understand learning strategies as conscious learning processes use by students to facilitate learning a foreign language and focusing on consciousness as a distinctive element that excludes non-strategic learning processes.

Probably as a result of the shift of focus by foreign language teachers and researchers from teaching methods to foreign language learners themselves, research on learning strategies in foreign language learning since the seventies. No longer viewed as passive objects that respond only to what is taught, foreign language learners were perceived to be active and interactive in the process of language teaching and learning. The perspective in foreign language learning has therefore shifted from the stimulus – response to the cognitive view. The growing emphasis on learners has also offered numerous perspectives to examine their individual differences with respect to second or foreign language learning. Perhaps inspired by the need to help the less proficient become better foreign-language learners, researchers in the seventies began to understand the variables inherent in or operating on language learners, proficient learners in particular, while they were studying a foreign language (e.g. Rubin. 1975; Stern. 1975). This line of research continued into the nineties and has triggered a growing interest in the study of learning strategies in foreign language learning (e.g. Chamot. 1987; MacIntyre & Noels. 1996 ; O'Malley et al. 1985).

Despite the rigor of research on language learning strategies, little agreement seems to exist among learning strategy researchers on what strategies really are, how many are available to the learner, and how they should be categorized (Oxford & Chen. 1992). Rubin (1975), for example, characterized good language learners as having the ability and willingness to guess, desiring to engage in communication, being not intimidate attending to the form of the language (e.g. looking for patterns, analyzing, categorizing, and synthesizing), practicing, monitoring their own speech and the speech of others, and paying attention to meaning, Stern (1975), in addition,

identified 10 strategies characteristic of the effective learner: 1) having one's own personal learning style; 2) actively approaching the learning task; 3) being tolerant of the target language; 4) developing sufficient linguistic knowledge; 5) experimenting and planning; 6) attending to meaning; 7) practicing; 8) assessing the language to communicate; 9) monitoring; 10) thinking in the target language. Apparently, Rubin's and Stern's good learners not only use cognitive strategies (e.g. practicing) and metacognitive strategies (e.g. monitoring), but also have personal learning styles (e.g. being tolerant of the target language)

In her study of five Chicano ESL learners, Wong-Fillmore (1976; cited in Rubin, 1987), identified social strategies used by proficient learners, which involved them in joining group activities and motivating them to ask for help to stay in the conversation. These good learners of the preceding studies, however, had not developed strategies to deal with affective aspects of language learning (e.g. reducing language anxiety). Naiman et al. (1978), who interviewed 33 good adult learners, schemed to be the first to note that good language learners realize the need to deal with the affective demands arising from language learning.

Aside from the identification of strategies typically associated with good language learners, researchers in the eighties also paid attention to strategies used by less competent learners. Abraham and Vann (1987), for example, conducted a case study with two learners who differed primarily in levels of language proficiency. It was indicated that Gerardo, the good learner, used more, and a wider range of, cognitive learning strategies than Pedro, the poor learner. Based on the interview and observation data involving 70 ESL students and 22 teachers, O'Malley et al. (1985a), however, found that intermediate level learners used proportionally more

metacognitive strategies than beginning level students, and that the use of cognitive strategies tended to favor beginning level learners.

Other studies also compared the learning strategies of proficient and less proficient learners, or examined the effects of learning strategies on learners' language achievement. Hosenfeld (1977), for example, used the "think aloud" approach to understand the reading strategies by proficient and unsuccessful second language learners, and it was found in the study that proficient learners used some form of contextual guessing based on inductive reasoning. Also reported in the study was a metacognitive strategy use that involved the evaluation of thinking by assessing the appropriateness of the logic of a guess. A longitudinal study of Spanish and Russian learners (Chamot & Kupper, 1989), moreover, found that learners at all language levels used learning strategies, and it was the range and the way individual strategies were used that distinguished more effective from frequently, widely, and appropriately than less effective learners. In another study with 11 Hispanic ESL high school students, O'Malley, Chamot and Kupper (1989) used interviews and think-aloud verbal reports to investigate listening comprehension strategies of more effective and less effective second language learners. Significant differences were found between more effective and less effective learners in the use of strategies such as self-monitoring, elaboration, and inference to aid listening comprehension. Strategy use by learners was also distinguishable at different phases of the listening comprehension process (e.g. perceptual processing phase, parsing phase, and utilization phase). In the parsing phase, for instance, ineffective learners listened on a verbatim basis and used only a bottom-up approach, while effective learners listened to larger chunks and use both top-down and bottom-up approaches. In the utilization

phase, ineffective learners seldom used elaboration strategies, while effective learners made use of world knowledge, personal experience, and self-questioning for comprehension and recall.

Unlike preceding research on the comparison of more proficient and less proficient learners in terms of learning strategy use, Bialystok (1979) examined the effects of conscious learning strategies on various types of language achievement by 157 high school second-language learners. Four categories of learning strategies were addressed and differentiated in the study: formal practice, monitoring, functional practice, and inference. In terms of the purpose of language, Bialystok divided the four conscious strategies into two major categories, formal and functional strategies. Formal strategies include formal practice and monitoring, and functional strategies include functional practice and inference. According to Bialystok, formal strategies focus on language form and structure, and classroom activities that involve exercises for mastering the rule system, such as memorizing vocabulary lists, filling in the blanks with the proper forms, and reciting various sounds, pertain to formal practice strategies. Derived from Krashen (1976,1977)'s "language monitor" , monitoring refers to strategies "used through reflection upon the formal aspects of the message and concern with its structure" (Bialystok. 1979 : 375). Functional strategies, in contrast, focus on language use in communicative situations. Functional practice, for example, occurs when learners use the target language to communicate meanings, such as going to movies, reading newspapers and magazines, or talking to native speakers. Inference is narrowly defined in the study as the strategy used primarily to derive meaning from the target language rather than to infer formal or structural features. The study found that functional practice was most responsible for

achievement on all tasks despite the fact that use of all four strategies had positive effects on students' language achievement.

Although research on learning strategies based on the data from good or effective learners helped to understand how learners approach a foreign language, the focus on good language learners does not seem to advance our understanding of how learning strategies should be classified. Rubin's (1981) dichotomy of direct and indirect strategies enabled researchers to study learning strategies in a more systematic way (Hsiao, 1999). Direct strategies embraced clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inference, deductive reasoning, and practice, while indirect strategies may include creating opportunities for practice and using production tricks (e.g. circumlocution). More specific strategies were further listed under each of these strategies (e.g. asking to be corrected and using gestures to communicate meanings).

Rubin's classification of learning strategies into direct and indirect processes was questioned by O'Malley et al. (1985a), who found that in Rubin's classification scheme some strategies exist in more than one single grouping. As pointed out by O'Malley and his research group, this overlapping occurred in 253 of 638 strategies identified from interviewing and observing high school ESL students in the classroom. O'Malley et al. (1985a), therefore, developed a scheme of classification that refined Rubin's taxonomy of learning strategies. The new classification scheme covers three broad types of strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, and socio affective, cognitive strategies "involve mental manipulation or transformation of materials or tasks and are intended to enhance comprehension, acquisition, or retention" of information (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990 : 229); metacognitive strategies refer to

thinking about or knowledge of the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring learning while it is taking place, or self-evaluation of learning after the task has been completed; socio affective strategies involve using social interactions to assist in the comprehension, learning, or retention of information or using mental control over personal affect that interferes with learning.

It is clear from the preceding strategy definitions and classification provided by O'Malley et al. (1985a) and O'Malley & Chamot (1990) that learning strategy theories have both drawn on cognitive psychology and addressed the affective and social aspects of language learning. However, the strategy classification of O'Malley et al (1985) is not the only scheme that has been associated with cognitive psychology and both affective and social dimensions of language learning. Another classification system, attributed to Oxford (1990), is the strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). Oxford (1990) classifies learning strategies into direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies include memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies, whereas indirect strategies include metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Each of these strategies is defined as follows (Oxford & Crookall, 1989 : 404): 1) memory strategies: techniques specifically tailored to help the learner store new information in memory and retrieve it later; 2) cognitive strategies: skills that involve manipulation or transformation of the language in some direct way, e.g., through reasoning, analysis, note taking, functional practice in naturalistic settings, formal practice with structure and sounds, etc.; 3) compensation strategies; behaviors used to compensate for missing knowledge of or circumlocution while speaking or writing; 4) metacognitive strategies: behaviors used for centering, arranging, planning, and providing "executive control" over the learning process; 5) affective strategies:

techniques like self-reinforcement and positive self – talk which help learners gain better control over their emotions. Attitudes, and motivations related to language learning; and 6) social strategies: actions involving other people in the language learning process, for example, questioning, cooperating with peers, and developing empathy.

2.5.3 Relationships between Learner Beliefs and Learning Strategies

Aside from the identification of strategies used by learners to approach a second or foreign language, researchers also suggested that learner's' language learning strategy use is likely influenced by their metacognitive knowledge or beliefs about language learning (Abraham & Vann. 1987 ; Horwitz .1987,1988; Wenden. 1986a. 1987; Oxford & Nyilos. 1989; Yang. 1992, 1999).

The Abraham and Vann (1987 : 95 - 96) case study of one more proficient (Gerardo) and one less proficient (Pedro) learner suggested that learners held beliefs about how language operated and had a philosophy of how language was learned, and that such language beliefs and philosophy seemed to guide their language learning approach, or more specifically, influence the variety and flexibility of their use of learning strategies.

In addition, the interview data in the Wenden (1987 : 112) study suggested that her learners were able to think about the nature of the language learning process and articulate some of these beliefs, and that these explicit beliefs seemed to lead the learners to different approaches to language learning. Learners who emphasized using the language, for example, tended to use communication strategies, whereas those who stressed the importance of learning about the language were more likely to use cognitive strategies. As indicated in Wenden (1986a), these learners' beliefs about

how best to learn a foreign language were revealed in: 1) the kinds of strategies they used; 2) what they attended to ; 3) the criteria they used to evaluate the effectiveness of learning activities and social contexts which facilitated their use or practice of the language; and 4) where they concentrated the use of their strategies. Therefore, the learners' explicit beliefs about language learning seemed to work as a kind of logic, guiding consciously or unconsciously what they did to help them best learn a foreign language (Wenden. 1986a).

Horwitz (1987,1988) suggested that learners 'preconceived beliefs may restrict the range of their learning strategy use, and that erroneous beliefs about language learning may lead to less effective learning strategy use. Specifically, learners who emphasize the importance of the memorization of vocabulary and grammatical rules were less likely to use social or functional practice strategies, and less willing to accept a communicative approach to language learning, The deleterious misconception, in addition, that fluency in a new language can be achieved within a short period of time could lead some learners to experience discouragement, which in turn would cause them to think that they lack the requisite attitude for language learning and thus quit their language study altogether (Horwitz. 1988)

Oxford and Nyikos' (1989 : 294) explicit examination of the relationship between language proficiency and the learning strategies learners used showed that students' self-perceptions of language proficiency were significantly associated with their choice of learning strategies, Students with high self -ratings of proficiency in reading, listening, or speaking tended to choose a variety of learning strategies. For example, the higher the students' self-perceived proficiency in speaking, the more frequently they chose to use functional practice strategies, resourceful/independent

strategies, general study strategies, and conversational input elicitation strategies, Also, the higher the students' self – perceived proficiency in listening, the more frequently they would use resourceful/independent strategies, and general study strategies.

In her study of the beliefs about language learning and the learning strategy use of Taiwanese college English majors. Yang(1992) found that Chinese students employed various learning strategies confidently when they believed themselves capable of mastering English. These self-efficacy judgments led them to actively create or increase their exposure to the target language beyond the formal classroom settings and requirements. It was therefore found that students' self-efficacy and expectations about English learning were significantly related to all types of learning strategies.

2.6 ESL/EFL Learners' Dictionary Needs

Almost no study in the literature of dictionary use has been devoted exclusively to understanding foreign language learners' beliefs about dictionaries. Instead, learners' dictionary beliefs were only minimally addressed on the bulk of survey-based research of foreign or second language learners' reference needs which embraces investigations into learners' dictionary perceptions, preferences, and attitudes. In this line of research, researchers generally aimed to understand: 1) how foreign language learners perceived different types of dictionaries (e.g. monolingual or bilingual); 2) what type of dictionaries is preferred by foreign language learners and for what language task (e.g. for reading, writing, or translating, etc.); 3) what dictionary information was sought; 4) what other kinds of information they thought

needed to be provided in a dictionary; and 5) how L2 proficiency was related to the use of dictionary information. In the following I will review some important research on the dictionary needs of ESL/EFL learners.

Probably the first to investigate the dictionary needs of foreign language learners, the Tomaszczyk (1979) survey administered questionnaires to 449 Polish university students as well as translators and EFL instructors. The questionnaire included 57 items concerning personal and language learning history, current language use, and the use of dictionaries and the evaluation of the information contained in them. Through the examination of how language learners used dictionaries and their attitudes and expectations towards them, the author purported to "...provide some information about the extent to which various groups of users depend on dictionaries, help pinpoint those of the current lexicographical solutions that are, as well as those that are not, felt to meet their needs, and give lexicographers some clues they might want to use in their attempt to make better dictionaries" (ibid : 103). The responses revealed that dictionaries were used most often for translation, with writing and reading in second and third place. It was also found in the study that almost all subjects, no matter how sophisticated they were, used bilingual dictionaries, and that monolingual dictionary use was considerably less than bilingual dictionary use. However, the subjects of the study held monolingual dictionaries in higher esteem, judging bilingual dictionaries to be as good, or almost as good, as monolingual dictionaries as far as spelling, receptive grammar, and function words were concerned, but less satisfactory in other respects such as synonyms, foreign words and phrases, etymology, and similes. It appeared that the subjects did not equate the "quality" of a stationary with its "usefulness" In other words,

monolingual dictionaries were probably perceived to be helpful for language learning for reasons other than readability, accessibility, and general user-friendliness.

Following Tomaszczyk's inquiry, Baxter (1980) continued to examine in particular the value of monolingual dictionary use. The author pointed out the inability of language learners to express their ideas in an acceptable way when the precise lexical item did not come to mind and suggested that one possible cause of this inability might be the use of bilingual rather than monolingual dictionaries. Baxter therefore assumed that bilingual dictionary use discouraged foreign language learners from developing paraphrasing ability, while monolingual dictionary use helped them develop this ability.

Baxter's survey data came from 342 completed questionnaires obtained from students of three Japanese universities. Compared with Tomaszczyk's survey, Baxter's was more simplified. Baxter's questionnaire items did not require respondents to reflect upon their lookup strategies, but, in most cases, to provide factual information about dictionary ownership. As in Tomaszczyk's questionnaire, monolingual dictionary use was reported as being considerably less frequent than bilingual dictionary use, but monolingual dictionaries were not rated as highly as in Tomaszczyk's survey. Many students criticized monolingual dictionaries and complained that they were difficult to understand. Those using native-speaker monolingual dictionaries complained most about the need to look up words in definitions.

Another similar survey-based study, and probably the most frequently cited study of the dictionary needs of foreign language learners was Bejoint (1987), which aimed to reveal how French students of English used their monolingual general

English dictionaries. Bejoint's questionnaire was administered to 122 French students of English at the University of Lyon. The majority of the respondents placed meaning among the three most sought-after pieces of information, only 25 percent mentioned spelling and pronunciation, and even fewer mentioned etymology. These students used dictionaries more frequently for decoding than encoding and rarely used them for the encoding information provided, collocations for example.

In addition, the respondents said they were dissatisfied with the dictionary because of poor definitions, missing word, unsatisfactory syntactic guidance, excessively long entries, and incomprehensible coding. Responses to one final open ended question also complained of insufficient example sentences and unclear layout. Although concentrated on monolingual dictionary use, Bejoint's survey found that only 17% of informants claimed to prefer bilingual to monolingual dictionaries. This finding contrasted markedly with the findings of Tomaszczyk (1979) and Baxte (1980), although these three studies did yield some what consistent results about monolingual dictionary use.

Several problems with Bejoint's questionnaire are evident, however. The comprehensibility of the questionnaire, for one, is questionable because it is littered with terminology (e.g. 'headword,' 'structural words,' 'syntactic fuidance', 'proper names,' etc), which might make the question items difficult for the respondents to understand. In addition, the students were requested to express their dictionary needs within the framework of an existing dictionary format, rather than in terms of whatever they truly felt they required. Another problem inherent in this questionnaire is that some items require too much retrospection, recall, and critical analysis. students might not be willing to admit to problems with their dictionary use.

The Battenburg (1989) survey was very similar to Bejoint (1981), but unlike the last three surveys discussed, it focused, it focused on the relationship between the lookup habits and language proficiency levels of informants with a wide variety of L1 backgrounds. The participants were 60 ESL, students with seven different L1 backgrounds at Ohio University. The students were evenly divided into three proficiency levels: elementary, intermediate, and advanced. The questionnaire elicited information such as the types of dictionaries the students owned: the type of information they sought most often (spelling, etymology, usage labels, etc. ;how they chose the particular dictionaries they owned; changes they would like to make in their dictionaries, etc.

The survey found that the learners' use of dictionaries was largely unaffected by L1 or cultural background, and that the general there existed a correlation between dictionary use and English proficiency. At more advanced levels, the use of bilingual and monolingual learners' dictionaries decreased, while use of native speaker dictionaries increased. All students expressed a strong preference for looking up "definitions", and except for irregular verb forms and spelling tables, few learners used introductory or etymological information or appendices. Elementary and intermediate students looked up definitions more frequently than the advanced students. However, Battenburg' s data could show only an individual item' s relative frequency across different proficiency groups; it did not say which dictionary information(e.g. definition, pronunciation, etc) was more frequently used relative to other kinds of information. Dictionaries were used primarily for reading (for elementary and intermediate students) and for writing tasks (for advanced students).

Students also reported using dictionaries considerably for translation from English to their L1.

Although the Battenburg study was insightful for taking into account the variable of L2 proficiency and addressing its relationship with the use of dictionary information, the validity of the survey is questionable because of the obscurity of some of its terminology and because it was all in English. As Nesi (2000) pointed out, with a questionnaire written in English, it seems unrealistic to expect students with elementary English to comment, for instance, on their use of “syntactic patterns” or “derived forms” in the dictionaries.

Unlike the preceding four studies, Tang (1997) aimed to examine, among other things: 1) the use secondary level ESL students made of the pocket electronic dictionary (ED) as a tool for learning English, 2) the effectiveness of the Edina helping ESL students' comprehension and production of English, 3) Students' perceptions of the use fullness the ED, and 4) the strengths and weaknesses of the ED as perceived by ESL teachers. Tang also employed a more versatile qualitative approach than the previous four surveys, so the collected data seemed more triangulated. The data analyzed in the study came not only from a questionnaire administered to 254 Chinese ESL Students, but also from interviews given to them about their use of ED and their perceptions of its usefulness. More importantly, the author also observed the students' use of the ED during listening, and writing together with the checking of their assignments. The handouts distributed, and their vocabulary notebooks. In addition, teachers whose students were surveyed, along with 10 teachers from other schools in the study, were asked to complete a questionnaire.

Tang's study produced several interesting findings. First, whether students looked up the grammar entry of the ED depended on their knowledge of grammatical terms. Second, the students used various strategies for meaning-making. When using The ED to look up unfamiliar word, for example, most students read the various meanings, looked at the context, and guessed, they also checked the word's part of speech and meaning to decide on the choice, e.g. appropriate (V.) vs. appropriate (A.). In writing, students used back translation when looking up words from Chinese to English and found multiple meanings or senses. They looked up each of the definitions for the Chinese meaning again to decide on the most appropriate. Third, proficient use of the ED was related to the ESL students' L1 proficiency as well as their knowledge of English grammar. Fourth, unsuccessful use of the ED could be linked to the quality of the ED, the in-transferability between two languages, and / or the students' dictionary skills. Fifth, the advantages of the ED as perceived by the students are portability, speed, range of features, and the availability of sound, which ESL teachers also saw as an advantage.

Tang's study has valuable implications for EFL/ESL learning and teaching because it was not only the first to focus on electronic dictionary use, but probably also the first to elicit students' as well as their teachers' beliefs or perceptions about electronic dictionaries. Although typically dismissed by EFL teachers as counterproductive and detrimental to English learning, electronic dictionaries have become the predominant dictionary medium and an indispensable English learning and translation tool for EFL/ESL students in Taiwan. More important, although Tang did not take care of the social desirability issue of questionnaire responses, the efforts made to triangulate the survey data through more qualitative methods, such as

interview, observation, and document analysis, helped increase the validity and reliability of this study, Despite this, a broader picture of EFL learners' beliefs about more aspects of dictionary use and about dictionary types and media other than electronic dictionaries still needs to be developed, particularly for EFL learners in countries where dictionary use is widely believed as necessary and important for English learning.

2.7 Dictionary Lookup Skills and Strategies

In the literature of dictionary use, more attention has been paid to skills analysis than to strategy analysis, and few attempts have been made to distinguish between lookup skills and strategies. In addition, both "lookup skills" and "strategies" are sometimes used interchangeably. The focus of studies about dictionary skills has been descriptions and analyses of all lookup behaviors, from choosing the right dictionary to finding the right information in the dictionary to performing certain tasks such as L1/L2 or L2/L1 translation.

Quite a few studies, for example, were devoted to describing user skills for searching multi-word units, including idioms. Bejoint (1981), for example, contained questions that required the subjects to look up some multi-word items. The results are given in decreasing order of unanimity of response to individual items (ibid : 218):

1. artificial insemination : insemination (93%)
2. boil down to: boil (81%)
3. false alarm: alarm(80%)
4. magnetic tape : tape (79%)
5. comedown with : come (71%)

6. lose sight of : sight (65%)

7. fountain pen: pen (58%)

The author concluded that when searching for nominal compounds, students tended to expect the compound to be explained in the entry for the "main" word in the compound, and that in cases of verbal compounds, they tended to proceed by first eliminating function words, then looking for the noun or the adjective if there was one, and if there was no candidate, choosing the verb. It was therefore revealed in the study that language users seemed to have a specific knowledge of word combinations and the relative importance of elements in multi-word units.

In the same view, Tono (1988) analyzed the idiom lookup procedures of Japanese university students and found that the results for nominal compounds were less clear than those in Bejoint (1981). Unlike Bejoint, Tono found that in some cases such as a ministering angle, and a disorderly house, the students tended to look up unfamiliar words first (in this case, ministering and disorderly) instead of the noun. For verbal compounds or phrasal verbs, the results were quite similar to those of Bejoint.

Atkins and Varantola (1998) also reported the results of their question about multi-word expressions. Three types of idiomatic multiword expressions were tested in their study: 1) compound noun (lame duck), 2) verbal idiom (to split hairs), 3) verb+ particle (to do without). The authors focused their study on whether the students' expectation of where to find these expressions was influenced by their L1 backgrounds, their L2 skills, or their dictionary training. It was found that: 1) no strong tendencies were related to the students' L1's, 2) most of the students were unaware of how EFL dictionaries handled verb+ particle multi-word expressions, 3)

more advanced students seemed to develop more effective strategies of finding items in dictionaries, and 4) although the dictionaries did not agree on where to locate the multi-word expressions (e.g. to split hairs), there was considerable agreement among the students.

Somewhat different in approach from the preceding skills analyses, Hatherhall (1984) employed written protocol data to analyze German language learners. The students were required to translate a difficult text from English to German and keep track of the occasions which prompted them to consult a dictionary. While they translated, the participants were allowed free access to dictionaries and other reference works, and were requested to write down every occasion on which they looked up a word, giving details of the dictionary they used, the search item, and the extent to which they considered the dictionary information to be useful. Several lookup behavioral tendencies were presented in the study. First, most students did not read the whole text through before translating it, and they tended to translate word for word. Second, students did not look up prepositions or common words but nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives. Third, in verb+ noun expressions such as 'conduct an in-depth survey' and 'take a train,' subjects looked up the noun first. If they checked the verb entry, it was only after they had found the noun entry information unsatisfactory. Fourth, more advanced students used the dictionaries more often than did less advanced students, and references to the translation dictionaries tended to increase the rate of idiomatic errors.

The preceding dictionary skill studies concentrated on the lookup procedures in searching specific types of linguistic units such as nominal or verbal compounds. As shown and suggested in these studies, dictionary skills seemed to be determined

by, or involve, users' perceptions of a target word or linguistic unit, or understanding dictionary conventions and using dictionaries the way the dictionary editors expected them to be used in order to efficiently locate the target word or linguistic units.

Dictionary strategies, in contrast, may involve not only the implementation of dictionary skills to target and retrieve linguistic units and information in a dictionary, but the analyzing and processing of the sight and available word information, or simply judging whether and when to resort to dictionaries in order to solve a language learning problem. Given this definition of dictionary strategies, only a few studies can be categorized as dictionary –strategy research, for example, Neubach and Cohen (1988) and Scholfield (1982).

Neubach and Cohen (1988), which has also been reviewed in the section on dictionary use in decoding activities, used oral think-aloud reports and post-task interviews to investigate the search strategies and problems encountered. In the first task, participants were given ten sentences, each one with an underlined polysyllabic word. They were required to look these words up, first in a monolingual dictionary and then in a bilingual dictionary, so that the problems students had in choosing the correct entry from a number of alternatives could be better understood. While they were looking the words up, participants had to give an oral report of their search process. These protocols were tape-recorded and then analyzed. Finally, the participants were required to translate the underlined words into Hebrew, and explain why they had selected particular meanings from the range available in the dictionaries they had used.

The study found that students tended to read only the first definition and failed to read beyond the first definition in a long entry. The participants also tried to

gather information about the new word from context before looking it up; no one used a dictionary directly without regard for context. In addition, only the more advanced students seemed to benefit from dictionary use. These students formed semantic field expectations before they looked words up, and because they had already understood the main message of the passage, they used the dictionary only to deepen this understanding.

Scholfield (1982) discussed in detail the steps or procedures that ESL students had to take for proficient dictionary use to aid English reading comprehension. In this non-empirical study, seven lookup steps were proposed and discussed: 1) locate the word or phrase you do not understand (the unknown); 2) if the unknown is inflected, remove the inflections to recover the form to look up; 3) search for the unknown in the alphabetical list; 4) if you cannot find at least one main entry for the unknown, try the following procedures: 1) if the unknown seems to be a set phrase, idiom, or compound word, try looking up each main element; 2) if the unknown seems to have a suffix, try the entry for the stem; 3) if the unknown appears to be an irregularly inflected form or a spelling variant, scan nearby entries; 4) if there is an addendum, search there; 5) if there are multiple senses or homographic entries, reduce them by elimination; 6) understand the definition and integrate it into the context where the unknown was met; 7) if none of the senses entered seems to fit, attempt to infer one that does fit from the sense you have. If more than one fits, seek further contextual clues in the source text to disambiguate.

Strictly speaking, Scholfield's steps 1 through 5 essentially involve dictionary skills, because in order to follow these procedures, the learner needs to have knowledge of certain rules of English as well as certain dictionary conventions.

However, steps 5 through 7 necessitate more dictionary strategies (e.g. cognitive strategies), because the learner must analyze and process the dictionary information, test hypotheses, and make contextual inferences in order to come up with the fittest sense.

2.8 Summary of the Chapter

In the first section of this chapter, the researcher has reviewed the literature of dictionary use in ESL/EFL encoding activities, vocabulary learning, and decoding activities, focusing particularly on whether dictionary use has an effect on language learning achievement such as reading comprehension (score), writing, or the learning of vocabulary. The next chapter is devoted to the research methodology.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides a comprehensive description of the research methodology employed in the current study. The chapter covers the details of the population and samples, research instruments, and data collection procedures, as well as data analyses and statistical procedures.

3.1 Population and Samples

3.1.1 Population

The population of this study included 120 grade 12 students studying the first semester of academic year 2014 at Kumuangwitthayakhom School under the Secondary Educational Service Area Office 32 in Buriram Province, Thailand.

3.1.2 Samples

The samples for this study were 94 grade 12 students studying the first semester of academic year 2014 at Kumuang School under The Secondary Educational Service Area Office 32 in Buriram Province. They were selected by using the table of Krejcie and Morgan and simple random sampling method.

3.2 Research Instruments

The research instrument was the beliefs about English dictionary questionnaire (BAEDQ) in which students' beliefs about English dictionaries were assessed by the Beliefs About English Dictionaries Questionnaire, an instrument intends to gauge the

students' beliefs about English dictionaries in four major areas: 1) expectations and motivations for dictionary use; 2) perceived value of English dictionary use in English learning; 3) perceived value of unconventional vs. conventional English dictionaries; 4) relative strengths of different types and media of English dictionaries. This instrument was developed and adapted from Nesi and Meara (1994). The samples were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with statements such as "People who are good at English are more skilled that using dictionaries than people who are not good at English" on a 5 – point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree.' Some items such as item 6 "It is not necessary to use English dictionaries to facilitate learning English" was negatively stated to detect inconsistency of students' responses and avoid response set or bias so that the reliability of the questionnaire can be increased.

3.3 Data Collection Procedures

The BAEDQ was conducted at Kumuangwithayakhom School under The Secondary Educational Service Area Office 32 in Buriram Province. Before the real survey, the researcher obtained the permission to do the study from each of the class instructors, and after consultation with the English teachers, was arranged a regular class meeting hour for the administration of the questionnaire with each of the participating classes. On the actual testing day, the researcher went to each participating class at the beginning of each session. Before the students starting to work on the questionnaires, the researcher explained in Thai for the purpose, nature, and procedures of the study, and assured them that participation in the study was entirely voluntary and their identity as well as the research data containing their

identity or student numbers would be kept confidential. A Thai consent form for taking questionnaires was first distributed to all of the students of the class. Only those students who agreed to participate in the study will be asked to sign the form. The participating students were then asked to complete the questionnaire. At the beginning and in the middle of the testing, the researcher reminded students to ask questions whenever an item was unclear to them. The researcher then asked some of the students for their opinions of the questionnaire. The entire procedure of administering was taken approximately 30 minutes, an entire class period, including the time spent on instructions and consent forms.

3.4 Data analysis and Statistical Procedures

The collected data from the BAEDQ were analyzed by using computer program software. The first statistical procedure yielded descriptive statistics, including frequency, mean, and standard deviation of the questionnaire items. The descriptive statistics were summarized the students' responses to the BAEDQ questionnaire. The descriptive analyses gave an overall picture of students' English dictionary beliefs by addressing the first question "What are grade 12 students' reported beliefs in using English dictionaries?" also, the inferential statistics including independent samples t-test and one-way analysis of variance were used to analyzed the collected data to answer the second question "Is there any difference in using English dictionaries of grade 12 students classified by gender and G.P.A?"

Students' responses to each of the open-ended questions were initially categorized into different content areas. The responses that are close in meaning were compiled, and frequencies were calculated. Responses of "No comments" and "I

don't know" or responses that were illegible, unintelligible, or irrelevant to the open-ended questions were disregarded. Each category of content was summarized, translated into English, and then listed as a response comment item in a frequency table reported.

3.5 Summary of the Chapter

The focus of this chapter has been to describe the research methods within which the study is conducted, and established the methods and procedures for its conduct. They have exercised caution and deliberation in the design of the present study. In the next chapter, Chapter Four, the researcher turns to the most interesting and significant parts of this research, which are the major findings and results gained through the BAEDQ illustrated in this chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter reports all the results gathered from the BAEDQ mentioned in Chapter Three. This study is to investigate the beliefs in using dictionaries of grade 12 students in Buriram province. It is also two main aims: to examine the beliefs in using dictionaries of grade 12 students, and to compare the beliefs in using dictionaries of grade 12 students classified by gender and G.P.A.

Evidently, in this section, the results are organized with two research questions that guided this study. The results are reported accordingly to the research questions. The results of each research question are described in the following order: 1) research question one regarding grade 6 students report the belief in using dictionaries; and 2) research question two regarding the belief in using dictionaries employed by grade 6 students in Buriram Province in terms of gender, G.P.A. Following a summary of the results of each research question, interpretations of the results are offered.

4.1 Research Question One: What are the beliefs in using dictionaries of grade 12 students in Buriram Province?

To answer the research question one, the descriptive statistics were employed. The descriptive statistics mainly included mean and standard deviation of each belief, the use of three main categories, and the overall use.

The research question one directly indicted the beliefs in using dictionaries employed by grade 12 students in Buriram Province who participated in this research project by using quantitative data from the BAEDQ (See Appendix C) to measure the

student's beliefs in using dictionaries when they learn English. The 94 grade 12 students in Buriram Province were asked to reflect upon each statement and rate their beliefs in using dictionaries. Based on the criteria set for interpretation of the beliefs adapted from Srisard (2002 : 99-103), these mean scores can be divided into five groups: strongly disagree ($\bar{x} = 1.00-1.50$), disagree ($\bar{x} = 1.51-2.50$), Mediocre ($\bar{x} = 2.51-3.50$), agree ($\bar{x} = 3.51-4.50$), and strongly agree ($\bar{x} = 4.51-5.00$), respectively. Table 4.1 below indicates the individual, types and in overall of dictionaries' using beliefs in terms of mean, standard deviation, meaning and rank employed by grade 12 students in Buriram Province.

Table 4.1

Mean, Standard Deviation, Meaning and Rank of Twenty-five of BAEDQ Grade 12 Students in Buriram Province (n=94)

| Dictionary Beliefs | | X | S.D | Meaning | Rank |
|---|---|-------------|-------------|-----------------|------|
| I. Beliefs about English Dictionaries in General | | | | | |
| 1. | When I consult dictionaries, I only want to know what an English word means. | 2.73 | 0.97 | Mediocre | 6 |
| 2. | It is more difficult to use English dictionaries than Thai dictionaries. | 2.25 | 1.18 | Disagree | 23 |
| 3. | It is important to use dictionaries to help me translate while reading and writing English. | 2.78 | 1.19 | Mediocre | 3 |
| 4. | In Thailand, English teachers believe it is important to use dictionaries to facilitate English learning. | 2.67 | 1.26 | Mediocre | 11 |
| 5. | A good dictionary user is also a good English learner. | 2.21 | 1.09 | Disagree | 24 |
| 6. | It is not necessary to use English dictionaries to facilitate learning English. | 1.96 | 1.31 | Disagree | 25 |
| 7. | Dictionaries help people more in reading than in writing English, | 2.39 | 1.11 | Disagree | 20 |
| 8. | I can use dictionaries better if my English teacher teaches me lookup skills or dictionary strategies. | 2.70 | 1.18 | Mediocre | 8 |
| 9. | How often people use dictionaries is associated with their English proficiency. | 2.57 | 1.00 | Mediocre | 14 |
| 10. | People good at English are more skilled at using dictionaries than people not good at English. | 2.47 | 1.25 | Disagree | 18 |
| 11. | People should use suitable dictionaries intended for their English proficiency levels. | 2.51 | 0.98 | Mediocre | 16 |
| 12. | People with a strong motivation to learn English also have a strong motivation to use dictionaries. | 2.66 | 1.25 | Mediocre | 12 |
| Total | | 2.51 | 0.53 | Mediocre | |
| II. Beliefs about specific types of English dictionaries | | | | | |
| 13. | Electronic dictionaries with built-in vocal function help to improve English pronunciation. | 2.76 | 0.98 | Mediocre | 4 |
| 14. | The English translations supplied in a Thai-English dictionary help me write English better. | 2.48 | 1.18 | Disagree | 17 |
| 15. | English-English dictionaries help to understand an English word's meanings better. | 2.69 | 0.99 | Mediocre | 9 |
| 16. | English - English dictionaries don't help me think and express myself in English. | 2.40 | 0.96 | Disagree | 19 |
| 17. | English-English dictionaries are suitable only for people of high English proficiency. | 2.34 | 1.16 | Disagree | 22 |
| 18. | The most important use of electronic dictionaries is to help me translate from English to Thai. | 2.82 | 0.96 | Mediocre | 1 |
| 19. | The Thai translations supplied in an English-Thai dictionary help me read English more effectively. | 2.68 | 1.07 | Mediocre | 10 |
| Total | | 2.62 | 0.66 | Mediocre | |
| III. Beliefs about Relative strengths of Different Types of English Dictionaries | | | | | |
| 20. | English -Thai dictionaries help to enhance English ability more than English-English dictionaries. | 2.74 | 0.94 | Mediocre | 5 |
| 21. | Electronic dictionaries help to enhance English ability more than paper dictionaries. | 2.72 | 0.83 | Mediocre | 7 |
| 22. | On-line dictionaries are more helpful than paper in fostering English reading and writing in a wired environment. | 2.80 | 0.94 | Mediocre | 2 |
| 23. | On-line dictionaries are more helpful than electronic dictionaries in fostering English reading and writing in a wired environment. | 2.54 | 1.05 | Mediocre | 15 |

Table 4.1 (Continued)

| | Dictionary Beliefs | X | S.D | Meaning | Rank |
|----|---|-------------|-------------|-----------------|------|
| 24 | I like to use English-Thai dictionaries more than English-English dictionaries. | 2.58 | 1.13 | Mediocre | 13 |
| 25 | I like to use electronic dictionaries more than paper dictionaries. | 2.36 | 1.07 | Disagree | 21 |
| | Total | 2.64 | 0.64 | Mediocre | |
| | Grand Total | 2.58 | 0.51 | Mediocre | |

As shown in Table 4.1, the overall beliefs in using dictionaries by grade 12 students in Buriram Province is at mediocre level ($\bar{x} = 2.58$, S.D.=0.51).

When considering in each type of beliefs, it was found all types of beliefs were at the mediocre level. The highest mean score was "beliefs about relative strengths of different types of English dictionaries" ($\bar{x} = 2.64$, S.D.=0.64), followed by "beliefs about specific types of English dictionaries" was at disagree level ($\bar{x} = 2.62$, S.D.=0.66), and "beliefs about English dictionaries in general" ($\bar{x} = 2.51$, S.D.=0.53), respectively.

When considering each item, it was found that the three highest mean scores were No. 18 "The most important use of electronic dictionaries is to help me translate from English to Thai" ($\bar{x} = 2.82$, S.D.=0.96), followed by No. 22 "On-line dictionaries are more helpful than paper in fostering English reading and writing in a wired environment" ($\bar{x} = 2.80$, S.D.=0.94), and No. 3 "It is important to use dictionaries to help me translate while reading and writing English" ($\bar{x} = 2.78$, S.D.=1.19), respectively. On the other hand, the lowest mean scores were No. 6 "It is not necessary to use English dictionaries to facilitate learning English" ($\bar{x} = 1.96$, S.D.=1.31), followed by No. 5 "A good dictionary user is also a good English learner" ($\bar{x} = 2.21$, S.D.=1.09), and No. 2 "It is more difficult to use English dictionaries than Thai dictionaries" ($\bar{x} = 2.25$, S.D.=1.18), respectively.

4.2 Research Question Two: Is there any difference in using dictionaries of grade 12 students classified by gender and G.P.A?

To answer the research question two, the inferential statistics were employed. The inferential statistics mainly included independent samples t-test and one-way analysis of variance of each belief, the use of three main categories, and the overall use.

The research question two directly indicted the beliefs in using English dictionaries employed by grade 12 students in Buriram Province who participated in this research project by using quantitative data from the BAEDQ (See Appendix C) to measure the student's beliefs in using dictionaries when they learn English. Table 4.2 – 4.3 below indicates the comparison of the individual, types and in overall of dictionaries' using beliefs in terms of gender and G.P.A of grade 12 students in Buriram Province.

Table 4.2

The Comparison of the Beliefs in Using English Dictionaries of Grade 12 students in Buriram Province in terms of Gender

| Dictionary Beliefs | Male N = 57 | | Female N = 74 | | t |
|--|----------------|-------|------------------|-------|--------|
| | \bar{X} | S. D. | \bar{X} | S. D. | |
| I. Beliefs about English Dictionaries in General | | | | | |
| 1. When I consult dictionaries, I only want to know what an English word means. | 2.71 | 0.96 | 2.76 | 0.83 | 0.54 |
| 2. It is more difficult to use English dictionaries than Thai dictionaries. | 2.18 | 1.12 | 2.27 | 1.13 | 0.90 |
| 3. It is important to use dictionaries to help me translate while reading and writing English. | 2.74 | 1.03 | 2.90 | 1.10 | 1.27 |
| 4. In Thailand, English teachers believe it is important to use dictionaries to facilitate English learning. | 2.64 | 1.12 | 2.71 | 1.21 | 1.02 |
| 5. A good dictionary user is also a good English learner. | 2.20 | 1.05 | 2.23 | 0.98 | 0.38 |
| 6. It is not necessary to use English dictionaries to facilitate learning English. | 1.95 | 1.26 | 1.97 | 1.24 | 0.02 |
| 7. Dictionaries help people more in reading than in writing English. | 2.35 | 1.02 | 2.41 | 1.00 | 0.85 |
| 8. I can use dictionaries better if my English teacher teaches me lookup skills or dictionary strategies. | 2.68 | 1.07 | 2.71 | 1.08 | 0.01 |
| 9. How often people use dictionaries is associated with their English proficiency. | 2.42 | 0.74 | 2.74 | 1.03 | 6.88* |
| 10. People good at English are more skilled at using dictionaries than people not good at English. | 2.46 | 1.10 | 2.49 | 1.04 | 0.01 |
| 11. People should use suitable dictionaries intended for their English proficiency levels. | 2.48 | 1.07 | 2.54 | 1.00 | 0.39 |
| 12. People with a strong motivation to learn English also have a strong motivation to use dictionaries. | 2.65 | 1.16 | 2.67 | 1.18 | 0.05 |
| Total | 2.52 | 0.76 | 2.76 | 1.16 | 8.82** |
| II. Beliefs about specific types of English dictionaries | 2.47 | 0.98 | 2.54 | 1.20 | 1.10 |
| 13. Electronic dictionaries with built-in vocal function help to improve English pronunciation. | 2.53 | 0.95 | 2.81 | 1.23 | 8.89** |
| 14. The English translations supplied in a Thai-English dictionary help me write English better. | 2.46 | 1.02 | 2.49 | 1.05 | 0.05 |
| 15. English-English dictionaries help to understand an English word's meanings better. | 2.65 | 1.17 | 2.70 | 1.10 | 0.39 |
| 16. English - English dictionaries don't help me think and express myself in English. | 2.36 | 1.32 | 2.42 | 1.14 | 0.79 |
| 17. English-English dictionaries are suitable only for people of high English proficiency. | 2.31 | 1.10 | 2.37 | 1.08 | 0.23 |

Table 4.2 (Continued)

| Dictionary Beliefs | Male N = 57 | | Female N = 74 | | t |
|---|----------------|-------|------------------|-------|------|
| | \bar{X} | S. D. | \bar{X} | S. D. | |
| 18. The most important use of electronic dictionaries is to help me translate from English to Thai. | 2.58 | 1.01 | 2.64 | 1.15 | 2.23 |
| 19. The Thai translations supplied in an English-Thai dictionary help me read English more effectively. | 2.73 | 0.95 | 2.76 | 1.02 | 0.31 |
| Total | | | | | |
| III . Beliefs about Relative strengths of Different Types of English Dictionaries | 2.70 | 0.94 | 2.74 | 0.88 | 1.34 |
| 20. English -Thai dictionaries help to enhance English ability more than English-English dictionaries. | 2.78 | 1.15 | 2.82 | 0.99 | 0.51 |
| 21. Electronic dictionaries help to enhance English ability more than paper dictionaries. | 2.52 | 1.14 | 2.55 | 0.98 | 0.28 |
| 22. On-line dictionaries are more helpful than paper in fostering English reading and writing in a wired environment. | 2.54 | 1.28 | 2.61 | 1.06 | 3.47 |
| 23. On-line dictionaries are more helpful than electronic dictionaries in fostering English reading and writing in a wired environment. | 2.33 | 1.22 | 2.39 | 1.04 | 1.27 |
| 24. I like to use English-Thai dictionaries more than English-English dictionaries. | 2.61 | 1.08 | 2.67 | 0.97 | 0.18 |
| 25. I like to use electronic dictionaries more than paper dictionaries. | | | | | |
| Total | | | | | |
| Grand Total | 2.54 | 0.95 | 2.62 | 0.92 | 0.78 |

* significant difference at .05

** significant difference at .01

As shown in Table 4.2, the beliefs in using dictionaries of grade 12 students in overall and each type of beliefs, classified by gender were not different. When considering each item, it was found with statistically significant difference at .01 level in No. 12. "People with a strong motivation to learn English also have a strong motivation to use dictionaries" and No. 13 "Electronic dictionaries with built-in vocal function help to improve English pronunciation" while with .05 level in No. 9 "How often people use dictionaries is associated with their English proficiency", and No.18 "The most important use of electronic dictionaries is to help me translate from English to Thai".

Table 4.3

The Comparison of the Beliefs in Using English Dictionaries of Grade 12 students in Buriram Province in terms of G.P.A.

| Dictionary Beliefs | High G.P.A. | | Moderate G.P.A. | | Low G.P.A. | | F |
|--|-------------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | \bar{X} | S. D. | \bar{X} | S. D. | \bar{X} | S. D. | |
| I. Beliefs about English Dictionaries in General | | | | | | | |
| 1. When I consult dictionaries, I only want to know what an English word means. | 2.76 | 1.04 | 2.71 | 1.20 | 2.68 | 1.46 | 1.09 |
| 2. It is more difficult to use English dictionaries than Thai dictionaries. | 2.18 | 0.80 | 2.24 | 1.07 | 2.28 | 1.25 | 2.83 |
| 3. It is important to use dictionaries to help me while reading and writing English. | 2.86 | 1.34 | 2.75 | 1.20 | 2.71 | 1.13 | 1.74 |
| 4. In Thailand, English teachers believe it is important to use dictionaries to facilitate English learning. | 2.70 | 0.89 | 2.65 | 1.05 | 2.61 | 1.13 | 2.47 |
| 5. A good dictionary user is also a good English learner. | 2.27 | 0.97 | 2.21 | 1.12 | 2.20 | 1.13 | 1.84 |
| 6. It is not necessary to use English dictionaries to facilitate learning English. | 1.98 | 0.90 | 1.96 | 0.97 | 1.94 | 0.70 | 0.31 |
| 7. Dictionaries help people more in reading than in writing English. | 2.42 | 1.14 | 2.40 | 0.99 | 2.34 | 1.13 | 0.31 |
| 8. I can use dictionaries better if my English teacher teaches me lookup skills or dictionary strategies. | 2.74 | 1.00 | 2.68 | 1.05 | 2.64 | 0.91 | 1.92 |
| 9. How often people use dictionaries is associated with their English proficiency. | 2.66 | 1.02 | 2.54 | 1.19 | 2.39 | 1.35 | 3.12* |
| 10. People good at English are more skilled at using dictionaries than people not good at English. | 2.54 | 1.17 | 2.50 | 1.06 | 2.45 | 0.74 | 0.45 |
| 11. People should use suitable dictionaries intended for their English proficiency levels. | 2.68 | 1.12 | 2.56 | 1.08 | 2.32 | 0.99 | 5.12* |
| 12. People with a strong motivation to learn English also have a strong motivation to use dictionaries. | 2.69 | 1.14 | 2.65 | 0.97 | 2.60 | 1.01 | 0.08 |
| Total | 2.56 | 1.08 | 2.48 | 1.12 | 2.42 | 1.18 | 1.54 |

Table 4.3 (Continued)

The Comparison of the Beliefs in Using English Dictionaries of Grade 12 students in Buriram Province in terms of G.P.A.

| Dictionary Beliefs | High G.P.A. | | Moderate G.P.A. | | Low G.P.A. | | F |
|---|-------------|-------|-----------------|-------|------------|-------|-------|
| | \bar{X} | S. D. | \bar{X} | S. D. | \bar{X} | S. D. | |
| II. Beliefs about Specific Types of English Dictionaries | | | | | | | |
| 13. Electronic dictionaries with built-in vocal function help to improve English pronunciation. | 2.87 | 1.20 | 2.77 | 1.08 | 2.74 | 1.06 | 1.62 |
| 14. The English translations supplied in a Thai-English dictionary help me write English better. | 2.54 | 1.43 | 2.50 | 1.01 | 2.44 | 1.30 | 0.77 |
| 15. English-English dictionaries help to understand an English word's meanings better. | 2.76 | 1.17 | 2.70 | 0.97 | 2.63 | 1.19 | 1.88 |
| 16. English – English dictionaries don't help me think and express myself in English. | 2.48 | 1.08 | 2.42 | 1.08 | 2.34 | 1.36 | 1.81 |
| 17. English-English dictionaries are suitable only for people of high English proficiency. | 2.53 | 0.96 | 2.43 | 0.97 | 2.22 | 0.88 | 4.32* |
| 18. The most important use of electronic dictionaries is to help me translate from English to Thai. | 2.87 | 0.92 | 2.80 | 0.90 | 2.76 | 0.86 | 1.07 |
| 19. The Thai translations supplied in an English-Thai dictionary help me read English more effectively. | 2.70 | 1.16 | 2.65 | 0.96 | 2.61 | 1.22 | 0.14 |
| Total | 2.68 | 1.22 | 2.60 | 0.98 | 2.54 | 0.96 | 1.84 |

Table 4.3 (Continued)

The Comparison of the Beliefs in Using English Dictionaries of Grade 12 students in Buriram Province in terms of G.P.A.

| Dictionary Beliefs | High G.P.A. | | Moderate G.P.A. | | Low G.P.A. | | F |
|---|-------------|-------|-----------------|-------|------------|-------|--------|
| | \bar{X} | S. D. | \bar{X} | S. D. | \bar{X} | S. D. | |
| III. Beliefs about Relative strengths of Different Types of English Dictionaries | | | | | | | |
| 20. English -Thai dictionaries help to enhance English ability more than English-English dictionaries. | 2.92 | 0.99 | 2.78 | 1.06 | 2.62 | 0.83 | 6.79** |
| 21. Electronic dictionaries help to enhance English ability more than paper dictionaries. | 2.86 | 1.09 | 2.74 | 1.13 | 2.60 | 1.22 | 5.04** |
| 22. On-line dictionaries are more helpful than paper in fostering English reading and writing in a wired environment. | 2.85 | 1.11 | 2.76 | 1.02 | 2.73 | 1.49 | 0.86 |
| 23. On-line dictionaries are more helpful than electronic dictionaries in fostering English reading and writing in a wired environment. | 2.74 | 0.71 | 2.60 | 0.87 | 2.34 | 1.12 | 7.36** |
| 24. I like to use English-Thai dictionaries more than English-English dictionaries. | 2.68 | 1.06 | 2.64 | 1.10 | 2.59 | 1.37 | 0.57 |
| 25. I like to use electronic dictionaries more than paper dictionaries | 2.46 | 0.92 | 2.39 | 1.15 | 2.31 | 1.10 | 3.00 |
| Total | 2.76 | 0.94 | 2.68 | 1.02 | 2.56 | 1.10 | 4.75* |
| Grand Total | 2.67 | 0.98 | 2.54 | 1.03 | 2.43 | 1.08 | 3.934* |

* significant difference at .05

** significant difference at .01

As shown in Table 4.3, the beliefs in using dictionaries of grade 12 students in overall, classified by G.P.A. were statistically significant difference at .05 level. When considering in each aspect of beliefs, it was found with statistically significant difference at .05 of the beliefs about relative strengths of different types of English dictionaries. When considering each item, it was found with statistically significant difference at .01 level in No. 20. "English -Thai dictionaries help to enhance English ability more than English-English dictionaries.", No. 21 "Electronic dictionaries help to enhance English ability more than paper dictionaries.", and No. 23 "On-line dictionaries are more helpful than electronic dictionaries in fostering English reading and writing in a wired environment." while with .05 level in No. 9 "How often people use dictionaries is associated with their English proficiency", and No.11 "People should use suitable dictionaries intended for their English proficiency levels.", and No. 17 "English-English dictionaries are suitable only for people of high English proficiency.", respectively.

4.3 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presents the results from the data analysis of the BAEDQ asking the grade 12 students in Buiram Province, Thailand about the beliefs in using English dictionaries when they learned English in their lessons. The next chapter is about the conclusion and discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The purposes of this study, as discussed in Chapter One, were to: 1) investigate grade 12 students' beliefs in using dictionaries, and 2) compare grade 12 students' beliefs in using dictionaries classified by gender and G.P.A. In the final part of this thesis, the major findings in replying to the researches questions are first summarized and scrutinized, and discussed in relation to the relevant literature. In addition, some pedagogical implications for Thai EFL high school teachers' instruction are suggested. Then, some suggestions for future studies are proposed at the end of the chapter.

5.1 Summary of the Major Findings

This section aims to summarize the most important findings drawn from the analysis of the quantitative data gathered to help the reader grasp the most salient issues discussed in this present study.

The purposes of this study were to investigate and compare grade 12 students' beliefs in using dictionaries, classified by gender and G.P.A. The samples were 94 grade 12 students who were selected by using the table of Krejcie and Morgan and simple random sampling technique. The research instrument was the questionnaire. The statistics used for data analysis were percentage, mean, standard deviation, independent samples t-test and one-way analysis of variance with the statistically significant difference set at .05 level. The results revealed as follows:

With regard to the first research question, the overall beliefs in using English dictionaries by grade 12 students in Buriram Province were at mediocre level. When

considering in each type of beliefs, it was found all types of beliefs were at the mediocre level. The highest mean score was “beliefs about relative strengths of different types of English dictionaries”, followed by “beliefs about specific types of English dictionaries” was at disagree level, and “beliefs about English dictionaries in general”, respectively.

When considering each item, it was found that the three highest mean scores were No. 18 “The most important use of electronic dictionaries is to help me translate from English to Thai”, followed by No. 22 “On-line dictionaries are more helpful than paper in fostering English reading and writing in a wired environment, and No. 3 “It is important to use dictionaries to help me translate while reading and writing English”, respectively. On the other hand, the lowest mean scores were No. 6 “It is not necessary to use English dictionaries to facilitate learning English”, followed by No. 5 “A good dictionary user is also a good English learner”, and No. 2 “It is more difficult to use English dictionaries than Thai dictionaries”, respectively.

In answer to the second research question, the results of comparison of the beliefs in using dictionaries of grade 12 students in overall and each type of beliefs, classified by gender were not different. When considering each item, it was found with statistically significant difference at .01 level in “People with a strong motivation to learn English also have a strong motivation to use dictionaries” and “Electronic dictionaries with built-in vocal function help to improve English pronunciation” while with .05 level in “How often people use dictionaries is associated with their English proficiency”, and “The most important use of electronic dictionaries is to help me translate from English to Thai”

In terms of G.P.A., the beliefs in using dictionaries of grade 12 students in overall were statistically significant difference at .05 level. When considering in each

aspect of beliefs, it was found with statistically significant difference at .05 of the beliefs about relative strengths of different types of English dictionaries. When considering each item, it was found with statistically significant difference at .01 level in “English –Thai dictionaries help to enhance English ability more than English-English dictionaries.”, “Electronic dictionaries help to enhance English ability more than paper dictionaries.”, and “On-line dictionaries are more helpful than electronic dictionaries in fostering English reading and writing in a wired environment.” while with .05 level in “How often people use dictionaries is associated with their English proficiency”, and “People should use suitable dictionaries intended for their English proficiency levels.”, and “English-English dictionaries are suitable only for people of high English proficiency.”, respectively.

5.2 Discussion of the Major Findings of the Study

In this section, the major findings of the study in relation to the two research questions as mentioned above will be discussed in the light of the results reported in Chapter Four. A detailed account and interpretation of the findings are discussed in relation to previous research and in the context of 1) beliefs in using dictionaries by grade 12 students in Buriram Province, 2) differences between beliefs in using dictionaries by grade 12 students in Buriram Province in terms of gender, and 3) beliefs in using dictionaries by grade 12 students in Buriram Province in terms of G.P.A. The findings are discussed as follows:

5.2.1 Beliefs in Using Dictionaries by Grade 12 Students in Buriram Province

The findings revealed that overall beliefs in using English dictionaries by grade 12 students in Buriram Province were at the mediocre level. This may be

explained by the fact that grade 12 students study English six times a week, and each class met they have to use the dictionaries to find out the words in the English lessons or passages assigned by the teachers. They mention that dictionaries can help them to translate from English into Thai while they read and write the English assignments. In addition, they state that they prefer on-line dictionaries to paper dictionaries as we can find from the questionnaire which they rated as the three highest mean score. The reason is that about 80% of students have got the mobile phone that can access the Internet; therefore, they use the mobile phone as the dictionary. The finding is consistent with the study of Bensoussan, Sim and Weiss (1984) who mentioned that the use of dictionary had an effect on reading comprehension.

5.2.2 The Similarities and Differences of Using English Dictionaries by Grade 12 Students

In terms of gender, it was found with statistically significant difference at .01 level in “People with a strong motivation to learn English also have a strong motivation to use dictionaries” and “Electronic dictionaries with built-in vocal function help to improve English pronunciation” while with .05 level in “How often people use dictionaries is associated with their English proficiency”, and “The most important use of electronic dictionaries is to help me translate from English to Thai”. The findings indicated that the female students rated the higher score than male students. This could be explained from the open-ended form and informal conversation that the female students tend to explore not only the meaning of the words but also the parts of speech, how to pronounce and the examples of the words used. Also, the female students have more mobile phones than the male students; therefore, the female students tend to have opportunity to use more mobile phones than the male students.

In terms of G.P.A., the findings showed the statistically significant difference among three groups. The students who have got high G.P.A. had higher score of the significant items than the other groups. This can be explained that the high proficiency students may concentrate on the lessons and eager to learn both inside and outside class; therefore, they tend to use dictionaries very often. The result is similar to Laufer and Melamed (1994) who stated that students with high ability learn more words than those with low ability, and that students who use a dictionary learn more than those who do not. In addition, the finding parallels the study of Rubin (1987) who insisted that good language learners as having the ability and willingness to guess, desiring to engage in communication, being not intimidate attending to the form of the language (e.g. looking for patterns, analyzing, categorizing, and synthesizing), practicing, monitoring their own speech and the speech of others, and paying attention to meaning.

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

5.3.1 Although the relatively small sample means that the researcher cannot claim to provide the breath of data to represent the experiences of grade 12 students in Buriram province, Thailand, the study can nevertheless provide valuable insight into how they perceive, experience, and respond to influences on their teaching, and negotiate the professional and personal challenges confronting them in their practice. These insights have implications for other teachers, for teacher/academic developers and for leaders and managers of institutions, faculties/schools and departments.

5.3.2 The present study showed that grade 12 students used dictionary when they study English at the mediocre level. Therefore, teachers should tell them the importance of dictionaries since all types of dictionaries can help them to look for the

meanings, parts of speech, the examples of the example sentences of the words they found in the English lessons.

5.3.3 Since grade 12 students mentioned the electronic dictionaries can help them translate from English into Thai. Therefore, English teachers should tell and teach them the advantages and disadvantages of this type of dictionary. Also, teachers should tell the students how to select and use them when learning English appropriately.

5.4 Suggestions for Future Research

Based on the findings of this study, the following suggestions for future research are made:

1. This study investigated the beliefs in using English dictionaries. It would be interesting if the future research discover the dictionary strategies used in the English classroom.
2. Since there is no more study on beliefs in using dictionaries up until now, this study is the primary step to explore how the secondary school students believe in using dictionaries in Buriram Province, Thailand. Future research could involve in a lager sample size in order to make a more reliable generalization all over Thailand.
3. The present study conducted in the secondary school level. The future research may employ at the different levels of students such as primary, vocational and university levels.
4. The present investigation compared the similarities and differences of the beliefs in using dictionaries classified by gender and G.P.A. It might be interesting to compare the similarities and differences of the beliefs in using dictionaries classified by other factors, such as the background and learning styles of students.

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มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสุราษฎร์ธานี
Buriram Rajabhat University

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มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสุราษฎร์ธานี
Buriram Rajabhat University

APPENDICES

มหาวิทยาลัยสุโขทัย
Buriram Rajabhat University



No. 0545.11/240

Buriram Rajabhat University
Jira Road, Muang District,
Buriram 31000, THAILAND

27th May 2014

Dear Mr. Director of Khumuangwittayakam School,

Subject: Asking Permission to Collect the Research Data

Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) presents this letter to the Director of Khumuangwittayakam School, to ask permission to collect the research data. I wish to inform you that Mrs. Kannikar Phoweingkam, a student studying in Master of Arts Program in English at BRU, is conducting the research, entitled "**Beliefs and Strategies in Using Dictionaries of Grade 12 Students in Buriram Province**" under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, Chairperson of the Thesis.

In this regard, BRU would like to ask permission from Mr. School Director to allow her to collect the research data from the grade 12 students at Khumuangwittayakam School, by responding to her research methodologies in May - June 2014.

Please accept, Mr. School Director, my sincere appreciation and the assurances of my highest consideration. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

(Assistant Professor Dr. Suthiap La-ongthong)

Dean of Graduate School
Buriram Rajabhat University

Office of Graduate School

Tel.0 4461 1221, 0 446 1616 ext. 3806

Fax 0 4461 2858

B The Letters of Experts

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสุราษฎร์ธานี
Buriram Rajabhat University



No. 0545.11/2๑๙

Buriram Rajabhat University
Jira Road, Muang District,
Buriram 31000, THAILAND

27th May 2014

Dear Mr. Director of Phrakhruphithayakhom School,

Subject: Asking Permission to Try out the Research Instrument

Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) presents this letter to the Director of Phrakhruphithayakhom School, to ask permission to try out the research instrument. I wish to inform you that Mrs. Kannikar Phoweingkam, a student studying in Master of Arts Program in English at BRU, is conducting the research, entitled "**Beliefs and Strategies in Using Dictionaries of Grade 12 Students in Buriram Province**" under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, Chairperson of the Thesis.

In this regard, BRU would like to ask permission from Mr. School Director to allow her to try out the research instrument from the grade 12 students at Phrakhruphithayakhom School, by responding to her research methodologies in May - June 2014.

Please accept, Mr. School Director, my sincere appreciation and the assurances of my highest consideration. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

(Assistant Professor Dr. Suthiap La-onghong)

Dean of Graduate School

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No. 0545.11/๑ 2๖๖

Buriram Rajabhat University
Jira Road, Muang District,
Buriram 31000, THAILAND

21st May 2014

Dear Mr. Sittisak Pongphuehee,

Subject: Requesting to be the Expert for the Research Instruments

Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) presents its complement to Mr. Sittisak Pongphuehee, an English lecturer at Buriram Rajabhat University to be the expert for the research instruments. I would like to inform you that Mrs. Kannikar Phoweaingkam, a student studying in Master of Arts Program in English at BRU, is conducting the research, entitled "**Beliefs and Strategies in Using Dictionaries of Grade 12 Students in Buriram Province**" under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant, Chairperson of the Thesis.

In this regard, BRU strongly believes in your kindness to be the expert for giving suggestions in her research instruments.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

(Assistant Professor Dr. Suthiap La-ongthong)

Dean of Graduate School

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D Semi-structured Interview

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสุราษฎร์ธานี
Buriram Rajabhat University

Beliefs About English Dictionaries Questionnaire (BAEDQ)

Directions: The purpose of this questionnaire is to understand your beliefs about English dictionaries in general and English dictionaries you use. Please keep in mind that you are asked to reflect on what you think about English dictionaries, not on what your teachers or other people think about English dictionaries, or on what they expect you to think about English dictionaries.

- . Gender Male Female
- . Age
- . Year level M.4 M.5 M.6
- . The previous G.P.A

In the statements below, you will find beliefs about English dictionaries below. Please read each statement carefully and respond in terms of how well the statement describes your dictionary beliefs by circling the number (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) which represents either you:

1. means your beliefs present **STRONGLY AGREE.**
2. means your beliefs present **AGREE.**
3. means your beliefs present **NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE.**
4. means your beliefs present **DISAGREE.**
5. means your beliefs present **STRONGLY DISAGREE.**

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| Dictionary Beliefs | Level of Beliefs | | | | |
|---|------------------|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Beliefs about English Dictionaries in General | | | | | |
| When I consult dictionaries, I only want to know what an English word means. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| It is more difficult to use English dictionaries than Thai dictionaries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| It is important to use dictionaries to help me translate while reading and writing English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| In Thailand, English teachers believe it is important to use dictionaries to facilitate English learning. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| A good dictionary user is also a good English learner. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| It is not necessary to use English dictionaries to facilitate learning English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Dictionaries help people more in reading than in writing English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I can use dictionaries better if my English teacher teaches me lookup skills or dictionary strategies. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| How often people use dictionaries is associated with their English proficiency. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| People good at English are more skilled at using dictionaries than people not good at English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| People should use suitable dictionaries intended for their English proficiency levels. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| People with a strong motivation to learn English also have a strong motivation to use dictionaries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Beliefs about specific types of English dictionaries | | | | | |
| Electronic dictionaries with built-in vocal function help to improve English pronunciation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The English translations supplied in a Thai-English dictionary help me write English better. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| English-English dictionaries help to understand an English word's meanings better. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| English-English dictionaries help me think and express myself in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| English-English dictionaries are suitable only for people of high English proficiency. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The most important use of electronic dictionaries is to help me translate from English to Thai. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The Thai translations supplied in an English-Thai dictionary help me read English more effectively. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Beliefs about Relative strengths of Different Types of English Dictionaries | | | | | |
| English-Thai dictionaries help to enhance English ability more than English-English dictionaries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Electronic dictionaries help to enhance English ability more than paper dictionaries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| On-line dictionaries are more helpful than paper in fostering English reading and writing in a wired environment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| On-line dictionaries are more helpful than electronic dictionaries in fostering English reading and writing in a wired environment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I like to use English-Thai dictionaries more than English-English dictionaries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I like to use electronic dictionaries more than paper dictionaries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

--Thank you for your kind cooperation--

แบบสอบถามเพื่อการวิจัย
ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ

แบบสอบถามชุดนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์ เพื่อเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับความเชื่อที่นักเรียนใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ
ความร่วมมือนักเรียนตอบแบบสอบถามตามความเป็นจริงเพื่อสะท้อนให้เห็นต่อการใช้พจนานุกรมทั่วไป และพจนานุกรม
ภาษาอังกฤษ

1. เพศ ชาย หญิง
2. อายุปี
3. ระดับชั้น ม.4 ม.5 ม.6
4. เกรดเฉลี่ย.....

ชี้แจง

โปรดอ่านข้อความด้านล่างแล้วทำเครื่องหมายวงกลม (1, 2, 3, 4 หรือ 5) ในช่องด้านขวามือซึ่งตรงกับความคิด
นักเรียนซึ่งจะพบว่า ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับ พจนานุกรม ภาษาอังกฤษให้ตรงกับความคิดของนักเรียนมากที่สุดเพียงข้อเดียว

- 1 หมายถึง ความเชื่อของคุณ เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
- 2 หมายถึง ความเชื่อของคุณ เห็นด้วย
- 3 หมายถึง ความเชื่อของคุณ ไม่แน่ใจ
- 4 หมายถึง ความเชื่อของคุณ ไม่เห็นด้วย
- 5 หมายถึง ความเชื่อของคุณ ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

นางกรรณิการ์ เผ่าเวียงคำ
นักศึกษาด้านวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ ระดับปริญญาโท
บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏบุรีรัมย์
โทร. 084 - 8304523

| ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการใช้พจนานุกรม | ระดับ ความเชื่อ | | | | |
|---|-----------------|---|---|---|---|
| ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับพจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษโดยทั่วไป | | | | | |
| ทุกครั้งที่เปิดพจนานุกรม ข้าพเจ้าจะหาความหมายของศัพท์ที่ต้องการเท่านั้น | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษใช้ยากกว่าพจนานุกรมภาษาไทย | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| สิ่งสำคัญที่ข้าพเจ้าใช้พจนานุกรมคือ ช่วยในการแปลเพื่อการอ่านและการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| ในประเทศไทย ครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษเชื่อว่า สิ่งสำคัญในการใช้พจนานุกรมคือ เพื่ออำนวยความสะดวกในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| ผู้ใช้พจนานุกรมที่ดีจะต้องเป็นผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษที่ดีด้วย | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| เราไม่จำเป็นต้องใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| พจนานุกรมช่วยข้าพเจ้าในการอ่านมากกว่าการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| ข้าพเจ้าสามารถใช้พจนานุกรมได้ดี ถ้าครูภาษาอังกฤษสอนเกี่ยวกับทักษะการค้นหาหรือวิธีการใช้พจนานุกรม | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| คนที่ใช้พจนานุกรมบ่อยๆ คือ คนที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| คนที่มีทักษะภาษาอังกฤษดีจะมีความชำนาญในการใช้พจนานุกรมกว่าคนที่มีทักษะทางภาษาอังกฤษไม่ดี | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| เราควรใช้พจนานุกรมที่เหมาะสมกับระดับความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษของเรา | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| คนที่มีแรงจูงใจในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษจะมีแรงจูงใจในการใช้พจนานุกรมด้วย | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับประเภทของพจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ | | | | | |
| พจนานุกรมอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ที่มีฟังก์ชันในการช่วยในการพูด สามารถพัฒนาการออกเสียงภาษาอังกฤษได้ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| คำแปลภาษาอังกฤษที่มีในพจนานุกรมภาษาไทย - ภาษาอังกฤษ ช่วยให้ข้าพเจ้าเขียนภาษาอังกฤษได้ดียิ่งขึ้น | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ - ภาษาอังกฤษ ช่วยให้เข้าใจความหมายของคำภาษาอังกฤษดียิ่งขึ้น | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ - ภาษาอังกฤษ ช่วยให้ข้าพเจ้าคิดและแสดงออกทางภาษาอังกฤษ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ - ภาษาอังกฤษ มีความเหมาะสมสำหรับคนที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษเท่านั้น | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| สิ่งสำคัญในการใช้พจนานุกรมอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ คือ ช่วยในการแปลจากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| คำแปลในภาษาไทยที่มีในพจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ - ภาษาไทย ช่วยให้ข้าพเจ้าอ่านภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับข้อดี พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษประเภทต่างๆ | | | | | |
| พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ - ภาษาไทย ช่วยในการเพิ่มพูนความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษมากกว่าพจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ - ภาษาไทย | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| พจนานุกรมอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ช่วยเพิ่มพูนความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษ มากกว่าพจนานุกรมเป็นเล่ม | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| พจนานุกรมออนไลน์มีประโยชน์มากกว่าพจนานุกรมเป็นเล่ม ในการอ่านและการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| พจนานุกรมออนไลน์มีประโยชน์มากกว่าพจนานุกรมอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ ในการอ่านและการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| ข้าพเจ้าชอบใช้พจนานุกรม ภาษาอังกฤษ - ภาษาไทย มากกว่า พจนานุกรมภาษาอังกฤษ- ภาษาอังกฤษ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| ข้าพเจ้าชอบใช้พจนานุกรมอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ มากกว่า พจนานุกรมเป็นเล่ม | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

--ขอขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือในการตอบแบบสอบถามชุดนี้--

Semi-Structured Interview Questions

(Thai Version)

1. นักเรียนเคยใช้พจนานุกรมหรือไม่ มีกี่แบบ อย่างไร

2. นักเรียนเคยใช้พจนานุกรมแบบใดบ้างในการค้นหาคำศัพท์

3. นักเรียนคิดว่าการใช้พจนานุกรมจะช่วยให้การแปลในเรื่องที่อ่าน, เขียน อย่างไร

4. การใช้พจนานุกรมช่วยให้ผลการเรียนของนักเรียนดีขึ้นอย่างไรบ้าง

5. คุณเคยใช้พจนานุกรมแบบไหนใน 3 แบบ

1. พจนานุกรม แบบ ออนไลน์
2. พจนานุกรม แบบ เป็นเล่ม
3. พจนานุกรม แบบ อิเล็กทรอนิกส์

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CURRICULUM VITAE

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Education:

| | |
|-----------|--|
| 1980-1986 | Chomchonbankhumuang Primary School |
| 1987-1993 | Khumuagwittayakom Secondary School |
| 1994-1996 | Chanapolkan Institute of Technology, Nakronratchasima |
| 1997-1999 | Bachelor of Education (English), Rajabhat Institute, Buriram province, Thailand |
| 2009-2013 | Master of Arts Buriram Rajabhat University English, Major |

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