

Bruno de Azevedo

**READING AND VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION:
ANALYZING VOCABULARY ACTIVITIES IN EFL
TEXTBOOKS AND UNDERGRADUATE PROFESSORS' AND
LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS ON THE ROLE OF
VOCABULARY IN READING COMPREHENSION**

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Orientadora: Prof.^a Dra. Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch.

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Dr. Celso Henrique Soufen Tumolo
Coordenador do Curso

Banca Examinadora:

Dra. Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch
Orientadora - Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

Dra. Maria Ester Moritz
Presidente - Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

Dr. Celso Henrique Soufen Tumolo
Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

Dra. Cyntia Bailer
Universidade Regional de Blumenau

To mom,
with all my love.

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ABSTRACT

Vocabulary knowledge has been considered one of the best predictors of reading comprehension in second language (Nation, 2001; Tumolo, 2007; among others). Vocabulary knowledge is responsible for lower-level comprehension processes in reading (Gagné et al., 1993). Moreover, researchers claim that once lower-level comprehension processes have become automatized, readers are better able to draw inferences and monitor their comprehension during reading (Alptekin & Erçetin, 2009; 2011). In addition to that, there is a vast array of research claiming that reading is also a source of vocabulary knowledge (to mention a few, Nation, 2001; Laufer 2017a; 2017b). Having in mind the importance of vocabulary for reading, and reading for learning new words, this piece of research aimed at analyzing vocabulary activities of English as Foreign Language textbooks in order to investigate the relationship (if any) of the vocabulary activities with the reading section of the textbooks. In addition to that, perceptions professors and learners of *UFSC's* English Undergraduate Course have been raised concerning reading and vocabulary. In order to analyze the textbook, a framework based on previous research was created, and for gathering professors' and learners' perceptions, interviews and questionnaires were used, respectively. The analysis has shown that, from the three textbooks analyzed, only one seemed to have a strong relationship between vocabulary and the reading section. In addition to that, results have suggested that textbooks should approach words that are relevant for readers to construct meaning from text, and they should also provide several encounters with spaced repetition for word retention. Regarding perceptions, both professors and learners agree that vocabulary is important for reading. On the one hand, some professors believe that vocabulary instruction should not be part of a reading program, on the other hand, learners strongly believe that vocabulary instruction is essential.

Key-words: reading; vocabulary; textbooks; perceptions.

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RESUMO

O conhecimento lexical tem sido considerado um dos melhores antecipadores da compreensão leitora (Nation, 2001; Tumolo, 2007; entre outros). O conhecimento lexical é responsável por processos componentes de leitura de baixo nível (Gagné et al., 1993). Além disso, pesquisadores afirmam que uma vez que processos de baixo nível se tornam automatizados, leitores conseguem destinar mais recursos de atenção para elaboração de inferências e monitoramento da compreensão (Alptekin & Erçetin, 2009; 2011). Ademais, há uma gama de pesquisas que afirmam que leitura é uma fonte de aquisição lexical (vide Nation, 2001; Laufer 2017a; 2017b). Considerando a importância do conhecimento lexical para leitura, bem como a leitura como fonte de aprendizado de palavras novas, esta pesquisa teve como objetivo analisar atividades de vocabulário de inglês como língua estrangeira em livros didáticos para investigar qual a relação (se presente) das atividades de vocabulário com a unidade de leitura dos livros didáticos. Além disso, as percepções de professores e alunos do curso de Letras-Inglês da UFSC sobre a relação da leitura e léxico foram investigadas. Em relação aos livros didáticos, pesquisas anteriores foram utilizadas para abordagem de análise, e para angariar informações das percepções de professores e alunos, entrevistas e questionários foram utilizados, respectivamente. Os resultados apontam que, dos três livros didáticos analisados, somente um apresentou uma relação bem consolidada entre as atividades de vocabulário e a unidade de leitura. Ademais, os resultados sugerem que os livros didáticos deveriam abordar palavras que sejam relevantes para construção de sentido do texto, e os livros também poderiam oferecer múltiplos encontros intervalados para memorização de palavras novas. Em relação às percepções, tanto professores quanto alunos concordam sobre a importância do conhecimento lexical para ler. Por um lado, alguns professores relataram que ensino de vocabulário não merece atenção em sala de aula; por outro lado, os alunos acreditam que instrução seja essencial.

Palavras-chave: leitura; léxico; livros didáticos; percepções.

Número de páginas: 138

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS, ACRONYMS AND SYMBOLS

- B.C. – Before Christ
BNC – British National Corpus
CCE – Centro de Comunicação e Expressão
CEPSH – Comitê de Ética em Pesquisa com Seres Humanos
COCA – Corpus of Contemporary American English
EFL – English as a Foreign Language
FonF – Focus on Form
FonFs – Focus on Forms
L1 – First Language
L2 – Second Language
P1 – Professor 1
P2 – Professor 2
P3 – Professor 3
P4 – Professor 4
P5 – Professor 5
PPGI – Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês
UFSC – Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. PRELIMINARIES

Reading and vocabulary knowledge have had a long history. According to Schmitt (2000), in the second century B.C., Roman children learned Greek by going from the alphabet, to syllables, words, and then connecting discourse. The author affirms that vocabulary was deemed important at this time, since “the art of rhetoric was highly prized, and would have been impossible without a highly developed vocabulary” (p. 10).

In fact, as signaled in the relevant literature, vocabulary knowledge and reading have a close relationship. Readers need vocabulary knowledge to construct meaning from text, in the same way as reading increases the reader’s vocabulary. After all, do we learn words in order to read, or do we read as a result of learning new words? There is evidence from research that reading is a source of vocabulary learning and that word knowledge predicts reading comprehension (Nation, 2001; Laufer, 1992, 2001, 2003, 2017a; Stahl & Nagy, 2006, Tumolo, 2007).

In the 1980s, Meara had declared that vocabulary was a neglected area of language learning. As a matter of fact, Nation (2011) has observed that this scenario has changed¹, highlighting that all the research carried out in the area of applied linguistics should be moved to the classroom environment. In fact, aiming to investigate the state-of-the-art of studies in vocabulary learning and teaching in the Brazilian context, Azevedo, Lorensen, Pires and Tumolo (2017) found 14 studies dealing with vocabulary. In reading, specifically, only four studies dealt with vocabulary and reading at some point. The authors concluded that despite the small number of studies dealing with vocabulary in the Brazilian context, it has advanced from “neglected”, as Meara (1980) claimed, to a growing subject of investigation.

¹ In 2011, Nation reported that “over 30% of the research on L1 and L2 vocabulary learning in the last 120 years occurring in the last 12 years” (p.2).

Luckily, many researchers overseas have dedicated their academic lives to studying vocabulary acquisition, as for example, Paul Nation, Batia Laufer, and Norbert Schmitt. Their work has addressed the many issues of vocabulary learning, as this piece of research reviews later on. In fact, by revising years of research on reading and vocabulary, that this study was born. Issues such as, how English textbooks deal with vocabulary for reading; how teachers should consider vocabulary in their reading courses and which strategies learners should use in order to improve their vocabulary repertoire have been put to question.

Another key motivator for this study was the study carried out by Tomitch (2009b), in which she analyzed English textbooks used in Elementary schools in Brazil aiming to investigate the vocabulary activities and their relationship (if any) with the componential reading processes posed by Gagné, Yekovich and Yekovich (1993). At the time, Tomitch found no relationship between the vocabulary activities and the reading units of the textbooks of that sample investigated. Moreover, the vocabulary activities seemed to trigger only lower-level comprehension processes. It is known, however, that fluent reading comprehension involves both lower- and higher-comprehension processes (Gagné et al., 1993), as will be developed later in this text.

It is important to consider, therefore, that the textbooks analyzed by Tomitch (2009b), were EFL textbooks (English as a Foreign Language) used in elementary school. How would vocabulary be approached by EFL textbooks used in undergraduate programs?

With these issues in mind, this study sets out to investigate how the English as a Foreign Language textbooks deal with vocabulary in a reading lesson. Considering the English Undergraduate Course of the Federal University of Santa Catarina, Brazil as an important locus for investigation of reading and vocabulary, especially due to having courses for reading, this piece of research aims at analyzing vocabulary activities of textbooks of the course. However, several questions remain unanswered: what if the professors do not use the textbook? How do they tackle vocabulary in their lessons? How do learners see the relationship of reading and vocabulary acquisition? Aiming to address such questions, this study also investigated professors' and undergraduate students' perceptions on the reading-vocabulary pair.

1.2. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This piece of research is significant in the sense that contributes to the small number of studies dealing with vocabulary in foreign language, as it has been pointed out by Azevedo et al. (2017). According to them, between 2007 and 2017, only fourteen studies carried out in the Brazilian context were found, which fit into the following categories: vocabulary and reading; textbooks and vocabulary instruction; perceptions about teaching and learning vocabulary; technological resources and hypermedia in teaching and learning vocabulary in a foreign language; and at last, working memory and vocabulary learning.

Within the scope of this piece of research, Azevedo et al. (2017) found four studies dealing with vocabulary and reading, two studies on incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading and two on professors' and learners' perceptions (see Azevedo et al. 2017 for a complete account). In addition to enhancing the small number of studies on vocabulary in the Brazilian context, the findings of this piece of research may contribute for teachers and professors' knowledge, especially when deciding on which materials to choose for their classes.

1.3. OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this piece of research is to analyze the vocabulary activities of EFL textbooks in order to investigate its relationship with the reading section. Moreover, it aims at demonstrating undergraduate professors' and students' perceptions regarding the relevance of vocabulary knowledge for reading comprehension. To be more precise, this study aims at:

- 1) Examining whether the vocabulary activities are linked to the reading section of textbooks and how this relation happens;
- 2) Investigating what type of componential reading processes the activities foster: lower-level (decoding and lexical access) and higher-level (inferential comprehension and comprehension monitoring).
- 3) Demonstrating how vocabulary is presented in the reading section of textbook units, whether before, during and/or after the text;

- finding out what type of activity the vocabulary is inserted in (fill-in-the-blanks, synonym-antonym, etc.); and whether there are any glossaries and/or suggestion for dictionary use;
- 4) reporting what type of words the activities focus on, for instance, frequent words, false cognates, words that are part of main/secondary ideas in the reading section;
 - 5) calculating the number of encounters with the words in order to examine whether there are opportunities for learners to meet the words in several language contexts;
 - 6) investigating whether the vocabulary activities promote a deep level of processing for word retention;
 - 7) reporting undergraduate professors' perceptions regarding the importance of vocabulary knowledge for reading comprehension;
 - 8) reporting undergraduate students' perceptions in regards to the relevance of vocabulary knowledge for reading comprehension.

1.4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to achieve the aforementioned objectives, the present investigation will attempt to answer the following research questions:

- R1. What is the relationship of the vocabulary activities with the reading section of the EFL textbooks used at UFSC's English undergraduate course?
- R2. What are the componential reading processes the vocabulary activities foster – lower-level (decoding and literal comprehension) and higher-level (inferential comprehension and comprehension monitoring)?
- R3. How is the vocabulary presented in the reading section? In what type of activity is it insert in (fill-in-the-blanks; synonym-antonym; etc.)? By presenting marginal glosses and/or vocabulary search? Is vocabulary presented before, during or after reading?
- R4. What is the main focus of the vocabulary activities? High-frequency words, false cognates and/or words that are part of main/secondary ideas of the text in the reading section?
- R5. How many encounters do the textbooks provide with the words?
- R6. What level of processing for word retention do the activities promote? Deep or shallow?

- R7. What are undergraduate professors' perceptions regarding vocabulary instruction and its relevance to L2 reading comprehension?
- R8. What are undergraduate students' perceptions regarding vocabulary learning and its relevance to L2 reading comprehension?

1.5. ORGANIZATION OF THE MASTER'S THESIS

This master's thesis is organized into five main chapters, attempting to cover all the aspects considered for this study. It starts with the Introduction, which sets the scene for the study. Next, on Chapter two, the relevant literature on the field is reviewed pointing out to the constructs used along the study. Chapter three describes the method used in the study. In the same chapter, the instruments and procedures for data collection, as well as procedures for data analysis are detailed. Later, in Chapter four, the textbook analysis and a report on the participants' perceptions are given. Last, the final remarks, limitations of the study, suggestions for further research and pedagogical implications are approached.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter presents the theoretical framework that underlies this study. It is organized into two main sections. Firstly, the reading comprehension section is devoted to describing the process models of reading (top-down, bottom-up and interactive), and Gagné, Yekovich and Yekovich's (1993) account on the componential aspects of reading comprehension. Secondly, the vocabulary section also approaches the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. In the vocabulary and reading section, there is a tentative explanation of what it means to know a word followed by some features considered relevant for vocabulary acquisition/learning². Then, we bring about the discussion of focus on form and focus on forms for vocabulary studies, and finally, the important aspects to be considered in a vocabulary activity.³

2.1. ON READING COMPREHENSION

This section is divided into two parts and will focus on cognitive aspects of reading comprehension. The first part contains a review of the process models involved in reading, while the second describes the componential model proposed by Gagné et al. (1993).

2.1.1. Reading models

A model is an attempt to explain how a phenomenon or sets of phenomena happen. A reading model, therefore, tries to explain how reading works (Sadoski & Paivio, 2007), or put differently, it is an abstraction of what happens in the reader's mind during reading. In fact, Davies (1995) mentioned that a reading model is concerned with the workings of the mind and eyes of the reader during comprehension. Having said what a model is

² In this study, we use the constructs acquisition and learning interchangeably.

³ We have decided not to approach the differences between exercises, activities and tasks, therefore, we use the terms as synonyms.

considered to be, the three most prominent reading models are approached here, since they “provide educators with a deeper understanding of reading processes, where breakdowns in comprehension can occur, and what strategies could improve reading processes” (Alvermann, Unrau & Rudell, 2013, p. 691), considering the pedagogical motivation for carrying out this piece of research. The first reading model to be described is Goodman’s top-down model (1976); the second one is Gough’s bottom-up model (1972), while the last is Rumelhart’s interactive model (1977).

Based on the analysis of oral reading errors, also known as miscue analysis, Goodman (1976)⁴ was able to build a model of the reading process supporting the view that the reader uses little printed cues, therefore relying heavily on predictions. The author points out that “reading is a selective process” (p. 2), in the sense that the reader selects a few elements to construct meaning, instead of depending only on graphic display. Goodman (1976) makes a detailed description of how reading works, from the reader’s scanning the page to the building of expectations⁵. As reading progresses, predictions are confirmed, rejected or refined, characterizing, therefore, Goodman’s ‘psycholinguistic guessing game’. The model has such name due to the fact that the reader constructs meaning using only the enough graphic, semantic and syntactic information to predict (guess) what is coming in the text (Goodman, 1976). As the reader develops the skill of reading, fewer graphic cues are used.

In contrast, Gough (1972) proposed a bottom-up fashion of processing reading, which portrays how reading progresses from the moment the eyes meet the page until actual comprehension takes place (Samuels & Kamil, 1984). According to Gough (1972), reading begins with the eyes fixating on the printed page, forming, therefore, an iconic image consisting of lines, curves, and angles, which are rapidly recognized as letters. The central issue to reading is how letters would get to words, and which form they assume as words, since they should be associated with meanings in the mental lexicon (Gough, 1972).

⁴ We had access to Goodman’s text from 1976. However, this text was originally published in the *Journal of the Reading Specialist*, 1967, 126-135, copyright 1976 by the International Reading Association.

⁵ Predictions and expectations are used interchangeably.

Furthermore, there is the issue of how words are processed in a sentence. He believes that words are processed from left to right, in a serial manner. The storage of individual words in a sentence would take place in a primary memory, a system with limited storage capacity responsible for joining the lexical items with its semantic and syntactic information, until comprehension actually takes place (Gough, 1972). According to Alvermann et al. (2013), this model only “depicts a process that began with low-level sensory representations (letter input) and proceeded through phonemic and lexical-level representation to deeper structural representation” (p.694). In sum, the model had a strictly bottom-up fashion with no higher-level processes⁶, which in fact, led Gough to acknowledge the limitations of his model (Alvermann et al., 2013).

As a response to the limitations of the strictly top-down (Goodman, 1976) and bottom-up (Gough, 1972) models of reading, Rumelhart (1985) came up with an Interactive model of reading. According to him, linear models are limited because they do not allow information from different levels to interact, that is, information available in a higher level would not be able to interact with a lower level process (Rumelhart, 1985). In other words, in Rumelhart’s Interactive Model, information processing does not necessarily need to follow an order; instead, information from different sources (syntactic, semantic, orthographic and lexical) can be drawn simultaneously by the reader, as shown by the diagram below:

⁶ Lower-level processes comprise decoding and literal comprehension, while higher-level processes encompass inferential comprehension and comprehension monitoring (Gagné et al., 1993). A detailed account is given on the next section.

▪ **Figure 1. Rumelhart's Interactive Model of Reading**

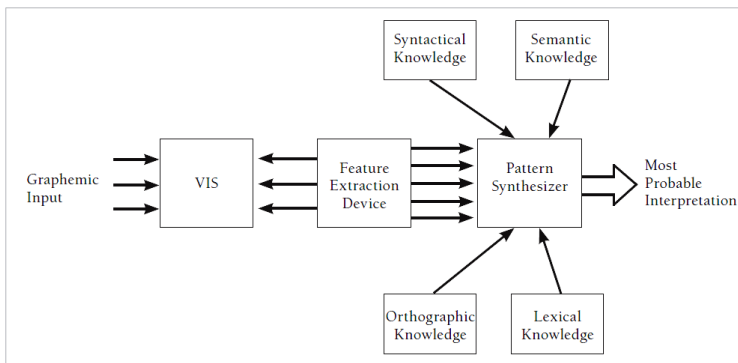


Figure 1. Rumelhart's Interactive Model of Reading depicting the various sources of information that might interact in processing reading.
 Reprinted from: Rumelhart, D.E. (1985) *Toward an Interactive Model of Reading*. In H. Singer & R.B. Rudell, *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading*. (3rd ed., pp.722-750). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (Reprinted from *Theoretical models and processes of reading*, 6th ed. pp. 719-747, by D.E. Alvermann, N.J Unrau, & R.B. Rudell. Eds. 2013. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.).

According to Rumelhart (1985), the graphemic input is captioned by the Visual Information Store (VIS), which is extracted by the Feature Extraction Device. Then, the Pattern Synthesizer is responsible for accessing simultaneously all the information from the different sources. Rumelhart (1985) explains that “all of the various sources of knowledge, both sensory and nonsensory, come together at one place, and the reading process is the product of the simultaneous joint application of all the knowledge sources” (p.732). Put differently, syntactic, semantic, orthographic and lexical information seem to unite at the same place (the pattern synthesizer) in order to generate the most suitable interpretation of reading material (Rumelhart, 1985). While information is processed in a strictly serial manner in the bottom-up model and relying heavily on anticipation and prediction in the top-down model, the interactive model allows the information to interact so that the reader may be able to reach the most probable interpretation of the input

(Rumelhart & McClelland, 1981). Next, we move to a description of Gagné et al.'s model.

2.1.2. A componential model of reading: Gagné et al's model

Unlike process models of reading which usually make generalizations on the process of reading, componential models try to depict the reading process, focusing on the components involved in reading (Bilikozen & Akyel, 2014). For the purpose of this research, Gagné, Yekovich and Yekovich's (1993) model of reading comprehension is approached, due to its clear-cut account on the components involved in reading comprehension.

For Gagné et al. (1993), reading comprehension involves conceptual knowledge, that is, the reader's declarative knowledge about letters, phonemes, morphemes, words, ideas, schemas, and topic or subject matter. Together with declarative knowledge, Gagné et al. (1993) understand that procedural knowledge (skills and strategies) is employed, in this case, meaning knowing "how to read".⁷ This procedural knowledge is divided into several component processes, including decoding, literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, and comprehension monitoring. For the authors, declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge work 'hand in hand', meaning that reading comprehension involves the component processes and extensive declarative knowledge. Tomitch (2011) has built a diagram for the model, as displayed below:

⁷ According to Gagné et al. (1993), "declarative knowledge is knowing *that* something is the case. Declarative knowledge is different from procedural knowledge, which is knowing *how to* do something" (p. 59).

- **Figure 2. Diagram modelling Gagné et al.'s model of Reading Comprehension**

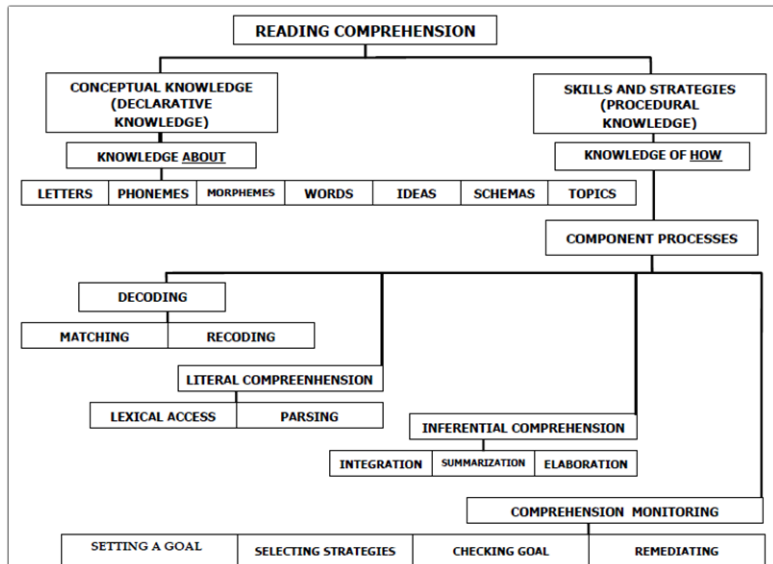


Figure 2 – Diagram modelling Reading Comprehension constructed and translated by Tomitch (2011) based on Gagné et al. (1993). Reading comprehension encompasses both declarative and procedural knowledge. The former refers to knowledge about letters, phonemes, morphemes, words, ideas, schemas and topics, while the latter refers to component processes. They are divided into decoding, literal comprehension, inferential comprehension and comprehension monitoring.

Reprinted from: Tomitch, L.M.B. (2011). Pesquisas sobre os aspectos cognitivos da leitura: 40 anos de PPGI. In S.B. Funck (Ed). *História e memória; 40 anos do PPGI da UFSC*. Florianópolis, SC: UFSC-CCE-PPGI.

Regarding the subcategories of component processes, each one of them will be detailed, starting with the lowest level of comprehension. Gagné et al. (1993) state that decoding belongs to the lowest level of comprehension, due to its bottom-up approach of

capturing “meaning directly from print” (Walker, Munro, & Richards, 1998, p. 88). This does not mean, however, that lower-level processes are less important than higher-level ones (Grabe, 2009). In fact, fluent reading requires lower level processes to become automatized, and the combination of these component processes provide the best overview on the reading process, as outlined by Grabe (2009). Gagné et al. (1993) believe that decoding is assigning meaning to written text and it can happen through a direct association of the meaning of individual words from print, entitled matching, or via sounding out of a word, called recoding. Matching takes place when the reader has built a sight vocabulary⁸, and can be improved as the reader becomes skilled. They maintain that beginner readers, who do not possess a sight vocabulary, might match at the level of the letters, and as the skill is acquired “the matching process will operate on entire words” (Gagné et al., 1993, p.270). Recoding, in contrast, might happen when the word is unknown to the reader or when its length exceeds the eye’s perceptual span. In a detailed way, “the print is translated into a string of sounds and the string of sounds is then used to activate meaning” (Gagné et al., 1993, p. 270).

Literal comprehension is also a lower-level component process, and it is responsible for deriving the literal meaning of the printed page(s). Skilled readers process literal comprehension almost effortlessly. It is interesting to mention that in L2 reading comprehension, readers “tend to become more involved with processing the text literally” (Alptekin & Erçetin, 2011, p.236), which might be problematic for inference generation. In order to derive literal meaning, the knowledge that was identified during decoding must be used (Gagné et al., 1993). Literal comprehension, therefore, comprises two sub-processes, namely lexical access and parsing. Lexical access activates, in memory, the best meaning for the word(s) that appear(s) in print (Gagné et al., 1993). Put another way, “as words are being processed visually, the potential matches in the reader’s mental lexicon⁹ are activated” (Grabe, 2009, p. 26).

⁸ Gagné et al. (1993) define sight vocabulary as the set of words that are recognized by the reader.

⁹ Mental lexicon refers to the complex, flexible, organized and with unlimited capacity system that humans possess for storing words in the mind for retrieval (Aitchison, 1987).

Parsing, or grammar knowledge (Grabe, 2009), “uses the syntactic and linguistic rules of a language for putting words together to form meaningful ideas” (Gagné et al., 1993, p.272). In other words, as the reader progresses in the text, s/he tries to relate the encountered words with grammatical constituents (Just & Carpenter, 1987).

It is assumed that higher-level processes demand more attentional resources from readers (Alptekin & Erçetin, 2009; Grabe, 2009). Inferential comprehension, therefore, is characterized as a higher-level conceptual process due to its need of more attentional resources to relate the “information provided by the text with relevant prior knowledge” (Kintsch & Rawson, 2005, p. 211). The same authors pose that texts are hardly ever only explicit, meaning that it is the reader who must fill in the gaps. Readers who are not able to go beyond what is explicit in the text are often labelled as poor readers (Alptekin & Erçetin, 2011). Consequently, inferences are fundamental to reading comprehension. Gagné et al. (1993) have subdivided inferential comprehension into integration, summarization, and elaboration.

Integrative processes are responsible for connecting the propositions together (two or more) in order to build a semantic whole. The authors point out that “integration occurs within complex sentences, across sentences, and even across paragraphs” (p.275). Summarization is vital for comprehension, since it involves deleting and generalizing information from the text to construct the gist of it (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978). In a nutshell, drawing inferences is fundamental to extract the essence of the passage (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978; Gagné et al. 1993). Last, Gagné et al. (1993) explain that new information from the text is organized by integration and summarization processes, and as a result of this organization, a meaning representation is created. Then, elaboration processes are responsible for bringing prior knowledge to add to this meaning representation (Gagné et al. 1993).

Comprehension monitoring, as the name suggests, monitors the reading situation in order to verify whether the reader’s goal is being met (Gagné et al., 1993). The concept of comprehension monitoring may be equated to metacognitive strategies and skills¹⁰,

¹⁰ Veenman (2015) explains the difference between strategy and skill. The former requires deliberate, conscious effort, while the latter might happen in a (partially) automated manner.

which consist of “the acquired repertoire of procedural knowledge for monitoring and controlling one’s behavior” (Veenman, 2015, p.28). Gagné et al. (1993) believe that at the beginning of the reading event the proficient reader sets a goal and selects the best strategies for reaching her/his goal. While reading, the reader verifies whether the goal has been achieved, otherwise s/he is able to remediate by selecting new strategies to reach her/his initial goal.

Next, we move to a section devoted to vocabulary and reading.

2.2. ON VOCABULARY AND READING

As aforementioned, reading and vocabulary have had a close relationship, in the sense that vocabulary knowledge not only predicts reading comprehension (Laufer, 1992, 2001; Stahl & Nagy, 2006;), but reading also works as a source of vocabulary learning (Laufer, 2003; Joe, 1995; Tumolo, 1999; 2007).

With this in mind, this section firstly explains what it means to know a word, followed by a review of relevant research on the relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension. After that, some features of vocabulary acquisition/learning¹¹ are brought about, besides the discussion on focus on form and forms in vocabulary studies. Finally, some important features to consider in a vocabulary activity are explained.

2.2.1. What does it mean to know a word?

The answer to this question seems simple: “knowing a word means knowing its meaning”. It is not what researchers have shown, however. Grabe (2009) has mentioned that “there are many ways to know a word” (p.267); therefore, the traditional form-meaning correspondence might not provide the whole picture that knowing a word encompasses (Richard, 1976; Schmitt, 2000). Nation (1990) has proposed a list of different kinds of word knowledge, ranging from the meaning of the word, its written and spoken form, its grammatical behavior, its collocations, register, association, and its frequency. For the purpose of this piece research,

¹¹ As already mentioned, we use the constructs acquisition and learning interchangeably.

the following types of word knowledge will be detailed: a) the meaning(s) of the word; b) the written form; c) the grammatical behavior; d) the collocations; e) the register; f) the associations; and g) the frequency.

According to Schmitt (2000), people often equate word meanings with dictionary meanings. Schmitt (2000) says that “meaning consists of the relationships between a word and its referent” (p. 23). Put differently, knowing a word means being able to tell the different meanings of a word (Richards, 1976), or, being able to set a referent in the world for this word, such as a person, thing, action, or condition (Schmitt, 2000). However, Schmitt (2000) mentions that this relationship of word and its referent might not be as simple as commonly thought, especially because the meanings we attribute to things might not be the same for everyone, due to different background knowledge. In order to simplify this issue of word meaning, Schmitt (2000) proposes that “words are labels for concepts which encapsulate our limited personal experience of the actual world reality” (p.23), therefore, meaning can be conceived as “the relationship between a word and its concept” (p.23), leaving aside the construct of referent. Dictionaries, this way, try to depict the most common concepts attributed to words (Richards, 1976).

Being able to know the written form of a word is considered a key component to vocabulary knowledge (Schmitt, 2000). Research has helped to corroborate the claim that orthographical knowledge does play a role in recognizing a word (Schmitt, 2000). Eye movement research can offer information on the reader’s eyes behavior during reading, especially if we consider that eye movements and fixations can tell much about what is picked up during reading (Schmitt, 2000). By fixations, we mean the moment the eyes fixate at a word, and saccadic movements are “brief jumps from one place to another” (Just & Carpenter, 1987). Moreover, it has also been established in the field that readers fixate for a longer period on harder, difficult and important words (Just & Carpenter, 1987). Equally important, Rayner and Pollatsek (2006) pointed out that “it is only during the fixations that new visual information is encoded from the text” (p. 614). Put another way, since most words are fixated on, having a large sight vocabulary helps readers recognize words quickly enough to guarantee fluent reading (Schmitt, 2000).

Knowing a word means knowing its form and knowing its (grammatical) function. Lexicogrammar is the term coined by Schmitt (2000) to suggest that “lexical knowledge and grammatical knowledge are inextricably interrelated” (p. 58), since evidence from language databases (corpora) have shown that a lot of the grammar is constrained by lexical choices. To be more precise, words seem to have patterns, and words which share patterns might also share meanings (see Hunston et al., 1997, for a complete account). Moreover, word class seems to be related to learning and storage of vocabulary (Schmitt, 2000). As an example, Laufer (1997) suggested that morphology has an effect on vocabulary learning. In fact, she suggests that “the learner’s ability to decompose a word into its morphemes can facilitate the recognition of a new word” (Laufer, 1997, p. 146).

Knowing a word involves knowing the company the word keeps (Nation, 2001; Richards, 1976). When a language user finds the word ‘spend’, she/he will usually collocate this verb with the nouns that match, such as ‘money’ or ‘time’, for instance. Research on collocations has shown that there are certain patterns whereby being aware of them may reduce the learning burden, as Nation (2001) has stated. The author claimed that similarity between collocations in the first and second language help the learning burden to be lighter (Nation, 2001).

Knowing a word means knowing its register. The adjustment of one’s vocabulary in order to fit a given situation is known as register, which is also referred to as the extra meaning given to a word (Richards, 1976; Schmitt, 2000). As pointed out by Schmitt (2000), the meaning of a word is not only denotative (core meaning) so materials and teachers should consider incorporating register information into their vocabulary programs. Equally important is that teachers understand semantic relationships of English words in order to explain their meanings and for creating vocabulary activities that enable learners’ understanding of the words (Nation, 2001). In fact, this is extremely related to providing a number of encounters with a word, since the more encounters the reader has with a word in a variety of contexts and/or vocabulary activities, “a more accurate understanding of its meaning and use will develop” (Sökmen, 1997, p. 241). An ideal number of six to more than twenty (6-20) encounters with a word is suggested by Laufer and Rozovski-

Roitblat (2015) in their state-of-the-art article, which will be described in detail in the next section.

2.2.2. Vocabulary acquisition through reading

Research has extensively shown that vocabulary and reading comprehension are closely related (Grabe, 2009; Laufer, 1992, 2001, 2003; Joe, 1995; Stahl & Nagy, 2006; Tumolo, 2007; among others), meaning that the more vocabulary a learner knows, the better s/he will comprehend a text, and the more the learner reads, the more vocabulary s/he will learn (Grabe, 2009). The acquisition of vocabulary through reading has long been studied, both by the implicit learning and the explicit learning perspectives (see Laufer 2017b, for a complete account). As Ellis (2008) suggests, implicit language learning happens when the learner is not attentive to input data, so learning occurs incidentally as a result of seeking for meaning. In addition to that, Ellis (2009) defines implicit learning as happening without either intentionality or awareness. Explicit learning, in contrast, is a conscious and intentional process (Ellis, 2008, 2009), usually as a result of instruction. In the area of second language vocabulary acquisition, there is a consensus that both implicit and explicit vocabulary learning are necessary and complementary (Laufer, 2017a; Schmitt, 2000).

Before describing how vocabulary can be acquired implicitly and explicitly, it is relevant to mention that the importance of vocabulary for reading has been shown in regards to the amplitude of vocabulary necessary for comprehension. In other words, how much vocabulary is necessary for comprehension? Nation (2006) estimated 98% as the ideal coverage. With this figure in mind, what is the best way to learn new words, explicitly or implicitly? As Laufer (2017a) has noted, there has been “a heated debate between the advocates of ‘vocabulary-through-input’ position and the proponents of word-focused instruction” (p. 5). The ‘vocabulary-through-input’ group believes that reading large amounts of material in English – extensive reading¹² - is sufficient for vocabulary acquisition, while the word-focused group defends that instruction is

¹² Extensive reading is understood as reading for general comprehension large amounts of material chosen by the reader her/himself (Aebersold & Field, 1997).

paramount, since it would be unrealistic “to read about a million words per year”¹³ (Laufer, 2017a, p. 6)¹⁴. Again, both approaches seem necessary for vocabulary acquisition (Elgort & Warren, 2014; Laufer, 2017a; 2017b; Schmitt, 2000).

In fact, Laufer (2017b) endorses that there must be a combination of three factors for second language vocabulary acquisition to happen: input, instruction and involvement – the three ‘I’s of vocabulary learning. For Laufer (2017b), language input is the first factor for vocabulary acquisition. Regarding reading input, it must provide several encounters with the words to guarantee that the learner knows 98% of the vocabulary in the text. This figure is somewhat relevant, as Laufer (2003) has supported, since learners who know less than 98% of the words of a given text may have difficulties in inferring the meaning of new words from context (see Laufer 2003, for her counter arguments of the assumption that L2 learners can infer the meaning of unknown words by context).

The second factor for vocabulary acquisition is instruction. The author argues that any type of word-focused instruction, regardless of its nature¹⁵ is effective. According to the author, word-focused instruction directs learners to attend to the “word itself, whether in a larger communicative context, or in artificial minimal context, or in isolation” (Laufer, 2017b, p.16). The next section is entirely dedicated to explaining instruction for vocabulary acquisition.

The third factor posed by Laufer (2017b) is involvement. According to the Involvement Load Hypothesis, retention of words is conditional upon *need*, *search* and *evaluation* (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). Need, in particular, refers to the idea of needing to achieve. For instance, when facing an important yet unknown word for text comprehension, the reader may feel the need to look up the meaning of the word in a dictionary (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). Search,

¹³ In order for L2 learners to read around a million words per year, they would have to meet the new words for 12 times in extensive reading for acquisition to happen, as research has suggested (Laufer, 2017a).

¹⁴ Cobb (2016) explains that this figure is feasible for first language learners; however, second language learners might not have contact with this amount of words in a year of extensive reading.

¹⁵ The author claims that all types of word-focused learning, communicative and non-communicative, incidental and intentional, are effective.

therefore, is the action of looking up the unknown word in the dictionary. As the learner consults the word meaning in the dictionary, s/he may find several meanings, so s/he may have to evaluate which meaning is suitable for the given context (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). In a paper of the same year, Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) go on explaining that each of the three factors (need, search and evaluation) may be present or not when learners process vocabulary, be it in a natural or artificially designed task. It is, therefore, “the combination of factors with their degrees of prominence that constitute the involvement load” (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001, p. 544). Having approached such issues, the next section presents the distinction of focusing on form or forms for vocabulary acquisition.

2.2.3. Vocabulary acquisition: should teachers/learners focus on form or focus on forms?

Borrowing the constructs Focus on Form (FonF)¹⁶ and Focus on FormS (FonFs)¹⁷ from grammatical studies (Long, 1991 as cited by Laufer, 2005, p.224), Laufer has suggested that these constructs should be incorporated to L2 vocabulary acquisition (see Long, 1991; and Ellis, 2012, for a complete account on form-focused instruction). Laufer (2005) uses the construct form-focused instruction interchangeably with word-focused instruction, dividing it into FonF on FonFs. According to Laufer and Rozovski-Roitblat (2015), “FonF is a teaching approach that requires the learners to attend to words in order to complete an authentic communicative task” (p. 4). In a reading lesson, for example, looking up words in a dictionary or glossary, and negotiating word meaning in order to

¹⁶ Focus on Form (FonF) was defined as an “approach that involves an attempt to induce incidental acquisition through instruction by drawing learners’ attention to linguistic forms while they are communicating” (Ellis, 2012, p. 272).

¹⁷ Focus on Forms (FonFs), in contrast, refers to the traditional approach of teaching linguistic structures, (Long, 1991), and as Ellis (2012) pointed out, “the primary goal is to help learners master the structural features listed in the syllabus by making the linguistic target of each lesson quite explicit (p. 272).

comprehend the text are examples of FonF in second language vocabulary learning (Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015). FonFs, on the other hand, decontextualizes the words and requires learners to perform vocabulary activities as an object of study (Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015). In order to illustrate such categorization, a diagram based on Laufer and Rozovski-Roitblat (2015) is offered:

- **Figure 3. Diagram on word-focused instruction (FonF – FonFs)**

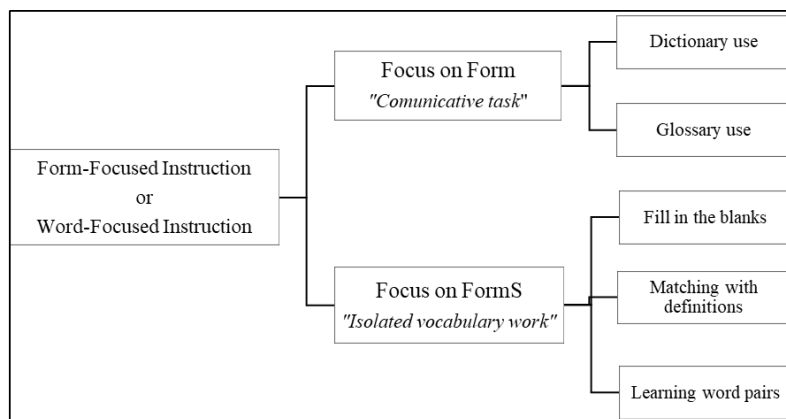


Figure 3. Diagram on word-focused instruction. Focus on Form (FonF) means that learners must deal with new words in order to achieve a communicative goal (in a given communicative task), while Focus on Forms (FonFs) refers to dealing with new words in an isolated manner. Diagram built based on Laufer, B. & Rozovski-Roitblat, B. (2015). Retention of new words: quantity of encounters, quality of task, and degree of knowledge. *Language Teaching Research*, 19 (6), 1-25.

In fact, there is some empirical evidence for the effectiveness of the word-focused approach. Let us begin by showing the evidence from FonF tasks, that is to say, tasks that require some attention to words to reach a communicative task. For instance, dictionary search is a FonF task (Laufer, 2017b). When comparing vocabulary acquisition in two conditions, reading only and reading with attention to unknown words, participants who engaged in

reading with attention to new words acquired more words than those in the reading only condition (Chen, 2011; Knight, 1994; Laufer & Hill, 2000; Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat 2015; Luppescu & Day, 1993; Shen, 2013; Yoshii, 2006). Luppescu and Day (1993) demonstrated that participants who used bilingual dictionaries during reading outperformed those who did not use a dictionary. Hulstijn et al. (1996) found that the effect of marginal glosses was greater than looking up words in a dictionary, but when participants did use the dictionary, learning was as good as or even better than with the marginal glosses.

Actually, when comparing participants resorting to either L1 or L2 glossaries while reading, results from research show that both are effective for vocabulary acquisition (Yoshii, 2006). Laufer and Hill (2000) showed that using the dictionary can have a positive effect on vocabulary learning. Chen (2011) compared the use of a bilingual dictionary with guessing the words from context in a reading situation, and found that the former is more effective than the latter. Interestingly, the author explains that “students having access to good dictionaries will be much more likely to achieve successful word comprehension than those who simply rely on contextual guessing” (Chen, 2011, p.242). The results of a study carried out by Shen (2013) demonstrates that “the access to a bilingual electronic dictionary has a significant effect on the reading scores for both high proficiency group and low proficiency group” (p. 77), of their study. Last, in comparing participants in the reading only condition and reading with a dictionary, the latter condition generated better results (Knight, 1994; Laufer and Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015).

As for FonFs, “which involves decontextualized practice of linguistic items” (Laufer, 2017b)¹⁸, research has shown an advantage of the work with isolated words, despite the critiques of many language teachers, due to their old-fashioned and artificial nature (Laufer, 2017b). In order to verify what type of activity is better for vocabulary acquisition, Laufer (2003) reported three experiments, which are summarized in Table 1 below:

¹⁸ As Laufer kindly provided access to this article in a doc format, the page number does not correspond to the one published in the *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*.

Table 1. Summary of the experiments carried out by Laufer (2003), containing the types of tasks and results.

EXPERIMENT 1	EXPERIMENT 2	EXPERIMENT 3
Condition 1: reading comprehension + marginal glosses + 10 multiple-choice comprehension questions.	Condition 1: reading comprehension + marginal glosses + 10 multiple-choice comprehension questions.	Condition 1: reading and looking up words in a bilingual dictionary. Condition 2: writing sentences with the target words.
Condition 2: writing original sentences with the target words, but without the text.	Condition 2: composition writing using the target words (no text available).	Condition 3: completing sentences with the target words after consulting their meaning.
Results: The sentence-writing group outperformed the reading group.	Results: The ‘composition group’ remembered more words than the reading group.	Results: The ‘reading’ group recalled the least words; while the ‘sentence completion’ group recalled the most words.

Table 1 - Summary from: Laufer, B. (2003). Vocabulary Acquisition in a Second Language: do learners really acquire most vocabulary by Reading? Some empirical evidence. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59 (2), 567-588.

The results from the three experiments summarized in Table 1 show that word-focused activities, in special, FonFs may be more effective for vocabulary acquisition. Similar results can be observed in a piece of research carried by Augustín-Llach (2009) with German participants, which had Spanish as a foreign language. Three different conditions were tested: a) reading only; b) reading with glossary and comprehension questions; c) sentence writing group. Results showed that participants who engaged in sentence writing remembered more words after three weeks, while the reading only condition was the least effective method for word recall (Augustín-Llach, 2009).

A recent study carried out by Rassaei (2017) has investigated the effects of: a) summarizing the texts (two narratives)

and using the target vocabulary in the summary; b) elaborating comprehension questions and using the target words to answer the same questions; and c) using the target vocabulary to make predictions of the texts (predicting as a pre-reading activity). The results support the FonFs approach, meaning that the three conditions resulted in vocabulary learning. In addition to that, making predictions and elaborating/answering questions have been shown to be more effective than summarizing (Rassaei, 2017).

All of these results are somehow in consonance with the Involvement Load Hypothesis, which posits that vocabulary acquisition is conditional upon the degree of involvement in processing these words (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). One of the assumptions is that “words which are processed with higher involvement load will be retained better than words which are processed with lower involvement load” (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001, p. 15). In fact, the origins of such claim come from Craig and Lockhart’s depth of processing hypothesis, which posited that memory traces persisted as a result of the depth of processing (deep or shallow). In other words, deeper levels are associated with “more elaborate, longer lasting, and stronger memory traces” (Craig & Lockhart, 1972, p. 675). However, the depth of processing hypothesis had some limitations, such “what constitutes a level of processing?” and “how do we know that one level is deeper than another?” as presented by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001, p.5). Despite these limitations, the authors examined that many memory researchers agree that:

processing new lexical information more elaborately (e.g. paying careful attention to the word’s pronunciation, orthography, grammatical category, meaning, and semantic relations to other words) will lead to higher retention than by processing new lexical information less elaborately (e.g. paying attention to only one or two of these dimensions) (p. 6).

Considering the importance of the depth of processing suggested by Craig and Lockhart (1972), Laufer and Hulstijn felt the need to operationalize such construct to L2 vocabulary learning, resulting in the Involvement Load Hypothesis for L2 vocabulary learning (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). According to them, the

Involvement Load Hypothesis consists of three components: *need*, *search*, and *evaluation*. The first one consists in the *need* learners might have to use the new word. The second consists in *searching* word meanings or finding the L2 word form to express a concept. The third consists in *evaluating* whether the word meaning fits the context where it appears (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). The authors present a Table (Table 2) depicting how different tasks demand different loads of involvement. A minus (-) indicates that there is lack of involvement, while a plus (+) indicates a moderate version of the factor, and a double plus (++) indicates a strong involvement.

Table 2. Task-induced involvement load.

TASK	STATUS OF TARGET WORD	NEED	SEARCH	EVALUATION
1. Reading and comprehension questions	Glossed in the text but irrelevant to the task	-	-	-
2. Reading and comprehension questions	Glossed in the text and relevant to the task	+	-	-
3. Reading and comprehension questions	Not glossed but relevant to the task	+	+	-/+ depending on the word/context
4. Reading and comprehension questions and filling gaps	Relevant to reading comprehension. Listed with glosses at the end of the text.	+	-	+
5. Writing original sentences	Listed with glosses	+	-	++
6. Writing a composition	Concepts selected by the teacher and learner has to look the L2 form	+	+	++
7. Writing a composition	Concepts selected and	++	+	++

looked up by
the learner

Adapted from: Laufer, B. & Hulstijn, J. (2001). Incidental vocabulary acquisition in a second language: the construct of task-induced involvement. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(1), 1-26.

In order to investigate the claim that tasks with higher involvement load are more effective than tasks with lower involvement load, Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) carried out two experiments with young adults EFL learners in Israel and the Netherlands. For the study, the authors chose ten low-frequency words, since they “investigated learners’ retention of the meaning of these words, that is, receptive knowledge only” (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001, p. 545). Three tasks with different involvement loads (see Table 2) were used: (1) reading comprehension with marginal glosses; (2) reading comprehension plus “fill in”; and (3) writing a composition and incorporating the target words. Overall, 186 participants performed both the immediate and delayed post-test (87 in the Netherlands and 99 in Israel).

The results of Hulstijn and Laufer’s study (2001) show that the composition task yielded better retention, followed by lower scores in the reading comprehension plus ‘fill in’ and lowest in reading comprehension with marginal glosses. To be more precise, “the hypothesis that words that are processed with higher involvement load will be retained better than words that are processed with lower involvement load” (p. 552) was fully supported in the experiment conducted with the Israeli learners, and partially supported in the experiment conducted with the Dutch learners.

A recent study (Zou, 2017) also investigated the involvement load hypothesis. The researcher examined the differences among three different tasks (cloze exercises, sentence-writing, and composition-writing), aiming to investigate the evaluation¹⁹ component of the involvement load hypothesis. According to the author, the results have shown that both writing tasks seem to be more effective than cloze-exercises. Moreover, the

¹⁹ Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) explain that “evaluation entails a comparison of a given word with other words, a specific meaning of a word with its other meanings, or combining the word with other words in order to assess whether a word does or does not fit its context” (p.14).

results partially supported the involvement load hypothesis, since composition-writing had a statistically significant difference when compared to sentence-writing, despite the fact that both have the same load (++ strong evaluation).

In the next section, some features that should be taken into consideration when designing a vocabulary activity are highlighted.

2.2.4. Vocabulary instruction: features to be considered in a vocabulary activity

This section is dedicated to some themes that the literature on vocabulary acquisition has repeatedly focused on: a) building a large sight vocabulary; b) providing a number of encounters with the words; c) promoting a deep level of processing. It is also relevant to mention that the topics are based on Sökmen's (1997) chapter on 'current trends in teaching second language vocabulary'.²⁰

Building a large sight vocabulary is an important feature so that learners can access word meanings automatically (Sökmen, 1997), despite the issue of which words should be taught. Nation (2001) and Sökmen (1997) agree that learning the 2,000 most frequent words can be productive, since "almost 80% of the running words in the text are high-frequency words", as Nation (2001, p.11) reports. Besides, he argues that due to their importance for reading, teachers and learners should consider teaching/learning the most frequent words (Nation, 2001).

Alongside frequent words, Sökmen (1997) emphasizes the importance of teaching/learning false cognates²¹, especially due to the confusion these words may cause (Laufer, 1990). The reason false cognates can pose a problem and deserve considerable attention to teaching/learning relies on the fact that "words of the L2 which look or sound like L1 words will automatically activate the lexical entries of those words" (Carroll, 1992, p.107). Moreover, some authors have agreed that these problems can be minimized by teachers. Laufer (1990) observes that by "knowing the

²⁰ Sökmen's (1997) chapter can be found in the book 'Vocabulary: description, acquisition and pedagogy', organized by Schmitt and McCarthy (1997).

²¹ Frantzen (1998) explains that false cognates are words with similar or identical form in two languages but with different meanings.

problematicity of the deceptively transparent words, teachers may warn learners not to rely on word morphology too much and not to draw conclusions about the sentence meanings on the basis of the sum of meanings of the individual words” (p.154). Frantzen (1998) argues that teachers and textbooks can diminish the learning burden.²²

Besides focusing on highly frequent words and false cognates, the number of encounters with a word is crucial to its memorization. Researchers have agreed that encountering a word from six to more than twenty times might be needed “to retain some kind of word knowledge” (Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015, p.3).²³ Nation (2001) explains that “a word may be noticed and its meaning comprehended in the textual input to the task if that word is subsequently retrieved during the task then the memory of that word will be strengthened” (p.66-67). In other words, the act of recalling a word allows its retention in memory, as Baddeley (1990) asserts. What contributes to learning, according to Baddeley (1999), is the process of looking for and retrieving items. In addition to encountering the words, research has shown that a spacing effect is needed. In other words, “longer gaps tend to result in longer retention than shorter gaps” (Ullman & Lovelett, 2016, p. 8). Spacing repetition, or the spacing effect, consists of repeating the same items with intervening temporal gaps, which results in better retention in comparison to shorter gaps (see Ullman & Lovelett, 2016; Cepeda et al. 2006; and Cepeda et al., 2008, for a complete account on the spacing effect).

Another key aspect of learning words has to do with how the words were encoded in the first place. As Baddeley explains it, “the method of retrieval depends on how the material is encoded during learning” (p.156). Moreover, Craig and Lockhart (1972) posit that the memory trace for learning is a function of the depth of processing. According to them, “after the stimulus has been recognized, it may undergo further processing by enrichment or elaboration” (Craig & Lockhart, 1972, p.675). This means that after word recognition, the learners’ schemata of that particular word may

²² Learning burden refers to the amount of effort needed to learn a word (see Nation 2001 for a complete account).

²³ See Laufer and Rozovski-Roitblat (2015) for a complete review of studies on the number of encounter with a word.

be activated, resulting in a memory trace. Craig and Lockhart (1972) explain that “trace persistence is a function of depth of analysis, with deeper levels of analysis associated with more elaborate, longer lasting, and stronger traces” (p.675). In other words, the more elaborative the vocabulary activity, the more probable the words will be retained, especially when they have to relate to their own experiences of the world (Sökmen, 1997).

In fact, considering the importance of the depth of processing (Craig & Lockhart, 1972), the Involvement Load Hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001) is an attempt to operationalize terms such as “what constitutes a level of processing, and how do we know that one level is deeper than another?” (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001, p.541). According to Hulstijn and Laufer (2001), “words that are processed with a higher involvement load will be retained better than words that are processed with lower involvement load” (p.552). In sum, researchers have agreed that processing new vocabulary more elaborately may lead to higher retention than processing new vocabulary in a less elaborate manner (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Laufer 2017b; Baddeley, 1990; Anderson, 1995).

Integrating recently learned words with the previous known ones is also time well spent. Sökmen (1997) explains that by the lexico-semantic theory, which posits that “humans acquire words first and then, as the number of words increases, the mind is forced to set up systems which keep the words well organized for retrieval” (Lado, 1990 as cited in Sökmen, 1997, p.241). Since “words seem to be organized in semantic fields, and within these fields there are strong bonds” (Aitchison, 1987, p. 192), instruction and/or vocabulary activities must play a role in helping establishing these links in order for learners to build up the associations with the already known words (Sökmen, 1997). Two examples of activities to draw on background knowledge are semantic mapping and charting semantic features. According to Sökmen (1992), “word maps show us graphically how words are related” (p.11). She suggests that teachers arrange all the words on the board and let the learners organize them in a map. See the example below, considering the word ‘shy’ as the key word:

▪ **Figure 4. Word Map**

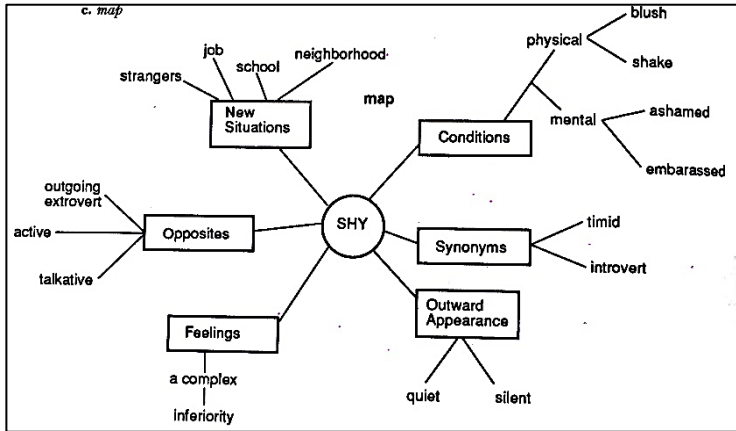


Figure 4. Word map with the entry *shy* as the key word. The figure shows the possible words that a learner came up with from the word *shy*.

Reprinted from: Sökmen, A. (1992). *Common Threads: an interactive vocabulary builder*. New Jersey: Prentice Halls Regents.

Sökmen (1997) also suggests that building up a chart of the semantic features helps learners establishing links among words. In the example given below, by Channell (1981), the learner is asked to complete the chart with pluses and minuses as a way of distinguishing the meaning features, in this case 'being surprised':

▪ **Figure 5. Semantic Feature Analysis**

<i>Being Surprised</i>					
	affect with wonder	because unexpected	because difficult to believe	so as to cause confusion	so as to leave one helpless to act or think
surprise	+	+			
astonish	+		+		
amaze	+			+	
astound	+				+
flabbergast	+				+

Figure 5. Semantic Feature Analysis for *being surprised*. The plus (+) refers to the presence of that meaning.

Reprinted from: Channell, J. (1981). Applying Semantic Theory to Vocabulary Teaching. *ELTJ*, 35(2), 115-122.

In sum, building a large sight vocabulary to facilitate word recall is necessary, as well as providing a number of encounters with the words for word retention, bearing in mind the figure of six to more than twenty encounters (Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015) with spaced repetition (Anderson, 2000; Ullman & Lovelett, 2016). Equally important, teachers and textbooks should provide activities that promote a deep level of processing (Craig & Lockhart, 1972; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). Last, teachers and textbooks should provide activities that integrate new words with the old ones for facilitating word retrieval, such as the semantic elaboration activities suggested by Sökmen (1997).

Having approached the relevant literature for this piece of research, the next chapter describes the method to meet the purposes of this study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

This chapter contains a description of the method used to investigate vocabulary activities of EFL textbooks and their relationship (if any) with the reading section, besides professors' and students' perceptions of the relevance of vocabulary knowledge for reading comprehension. In order to do so, this chapter is divided into five sections, specifically, ethics review board, participants, instruments for data collection, procedures for data collection, and procedures for data analysis.

3.1. ETHICS REVIEW BOARD

In order to guarantee the compliance of Resolutions 466/12 and 510/16, before data collection this piece of research was submitted to the Ethics Review Board (*Comitê de Ética em Pesquisa com Seres Humanos da Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina - CEPESH-UFSC*) under the protocol number 69097417.3.0000.0121 from May 31, 2017. Its approval was issued on June 28, 2017 under the number 2.143.727.

3.2. PARTICIPANTS

As part of this piece of research goals, professors' and students' perceptions regarding the relevance of vocabulary knowledge for reading comprehension were raised. Since data collection took place on the first semester of 2017, professors who were teaching courses and students enrolled in those courses during that period were invited to take part in the study.

From ten professors, eight were invited²⁴ and five accepted to take part in the study. students from English Undergraduate Course from UFSC enrolled in the disciplines of Reading and Writing from the first, third and fifth semesters of the course were invited to take part in the study. From a total of 82 enrolled

²⁴ Professors with some sort of leave were not invited.

students²⁵, 30 participated. The average age of the participants was 24,8 years old. Next, the instruments used for collecting data will be explained.

3.3. INSTRUMENTS FOR DATA COLLECTION

In order to achieve the goal of investigating whether there is any relationship between vocabulary activities and the reading section, the EFL textbooks used in the English undergraduate course are detailed in the instruments for data collection, together with the framework elaborated for this analysis.

Concerning the professor's perceptions towards vocabulary instruction for reading lessons, single-session interviews, in English, were carried out. The interview followed a structured format in order to allow comparison among responses (Dörnyei, 2007). The first question of the interview asked the professors' opinion on the importance of vocabulary knowledge for L2 reading comprehension. The second question raised the professors' view on incidental vocabulary acquisition. The third question asked how professors deal with their students' lack of vocabulary knowledge. The fourth question addressed how vocabulary is approached in reading lessons. The fifth and also the last question raised professors' general preferences regarding vocabulary activities.

As for students' perceptions towards vocabulary learning for reading comprehension, a questionnaire containing three questions was applied. All of questions follow the close-ended type. Question one consists of a Likert scale (from 1 to 6) and it asked to what degree students find vocabulary relevant for reading comprehension. For questions two and three, participants are able to select more than one answer. In case none of the answers apply, a clarification question was added (see Dörnyei, 2007). Question two aimed at eliciting learners' actions towards unknown words, and question three raised learners' preferences on vocabulary activities. For a complete view on both the interview questions and the questionnaire, see Appendices C, D and E.

²⁵ It is important to mention that some students take a placement test and are dismissed of the courses, so the number of enrolled students does not reflect the actual number of students attending the classes.

3.3.1. The EFL Textbooks

One of the goals of this piece of research is to analyze the vocabulary activities of EFL textbooks used in the English undergraduate course of the Federal University of Santa Catarina, Brazil. Therefore, we have decided to analyze the textbooks that were designated to be used in the courses of reading and writing, as stated by the course program available at the website (<http://www.lle.cce.ufsc.br/cursos/ingles/>). The courses offered by the university alongside the information on the textbooks are displayed in the chart below:

Table 3. English undergraduate program courses and textbook references – 2017.1

Courses offered in the first semester 2017	References
Reading and Writing ²⁶ I – 1 st Semester ²⁷	Haugnes, N. & Maher, B. (2009). <i>North Star: Focus on reading and writing level 2</i> . White Plains, NY: Pearson Education Inc.
Reading and Writing ²⁸ I – 1 st Semester (supplementary bibliography)	Richards, J.C., & Eckstut-Didier, S. (2012). <i>Strategic Reading I</i> . New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
Reading and Writing V – 5 th Semester	Harmer, J. & Lethaby, C. (2005). <i>Just: Reading and Writing</i> (Upper-Intermediate). London: Marshall Cavendish ELT.

The first textbook of the table above (henceforth textbook one) contains ten thematic units, from which three units were randomly chosen to be analyzed (units one, three, and seven). From the second textbook of Table 3 (henceforth textbook two) contains twelve units, from which units four and eight were randomly

²⁶ Our translation for *Compreensão e Produção Escrita*.

²⁷ Our translation for *Fase*.

²⁸ Our translation for *Compreensão e Produção Escrita*.

chosen²⁹. Last, the third textbook (henceforth textbook three), contains 14 units, each being subdivided into sections A, B, and C. Sections A and B focus on reading comprehension, while section C focuses on writing. For the purpose of this study, section C has been excluded from the analysis. Therefore, section A³⁰ of units four, six, and eight were randomly selected for the analysis.

3.3.2. Framework for textbook analysis

In order to analyze vocabulary activities of the EFL textbooks, a framework of analysis based on previous research on second language vocabulary acquisition was elaborated, already presented in the chapter of the review of literature, mainly Sökmen (1997), Laufer (1990; 2001; 2005; 2017a; 2017b), Laufer and Rozovski-Roitblat (2015), Laufer and Hulstijn (2001), Craig and Lockhart (1972), Baddeley (1999), and Frantzen (1998). The framework is displayed on Table 4.

Table 4. Framework for EFL textbook analysis.

1. The Reading section

1.1. How is the vocabulary presented in the reading section?

1.1.1. Are there marginal glosses?

1.1.2. Is there any suggestion of dictionary search?

2. The Vocabulary Activities

2.1. Are the activities focused on teaching:

2.1.1. High frequency words?

2.1.2. False cognates?

2.1.3. Words that are part of the main idea(s) of the text (s) in the reading section?

2.1.4. Words that are part of the secondary idea(s) of the text (s) in the reading section?

²⁹ It is important to mention that each unit of textbook two is subdivided into 3 parts, the reason only two units were selected.

³⁰ Due to space constraints, only one section was selected.

2.2. Do the books provide a number of encounters with the words?

- 2.2.1. Is there a variety of contexts so the learner can meet the words?
- 2.2.2. Is there a variety of vocabulary activities that allow a more accurate understanding of a word?
- 2.2.3. If the words appeared in the pre-reading task, are there opportunities to recall and use them in the post-reading task?

2.3. Do the activities promote a deep level of processing?

- 2.3.1. Are there any instructions directing readers to manipulate/elaborate on the words in different language contexts?
-

The first part of the framework (1. The reading section) focuses on showing how the vocabulary activities are presented, with special regards to how they are presented in the reading section. It aims at showing whether this presentation deals with dictionary and glossaries, whose importance for incidental learning comes from research from Laufer (2001; 2017a) and Laufer and Rozovski-Roitblat (2015).

The second part focuses on the vocabulary activities per se, and it is subdivided into four sections. Section 2.1 investigates whether words are highly-frequent ones, false cognates, and words that are essential for main and secondary ideas of the text, since Sökmen (1997) has suggested that highly-frequent words and false-cognates should be considered in a teaching lesson (see Chapter two for a complete review). Section 2.2 encompasses the number of encounters learners might have with the words, granted that providing a number of encounters with the words enhances the possibility of retention (Baddeley, 1999; Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015). Section 2.3 approaches depth of processing (Craig & Lockhart, 1972), later operationalized by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001).

3.3.3. Interviews with professors

Interviews with each of the five professors that agreed to participate in this study took place individually, in a quiet and reserved location. Some professors preferred to be interviewed in their own offices, others were interviewed in the data collection

room (*CCE-B*³¹, *PPGI*³², third floor) previously booked by the researcher and in a date and time agreed with each one of the professors. All data was collected at the *Centro de Comunicação e Expressão* of *Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina*, in Florianópolis, Brazil. The questions used in the structured interviewed are displayed in Appendix C.

3.3.4. Students' questionnaires

Differently from the professors, the undergraduate students answered a questionnaire on their perceptions of the importance of vocabulary knowledge for reading comprehension. The students from third and fifth semesters answered to the questionnaire handed out in English, as it is displayed in Appendix D. Since students of the first semester are thought to be beginners in English, the questionnaire was given out in Portuguese (available in Appendix E)³³.

The complete account on the studies that were used to elaborate the questionnaire is given in Chapter two, mainly Laufer (2001; 2017a; 2017b), Laufer and Hulstijn (2001), Hulstijn and Laufer (2001), Laufer and Rozovski-Roitblat (2015), Nation (2001), Rassaei (2017), and Zou (2017).

3.4. PROCEDURES FOR DATA COLLECTION

In order to invite professors to participate in the study, an e-mail explaining the goals of this piece of research as well as the instruments and procedures for data collection was sent to the professors enrolled in teaching reading and writing courses of the English undergraduate course of the first semester of 2017. As described previously, five out of eight professors accepted to be interviewed. After that, the researcher sent out the questions of the interview to each professor, and set a meeting for the interview. The goal of sending the questions was to familiarize the participants with

³¹ Short for *Centro de Comunicação e Expressão*.

³² Short for *Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês*.

³³ We did not control for proficiency, since it is out of the scope of this study.

the content of the study. Then, the consent form was left at each professor's pigeonhole. In fact, participants signed the consent form right before the interview. Each professor was interviewed individually. The researcher explained that he would be recording the talk for later transcription. The voice recorder of an iPhone 6 was used.

As for inviting the students, the researcher sent out an e-mail to the professors of the Reading and Writing courses also explaining the goals of the study. After the professors' consent, the instruments and procedures for data collection were explained, and the dates for collecting data were set. There were two encounters: on the first, the researcher went to the classroom to introduce himself, explain the goals, instruments and procedures for collecting data. On this day, the consent form was handed out to the students, who were explained that they could read it at home and decide whether they wanted to participate or not. Participation was voluntary; however, the researcher was able to provide 10-hour certificates for ACC – *Atividades Acadêmico-Científico-Culturais* – (see Appendix F). On the second encounter, the researcher obtained the consent form of the students who decided to participate, followed by the explanation of how the questionnaire should be answered. The certificates were left at each professors' pigeonhole to be delivered to each participant.

3.5. PROCEDURES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

This part of the chapter describes how data was analyzed in this piece of research. The first part details how the textbooks were analyzed, with a detailed account on each part of the framework for textbook analysis. The second and third parts approach how the interviews and questionnaires were analyzed.

3.5.1. Procedures for textbook analysis

The first part of the framework for textbook analysis, described previously in this chapter, approaches how vocabulary is presented in the reading section. Below, the first part of the framework is displayed.

Table 5. Part 1 of the framework for EFL textbook analysis.

1. The Reading section

1.1. How is the vocabulary presented in the reading section?

- 1.1.1. Are there marginal glosses?
 - 1.1.2. Is there any suggestion of dictionary search?
-

The second section of the framework is about what types of focus are given to the vocabulary activities, that is, whether they approach high-frequency words, false cognates, words that are relevant to main and secondary ideas of the text, as detailed below:

Table 6. Part 2.1 of the framework for EFL textbook analysis.

2. The Vocabulary Activities

2.1. Are the activities focused on teaching:

- 2.1.1. High frequency words?
 - 2.1.2. False cognates?
 - 2.1.3. Words that are part of the main idea(s) of the text (s) in the reading section?
 - 2.1.4. Words that are part of the secondary idea(s) of the text (s) in the reading section?
-

In order to verify the frequency of the words, the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) was used. However, to our knowledge, it seems difficult to judge the frequency of words just by the number of occurrences in corpora, so we have decided to use word family lists created from the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) in order to depict learners' vocabulary sizes (Nation, 2014). The rationale behind this choice relies on Nation's claim that looking at "the text coverage provided by successive frequency-ranked groups of words" (p.14) is the most usual way of investigating how many words are considered of high frequency (Nation, 2001). The author adds that "the 2,000-word level has been set as the most suitable limit for high frequency words" (p.14). With this in mind, the

BNC/COCA lists³⁴ with the 1st 1000 words and 2nd 1000 words will be used.

As for the false cognates, Frantzen (1998) explains that they are “words in two languages that are similar or identical in form but have different meanings” (p.243), so it seems reasonable to verify their similarity in form and difference in meaning as a criterion. Regarding main ideas, several authors support the lack of agreement on what the term ‘main ideas’ might refer to (see Tomitch, 2000; Torres, 2003 for a detailed account). Therefore, we have tried to review some key aspects of main idea identification in the literature in order to identify the main idea of each text of the reading units. According to Kintsch and Rawson (2005), in some texts, there is some sort of signaling device, “that explicitly indicate topical information” (p. 217). In others, readers usually believe that the main aspect(s) of the text is in the first paragraph, as the authors point out. According to Williams (1988, as cited in Torres, 2003), it is necessary to consider the text genre for establishing main idea(s), since it is generally specific to text genre. With this in mind, in order to verify what the main idea(s) of the text are, we have decided to look at each text in its own, paying attention to the aforementioned aspects, namely, (1) presence of a topic sentence; (2) whether the first paragraph contains the main idea(s); and (3) text genre. For the purpose of this piece of research (see Table 6), we have decided to adopt Cunningham and Moore’s (1986, as cited in Tomitch et al., 2008) definition of main idea: “The single sentence in a paragraph or passage which tells most completely what the paragraph or passage as a whole states or is about” (p.7). So, we depart from the premise that each paragraph has a main idea, and these ideas can be considered secondary ideas.

Topic 2.2 of our framework deals with the number of encounters with the words, as depicted in Table 7:

Table 7. Part 2.2 of the framework for EFL textbook analysis.

³⁴ “The BNC/COCA lists with all their family members come with the *Range* program. The following lists contain only the headwords of the 25,000-word families” (Nation, 2006, on the BNC/COCA headword lists).

2.2. Do the books provide a number of encounters with the words?

2.2.1. Is there a variety of contexts so the learner can meet the words?

2.2.2. Is there a variety of vocabulary activities that allow a more accurate understanding of a word?

2.2.3. If the words appear in the pre-reading task, are there opportunities to recall and use them in the post-reading task?

Research has estimated the figure ranging from six to more than twenty encounters with the words might be needed “to retain some kind of word knowledge”, as Laufer (2017a, p. 3) reviews. We do not expect, however, to find this figure on textbooks, since instruction does not account for all learning. Put another way, it would be unrealistic to assume that any textbook would approach a word from six to twenty times, since some sort of learning might happen incidentally. Therefore, we expect to find a variety of contexts and activities so the learner might have a deeper understanding of the word’s meaning (Sökmen, 1997), and that includes verifying whether the words approached in pre-reading activities are brought back in post-reading activities.

In order to do that, in textbooks 1 and 2 the section entitled *research topic* will be considered for several reasons. First, the authors of the first textbook present that one of the goals of the writing unit is to integrate vocabulary from reading to writing (Haugnes & Maher, 2009). Second, researchers agree that the nature of a post-reading activity is to bring learners’ knowledge of the topic together with the information of the text (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Tomitch, 2009a). Last, despite the fact that the research topic section is in the writing section, instead of being in the reading section, we have shown in Chapter two the effectiveness of reading plus writing. In order to raise the different contexts for encountering the words, we had access to the pdf file of the textbooks. By typing Ctrl + F and the wanted word, the number of times the words appeared in the textbook were counted and organized in tables.

The last part of the framework approaches which level of processing the words promote, whether a deep or shallow level of processing. The part of the framework which deals with such aspect is shown below:

Table 8. Part 2.3 of the framework for EFL textbook analysis.

2.3. Do the activities promote a deep level of processing?

2.3.1. Are there any instructions directing readers to manipulate/elaborate on the words in different language contexts?

In order to investigate the depth of processing of the vocabulary activities, we have decided to borrow the task-induced involvement load hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001)³⁵, for it is the operationalization of depth of processing hypothesis (Craig & Lockhart, 1972) for L2 vocabulary learning (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). As explained in Chapter two, the degree of involvement in processing novel words is determined by the *need* to understand a word for reading; *search* the correct meaning for a word; and *evaluating* whether a word fits the context. The presence and/or absence of these three components (*need*, *search* and *evaluation*) determine the involvement load (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001), considering that activities with “higher involvement loads are more effective than those with lower loads” (Zou, 2017, p. 55). Therefore, Table 2 (displayed in Chapter two) will be used to determine the task-induced involvement load of the activities from this study.

3.5.2. Procedures for analyzing the interviews

The first step for analyzing the interviews is transcribing the audio recordings into textual information. All the interviews were fully transcribed, eliminating imperfect speech³⁶. Dörnyei (2007)

³⁵ Some issues regarding depth of processing have been raised in the literature, such as “what exactly constitutes a level of processing and how do we know that one level is deeper than another?” (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001, p. 540). Later, Lockhart and Craig (1978, as cited in Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001, p. 541) acknowledged a lack of an operational definition and claimed that more research was needed. Therefore, Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) operationalized the constructs by proposing the task-induced involvement load, as shown in Chapter two, Table two.

³⁶ Imperfect speech consists of false starts, word repetition, stammering, or language mistakes (Dörnyei, 2007). This piece of research is concerned with the content of the interviews, not language use, meaning that, discourse/conversational analysis is beyond the scope of this study.

points out that there is no perfect script for transcribing interviews, however, the author discusses that it might “be appropriate to invent individualized transcription rules and formats that fit our research purpose” (p.248). Therefore, the informants’ full account is given, since the research question approaches professors’ perceptions towards vocabulary for reading. As for the last question of the interview results were grouped according to the responses as a way of depicting their general preferences for vocabulary activities. Next, we turn to the procedures for analyzing the questionnaires.

3.5.3. Procedures for analyzing the questionnaires

The procedures for analyzing the questionnaires consisted of grouping participants’ answers as a way of obtaining an overview of their perceptions. For instance, for question one (what is the importance of vocabulary for reading in English?), participants were given the following options: *not important at all; not very important; somewhat important; important; very important; and extremely important*. Therefore, the results were organized in a graph showing the percentage of responses given by participants. For questions two and three, more than one answer was possible, therefore, the results were grouped according to the responses and the number of answers for those responses, then transformed into percentages. Having presented the method developed to carry out this study, the chapter Results and Discussion are explored next.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following chapter is devoted to presenting and discussing the results obtained in this study. It is divided into three main sections, to mention 1) EFL textbook analysis and 2) undergraduate professors' and 3) students' perceptions. We depart from the textbook analysis.

4.1. EFL TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS

This section is aimed at reporting the results of the qualitative analysis of the textbooks listed in the programs of the reading and writing disciplines (1st, 3rd and 5th semesters) of the English undergraduate course *at the Federal University of Santa Catarina*. The section is divided into three main subsections, a) on textbook one; b) on textbook two; and c) on textbook three. It is important to point out that each subsection has been divided according to the units that were analyzed for this piece of research. Last, the research questions are answered in the subsection entitled conclusions on textbook analysis.

4.1.1. On textbook one

The first textbook analyzed is *North Star: Reading and Writing*, level two, written by Natasha Haugnes and Beth Maher, published by Pearson Education Inc., 2009. The pattern of organization of the textbook is shown in the table below:

Table 9. Organization of Textbook one.

1. Focus on the topic	
1.1. Predicting	
1.2. Sharing Information	
1.3. Preparing to read	
1.3.1. Background	
1.3.2. Vocabulary for comprehension	
2. Focus on reading	
1.1. Reading One	
1.1.1. Reading for main ideas	
1.1.2. Reading for details	

-
- 1.1.3. Reacting to reading
 - 1.2. Reading Two
 - 1.3. Linking Readings One and Two
 - 2. Focus on Vocabulary**
 - 3. Focus on Writing**
 - 3.1. Style
 - 3.2. Grammar
 - 3.3. Writing Topics
 - 3.4. Research Topic
-

The sections of the *NorthStar* series will be briefly described, since they will be mentioned throughout the analysis. Every unit starts with *focus on topic*, a section dedicated for brainstorming the content of the unit and pre-teaching target vocabulary for reading. Next, in *focus on reading*, learners are presented to *reading one*, which is the first text in the unit. According to the authors, “in levels 1 to 3, readings are based on authentic materials” (p. vii). After *reading one*, learners are directed to comprehension questions, which are subdivided into *read for main ideas* and *read for details*. Moreover, learners might have the opportunity to *read between the lines* (make inferences) and express their opinions on the section entitled *reacting to reading* (Haugnes & Maher, 2009).

Moving to *reading two*, the textbook provides an opportunity for readers to read about the same topic but in a text of a different genre. According to Haugnes and Maher (2009), “this second reading is followed by an activity that challenges students to question ideas they formed about the first reading, and to use appropriate language skills to analyze and explain their ideas” (p. viii). Interestingly, the section *integrate readings one and two* encourages learners to organize and summarize information from both readings. Equally important is the section *focus on writing*, which always reviews vocabulary approached in the beginning of the unit. This section also presents a grammar topic, which according to the authors, also reviews vocabulary in order to ensure multiple encounters. Last, there is the writing section, which “presents a challenging and imaginative writing task that directs students to integrate the content, vocabulary, and grammar from the unit” (Haugnes & Maher, 2009, p x). As alternative resources, teachers can expand the topics of the units by promoting *alternative writing*

topics and *research topics*, as suggested by the authors. Let us now move to the analysis of the aforementioned textbooks.

4.1.1.1. Textbook one – Unit 1

Unit one is entitled “finding the ideal job”, which in fact, is the title of the first text (Appendix J). The topic of the unit is presented with a cartoon of a young man thinking about his possibilities for future career, followed by some questions for learners to express their opinions on jobs. After that, the target vocabulary is introduced as a glossary-like format, as shown in Figure 6.

▪ **Figure 6. Vocabulary for comprehension in unit 1.**

C BACKGROUND AND VOCABULARY

Read the list of words and their definitions.

ads: advertisements to sell things or to find new workers

careers: the kinds of work people do, usually after learning how and usually for a long time

hire: to give someone a job

ideal: perfect

interviews: meetings where a person looking for a job talks to the person who is looking for a new worker

managers: people who direct and organize groups of workers in a company

out of work: without a job

postings: ads or comments on the Internet

résumés: written descriptions of people's education and previous jobs

rewards: good things you get in return for work (such as money or health insurance)

skills: things that you can do well; abilities that you have learned and practiced

specific: detailed and exact; not general

Figure 6 – Vocabulary for comprehension in unit 1

Reprinted from: Haugnes, N. & Maher, B. (2009). *North Star: Focus on reading and writing level 2*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education Inc.

As mentioned, this vocabulary is used throughout the unit. The target words³⁷ are (1) *ads*, (2) *careers*, (3) *hire*, (4) *ideal*, (5) *interviews*, (6) *managers*, (7) *out of work*, (8) *postings*, (9) *résumés*, (10) *rewards*, (11) *skills*, and (12) *specific*. Initially, learners are instructed to read the words with their definitions, but for no specific purpose. After that, they are instructed to read the list of words with their definitions to complete a newspaper article (on American workers and companies, see Figure 7).

³⁷ Despite the fact that the target words are not called as such by the textbook authors, we have decided to call them this way so the reader would know these words are approached in the reading unit.

▪ **Figure 7. Vocabulary activity unit 2**

Now use the words from the list to complete this newspaper article about American workers and companies.

In 2005, only five percent of Americans were out of work **1.** That sounds like good news. But is it?

According to a 2005 survey, only 20 percent of American workers really love their jobs. Another 20 percent want to change jobs. This is a problem for workers, and it is also a problem for companies. Thirty-three percent of **2.** say that they don't care what happens to their companies—and those are the people who are supposed to be in charge!

What do workers want? Usually we think that everyone wants more money, but today's workers are looking for other **3.** They want health insurance and more vacation. They also want to know that they will learn new **4.** at a job. Older workers are usually happier with their jobs than younger workers. This is probably because they have had time to think about their **5.** and find a job they like.

Many companies today try to make changes to keep workers happy. They ask their workers **6.** questions about what makes them really happy at work. If a worker loves his job, he will work harder and stay at the company. If workers leave, companies have to **7.** new people. And that takes a lot of time. They have to write **8.** and put **9.** on the Internet. They have to read hundreds of **10.** They have to do **11.** to meet people who want to work there. And even after all that work, they might not find the **12.** new worker.

Figure 7 – Vocabulary activity unit 2

Reprinted from: Haugnes, N. & Maher, B. (2009). *North Star: Focus on reading and writing level 2*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education Inc.

A possible advantage of having the words glossed is that learners might recur to them while reading the texts and/or whenever necessary, considering that research has shown the advantage of using glossaries while reading (Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015; Procópio & Ribeiro, 2016; Yoshii, 2016).

Results from the word frequency search performed on the target words have shown that five words are considered highly-frequent, to say *career*, *hire*, *interview*, *skill*, and *specific* (for results of word frequency, see Table X1, in Appendix X). In relation to false cognates, the only one approached in the lesson is *résumé*, even though the possible reason it is dealt with in the lesson is due to being related to the topic of the lesson. The remaining words, on the other hand, are directly connected to the main idea (text available in Appendix J), to mention, *careers*, *ideal*, *out of work*, and *résumés*. In other words, let us suppose that a person is *out of work* looking for the *ideal job*: what would this person do? Send some *résumés*. Some words are purposefully in italics in order to demonstrate how these key words help establishing the main idea of the text.

As for secondary ideas of the text (summarized in Appendix X, Table X2), knowledge of the phrases³⁸ *out of work*, *hate/job*, *satisfied with/career* and *looking for/job*, from the list of target words, are essential for building meaning from the first paragraph (see text in Appendix J). From these words, *out of work* and *career* were approached. For the second paragraph, the words *résumé*, *postings* and *ads* plus the glossed word *experts* seem to be enough, all of which were approached. The third paragraph brings the gist of the text, so it is not considered here as a secondary idea. The fourth paragraph makes use of the words *rewards*, *skills* and *job setting* to elaborate on the steps needed to find the ideal job. From the three words approached, only *job setting* is not clear what it is about. However, as the reader progresses, s/he might infer the meaning by context, since more clues are given by the questions “How much money do you need? How much money do you want? What else do you want from a job? What makes you feel good about a job?” (Haugnes & Maher, 2009, p.5). As it can be observed in the text (available in Appendix J), the words in bold in the fifth

³⁸ By phrases, we refer to “a group of words which have a particular meaning when used together” (Oxford Advanced Learners’ Dictionary, 2017).

paragraph might not help readers establish the main idea of this paragraph. The same happens with the remaining paragraphs, so the readers might have to use different strategies for building the mental representation of these paragraphs. In sum, from the seven paragraphs of reading one, four of them seem to have approached words that might help readers comprehending the text.

As mentioned in Chapter two, research has suggested the figure ranging from six to up to twenty encounters for word retention (Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015). Considering this figure, results from word occurrence along the textbook have shown that most of the words on the list of target words in Unit 1 range from six to up to twenty occurrences, to be more precise, nine out of twelve words respect this figure³⁹. It is also relevant to point the pattern for word repetition. The majority of the words seem to repeat only within the same lesson, since only four words, out of twelve, appear in different units. Research has shown that “longer gaps tend to result in longer retention than shorter gaps”, as reviewed by Ullman and Lovelett (2016, p. 8).

In relation to having a variety of activities that would allow a more accurate understanding of words, Table X3 in Appendix X summarizes the different contexts words appear. More importantly, all of the words presented in the pre-teaching activity are reviewed in the writing section, in a section entitled “vocabulary”, leading to the conclusion of the existence of a variety of activities that allow different uses of the target words. In fact, it has been mentioned that the authors of the textbook point out that “the vocabulary section leads students from reviewing the unit vocabulary, to practicing and expanding their use of it, and then working with it using it creatively in both this section and in the final writing task” (Haugnes & Maher, 2009, p. ix). Analyzing whether the words reappear in the post-reading section, it has been noticed that only four words reappear in the *research topic*. The word *career* appears six times, the words *ideal* and *manager* appear once, while the word with most occurrences was *interview*, totalizing ten encounters.

It is also proper to demonstrate how the authors of the textbooks decided to present and review already presented

³⁹ It is beyond the scope of this piece of research to investigate how many times the words were actually approached by teachers/students.

vocabulary. Activity A (Figure 8) is divided into three parts, review, expand and create. In the review part, learners are instructed to order the sentences according to the order of happening. After that, in the expand part learners are instructed to cross out the sentence that would change the meaning of the sentence. Last, in create, learners have to use some the words in order to complete an e-mail. The complete “focus on writing – vocabulary” is shown in figure 8 below.

▪ **Figure 8. Focus on writing – vocabulary – review part**

A VOCABULARY

REVIEW

Put the three sentences in each group in order. Write **1, 2, or 3** next to each sentence.

- a. 1 I saw a **posting** for an interesting job.
3 The company called and asked me to come in for an **interview**.
2 I sent my **résumé** to the company.
- b. ___ Mr. Fredericks went to school for more **training**.
 ___ Mr. Fredericks lost his job after a 20-year **career**.
 ___ Mr. Fredericks realized he needed new **skills** to find another job.
- c. ___ Myron **realized** that he needed to pay a higher **salary** because no one was interested.
 ___ Myron put **ads** in the paper and **postings** on the Internet for a new manager.
 ___ Myron's best **manager** quit.
- d. ___ John was looking for someone with **specific** skills in photographing food.
 ___ John **hired** Karen.
 ___ John met Karen, who is **ideal** because she made ads for restaurants.
- e. ___ Kelly quit because she wanted a job with different **rewards**.
 ___ Kelly is **running her own business**.
 ___ Kelly had a big **salary** at her last job, but she did not like the job.

Figure 8 – Focus on writing – section which reviews vocabulary previously presented.

Reprinted from: Haugnes, N. & Maher, B. (2009). *North Star: Focus on reading and writing level 2*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education Inc.

Regarding depth of processing revealed by the activity presented in Figure 7, it seems that learners may have to process

words in a deeper manner in order to carry out such activity. This result is suggested based on the task-induced involvement load hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). To be more precise, learners are instructed to complete the sentences with words from the list (in the pre-reading section). According to the task-induced involvement load hypothesis, reading and answering comprehension questions and filling gaps demand *moderate need, no search* and *moderate evaluation*. In other words, learners *need* to comprehend the words in order to (1) complete the vocabulary activity and (2) have a better comprehension of the text; however, *no search* is needed, since the words already have their definitions in the glossary; however, learners must *evaluate* which word is suitable for each context of this gap-filling vocabulary exercise. In sum, having *moderate need, no search* and *moderate evaluation* suggests that this activity has a high involvement load. In other words, this vocabulary activity promotes a deep level of processing, since learners have to understand the words in order to complete the sentence, and understand its role in the text.

4.1.1.2. Textbook one – Unit 3

Under the title “making money”, unit three approaches vocabulary for comprehension in a different fashion. The authors encourage readers to infer the meaning of the words by context, by claiming that learners might still understand the story despite the lack of word knowledge. After that, the authors suggest that learners answer two comprehension questions regarding the text with the missing words, so then, the learners may have access to the words. The approached words are (1) *bills*; (2) *fake*; (3) *counterfeiters* (4); *technologies*; (5) *scanners*; (6) *equipment*; (7) *ink*; (8) *illegal*; (9) *prevent* and (10) *completely*. The entire *background and vocabulary* is displayed in picture 9.

▪ **Figure 9. Vocabulary activity of unit 3 – Inferring by context**

1 Read the story. See if you can understand it even though some words are missing.

One day last year, some New York City sanitation workers were very surprised when they emptied a garbage can. Along with the banana peels and empty Coke cans, they found \$18 million in new _____ 1.

Who would throw out all that money? The workers felt that something was not right, so they called the United States Bureau of Engraving and Printing, the part of government that makes paper money. The Bureau employees said that the money looked real but that, in fact, it wasn't. It was _____ 2. —and not legal. The garbage must have belonged to _____ 3., people who make money that is not real. They use both old and new _____ 4., or ways to make money. For example, some make the money by using printing presses, big machines similar to those for making books or newspapers; others use _____ 5. and other computer _____ 6. These counterfeiters probably printed a lot of money and weren't happy with how it looked. Maybe the drawing wasn't good enough. Or maybe the _____ 7. was not exactly the right color. So they threw it all out.

The people at the Bureau of Engraving and Printing were mad. Copying money is _____ 8. Counterfeiters who get caught can go to prison for a long time. The people at the Bureau work very hard to _____ 9. people from making fake money.

The Bureau never caught these counterfeiters. Nobody knows if they were able to make another \$18 million that looked _____ 10. real.

Now answer the questions. Then discuss your answers with a classmate.

1. What did the New York City sanitation workers find?

2. Who threw out all that money?

- 2 Read the story again. Work with a partner. Use information in the story to guess the meaning of the missing words. Write your guesses on the lines.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

6. _____

7. _____

8. _____

9. _____

10. _____

Now read the story with the vocabulary words filled in.

One day last year, some New York City sanitation workers were very surprised when they emptied a garbage can. Along with the banana peels and empty Coke cans, they found \$18 million in new bills
1.

Who would throw out all that money? The workers felt that something was not right, so they called the United States Bureau of Engraving and Printing, the part of government that makes paper money. The Bureau employees said that the money looked real but that, in fact, it wasn't. It was fakes
2—and not legal. The garbage must have belonged to counterfeiters
3, people who make money that is not real. They use both old and new technologies
4, or ways to make money. For example,

some make the money by using printing presses similar to those for making books or newspapers; others use scanners⁵ and other computer equipment⁶. These counterfeiters probably printed a lot of money and weren't happy with how it looked. Maybe the drawing wasn't good enough. Or maybe the ink⁷ was not exactly the right color. So they threw it all out.

The people at the Bureau of Engraving and Printing were mad. Copying money is illegal⁸. Counterfeiters who get caught can go to prison for a long time. The people at the Bureau work very hard to prevent⁹ people from making fake money.

The Bureau never caught these counterfeiters. Nobody knows if they were able to make another \$18 million that looked completely¹⁰ real.

Work with the class. Make a list of the new vocabulary words. Together write one definition that seems best for each word.

Figure 9. Vocabulary activity of unit 3 – Inferring by context
 Reprinted from: Haugnes, N. & Maher, B. (2009). *North Star: Focus on reading and writing level 2*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education Inc.

Inferring word meaning using context is “the most important of all sources of vocabulary learning”, as endorsed by Nation (2001, p. 232). The author reasons that this strategy is highly used by native speakers, and it should also be for second language learners. In fact, Nation (2001) proposes some necessary conditions for learning to occur in a second language.

Firstly, he explains that in order for learners to correctly infer meaning of the words via context, they should know at least 95% of the running words of the text. Considering the context of the present activity (Figure 9), it is available at a textbook for basic/lower intermediate students, and depending on the proficiency level of students, this would be unrealistic.

Secondly, the guessed words need not be known by the reader (Nation, 2001). Textbook authors do not know the audience that will use their textbooks, so the alternative for this principle is that teachers adapt the lesson according to their audience. Even so, it might be difficult to measure how much of a word students know, especially if we consider the accounts brought in Chapter two, regarding what it means to know a word.

Thirdly, Nation (2001) adds that “learners should be given credit for guesses that are not 100% correct but which make a small but positive contribution to knowledge of the meaning of the word” (p.234). Again, this relates to what it means to know a word, and word knowledge will vary depending on the learner.

Last, a distinction must be made in regards to “guessing from natural contexts and deliberate learning with specially constructed or chosen contexts” (Nation, 2001, p.235). However, Nation does not elaborate why distinguishing between natural versus constructed contexts should be taken into account, leaving this issue unanswered, especially considering the aforementioned exercise (Figure 9), which was especially designed in order to supposedly develop readers’ strategy of guessing word meaning from context.

Overall, Nation (2001) concludes that “the findings from a few reasonably well conducted studies of guessing by non-native speakers have not shown large amounts of successful guessing and learning from guessing”⁴⁰ (p.236). In other words, it does not mean that the exercise from unit 3 was poorly designed and should be abandoned; in fact, it seems interesting to show students that inferring from context can be an interesting resource. What lacks in this activity are clear guidelines of how to guess from context.

Nation (2001) proposes a five-step inductive procedure for guessing words from context based on Clarke and Nation (1980, as cited in Nation, 2001)⁴¹, which should be useful for teaching learners

⁴⁰ See Nation (2001), for a complete review of the aforementioned studies.

⁴¹ Step 1: Decide on the part of speech of the unknown word. Step 2: Look at the immediate context of the word, simplifying it grammatically if necessary. Step 3: Look at the wider context of the word, that is the relationship with adjoining sentences or clauses. Step 4: Guess. Step 5: Check the guess. Is the guess the same part of speech as the unknown word? Substitute the guess for the unknown word. Does it fit comfortably into the

how to infer in a proper manner. In fact, the view of providing students with strategies in order to build into a skill can be supported, bearing in mind that the constructs skill and strategy are “used to distinguish automatic processes from deliberately controlled processes” (Afflerbach, Pearson & Paris, 2008, p. 371).

As for the frequency of the vocabulary of this unit, results have suggested that, from the ten words approached in this unit, three can be considered high-frequency words, to mention, *technology*, *equipment*, and *prevent*. The word *prevent*, moreover, can be considered a false-cognate, for it in Portuguese resembles *prevenir*, and in this case, means “to stop something from happening” (Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries). Despite the fact that the word *counterfeit* is considered a low-frequency word, it is crucial to the understanding of the main idea of the text. In fact, the text entitled *making money* (Appendix K) explains how making money was easier in the past (counterfeiting money), and how technology nowadays has made it more difficult. Some words of the pre-reading are directly connected to the main idea. In fact, a summary of the text was elaborated in order to demonstrate the relevance of these target words, as it can be observed in italics: a \$50 *bill* could be put into a computer *scanner* to easily *counterfeit* money. Besides, the text explains how *technology* has allowed a color-changing *ink* to *prevent counterfeiters* from making *fake* money.

The target words of the unit appear in boldface in the text, as shown in appendices K and L. For paragraph one, two words appear in boldface: *bill* and *scanner*. Along with other non-target words, they seem to help readers understand paragraph one, which explains how easy it is to counterfeit money. In paragraph two, essential words appear in boldface: *equipment*, *technology* and *counterfeiter*. By essential, it is referred to their importance not only for conveying the main idea of the second paragraph, but also the main idea of the whole text. On the other hand, the same does not happen for paragraphs three and four, in which the target words are *fake* and *completely prevent*. These words do not seem to convey the main idea of the paragraph. For the fourth paragraph, there is no word in boldface. In paragraph five, the word *prevent* (first presented in paragraph three), as well as the word *ink* seem to be important

context? Break the unknown word into parts. Does the meaning of the parts support the guess? Look up the word in the dictionary (p.257).

here, as the paragraph states a color-changing ink is used in original money, therefore, making counterfeiting more difficult. Paragraph six has a detailed account on the paper and a sort of line that runs across the bill which can only be seen through an ultraviolet light. From the target words, only *bill* appears (four times), making this paragraph difficult to comprehend, due to its detailed account on methods used to make counterfeiting more difficult. Similarly, paragraph seven does not approach any target words.

Constructing main ideas from texts demands readers to draw inferences to connect the stream of information from the text (Gagné et al., 1993). As we have pointed out in Chapter two, building main ideas from text is a high-level component process, namely summarization (in inferential comprehension). Processing higher-level component processes demands more cognitive resources from readers, meaning that, comprehension at a lower-level has to be processed automatically to free cognitive resources for higher-level comprehension. Therefore, this means that comprehending vocabulary is a basic skill in order for the reader to build the mental representation necessary for understanding main ideas (Alptekin & Erçetin, 2009). As it has been mentioned, from the ten words in the pre-reading activity, eight of them can be used for getting the main idea of the text. As for secondary ideas of the text, readers might have problems in paragraphs four, six and seven, for none of the target words are reinstated in these paragraphs. A complete description of the number of occurrences of the target words along the textbook can be found in Table Y3, available in Appendix Y.

The words from this unit seem to respect what the relevant vocabulary literature has shown regarding the number of encounters with the words for memorization (from six to more than twenty, as presented by Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015). As mentioned previously, equally important is the spacing between word appearance, since longer gaps seem to benefit retention, as reviewed by Ullman and Cepeda (2016). Results have shown that from the ten target words approached in unit 3, eight might provide learners with several encounters within the lesson unit, meaning that the textbook design does not allow learners to have multiple encounters with spaced repetition, providing only shorter gaps with massive repetition. To be more precise, from the 57 times the word *bill* appears, 51 are in lesson 3, once in unit 6 and five times in unit 10. However, in unit 6, the word *bills* appears with a different meaning

from the one presented in unit 3. The same happens in unit 10, where the word *bills* means “a plan for a new law” (Haugnes & Maher, 2009, p.211). From the 35 occurrences of the word *fake*, 34 are in unit 3. The word *technology* appears only six times, being once in unit 2 and four times in unit 3. The words *counterfeiter*, *scanner*, *equipment*, and *ink* only appear in unit 3. Again, the lack of spaced repetition does not seem to help word retention. On the other hand, the words *illegal* and *prevent* seem to respect the spacing effect, for the former appears in units 3, 4, 6 and 8, and the latter appears in units 3, 4, 5 and 8. The word *completely*, however, only appeared five times (below the expected average of 6-20 encounters), being four times in the same unit, which does not seem to guarantee the spaced repetition necessary for memorization. Learners can benefit from the fact that some words are cognates (e.g. *technology*, *equipment* and *illegal*), despite the fewer opportunities for encountering them.

As it has been said before, the textbook has a very well-structured organization pattern. For instance, it has been pointed out that vocabulary presented before reading (in the *background and vocabulary* section) is reviewed in the writing section, as it is available in Appendix M). The first exercise, entitled *review*, contains two exercises. Exercise one presents some sentences containing antonyms of the target words, instructing learners to replace those phrases with the appropriate word. Exercise two, on the other hand, a cloze exercise, presents six sentences to fill in the blanks with the correct words. The second exercise, named *expand*, presents some other alternatives of counterfeiting, for instance, sneakers and CDs. After that, there is a conversation with the missing words and learners have to complete it. Last, under the title *create*, learners have to use as many the target words as they can to complete a conversation. However, initially, cloze exercises were used to measure readability of texts (Read, 2000). It was verified, therefore, that after completing the text (a conversation) learners have no actual instructions to deal with the text. In other words, it is argued that some comprehension activity could have been added after the text, in order to make sure learners were actively attending to the text. Moreover, by analyzing the post-reading section (*research topic*), the only word that reappeared was *counterfeit*. It might be possible, however, that learners reuse the words for carrying out the task. Despite these limitations, it seems that a great

deal of opportunities has been provided for learners to manipulate the words.

Last, as for depth of processing of activity from unit 3 (see Figure 9), according to the task-induced involvement load hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001), fill-in-the blank exercises induce *moderate need, no search*, and *moderate evaluation*. As for moderate need, from ten words, five seem to be essential for comprehending the text, meaning that, without the words *fake*, *counterfeiters*, *technologies*, *scanners*, and *equipment* comprehension may break down. The activity is followed by the answer key, so *no search* is necessary, only *evaluating* whether the word meanings fit the context. In sum, having *moderate need* and *moderate evaluation* means that learners might process words in a deep manner, because they *need* to comprehend the words in order to *evaluate* their usage. Therefore, we suggest that this activity promotes a deep level of processing.

4.1.1.3. Textbook one – Unit 7









The unit begins with a picture of produce market displaying several fruits and vegetables, followed by four warm-up questions. It is interesting to point out that question 4 directs learners to read the title of the unit, “The Best Produce there is”, and challenges learners to think about the meaning of the word *produce*. Later, in the pre-reading section, named *background and vocabulary*, learners are directed to think about its meaning one more time, as it is mentioned later.

In fact, the section *background and vocabulary* approaches the target words of the unit similarly from unit 3. The first instruction directs learners to read the gardening chart for San Francisco and infer the words in bold. The instruction explicitly requests learners to “try to understand the boldface words without looking them up in a dictionary” (Haugnes & Maher, 2009, p. 135). After that, an exercise instructs readers to match the words with their definitions, as it can be observed in Figure 10 below.

- **Figure 10. Vocabulary activity of unit 7 – Inferring meaning from context and matching words with their definitions.**

C BACKGROUND AND VOCABULARY

Read the gardening chart for San Francisco. Try to understand the boldfaced words without looking them up in a dictionary.

VEGETABLE GARDENING YEAR-ROUND IN SAN FRANCISCO		
Season	Crops	Advice
Spring	Peas 	Peas grow very well when it seems too cold for many other vegetables. Insects love little pea plants, so be careful. You can use chemicals to keep them away. Or if you are concerned about using dangerous chemicals, try the old-fashioned way to keep insects away: put a little bit of soapy water on the plants. Make sure that you don't let the weeds get too big in the spring. Get them out of your garden so that your vegetables can have more space to grow!
Summer	Tomatoes  Squash 	One of the best things to do in summer is to pick a nice red ripe tomato and eat it right away. Sometimes tomatoes seem like a lot of work. They need a great deal of sun, and you have to water them often. But it's worth it every time. Scientists now say that tomatoes are really good at fighting some illnesses like cancer . So plant lots of them! And don't forget to plant some squash. Squash is good for you too.
Fall	Radishes  Cauliflower 	There is a lot of produce to pick in the fall. You should make sauce from tomatoes and freeze ¹ squash to eat during the winter. Then, if you have time, you can plant some radishes and cauliflower.
Winter	Lettuce  Spinach  Onions 	While it is snowing in the rest of the United States, you should plant some lettuce, spinach, and onions. You can have fresh vegetables from your garden even in winter.

¹ freeze: preserve food for a long time by keeping it very cold in a freezer

Now match the words with their definitions.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <u> f </u> 1. insects | a. not modern or new |
| <u> </u> 2. chemicals | b. it will be useful—you will benefit from it |
| <u> </u> 3. concerned about | c. ready to eat |
| <u> </u> 4. old-fashioned | d. substances made by or used in chemistry |
| <u> </u> 5. weeds | e. not canned or frozen |
| <u> </u> 6. pick | f. tiny animals that eat plants |
| <u> </u> 7. ripe | g. to pull off a fruit or vegetable from a plant or tree |
| <u> </u> 8. it's worth it | h. fruits and vegetables |
| <u> </u> 9. cancer | i. worried about |
| <u> </u> 10. produce | j. an illness that can grow anywhere in your body and is very dangerous |
| <u> </u> 11. fresh | k. plants that grow naturally and that you don't want in your garden |

Figure 10. Vocabulary activity of unit 7 – Inferring meaning by context followed by matching the words with their definitions.

Reprinted from: Haugnes, N. & Maher, B. (2009). *North Star: Focus on reading and writing level 2*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education Inc.

Interestingly, the writers decided to unite two powerful strategies in this lesson, that is, inferring meaning from context and matching words with their corresponding definition. The first is one of the most effective strategies for vocabulary learning, for it allows learners to revisit previous seen words and learn new ones, especially when learners are exposed to large amounts of reading. The second might integrate dictionary search, in case learners need clarification in meaning. At the end, learners might end up having a glossary of the words. In addition to that, in the text there is a glossary for the words that were not approached in the pre-reading section (see Appendix N).

The target words/phrases of this unit are (1) *insects*; (2) *chemicals*; (3) *concerned about*; (4) *old-fashioned*; (5) *weeds*; (6)

pick; (7) *ripe*; (8) *it's worth it*; (9) *cancer*; (10) *produce*; and (11) *fresh*. From these words, five are considered highly frequent, as displayed in Table Z1, in Appendix Z. Three words are in the first thousand most frequent English words (*pick*; *ripe*; and *fresh*), and two words are in the second most frequent English words (*weed* and *produce*), according to Nation's family list (2006). Despite the fact that the words *insect*, *chemical* and *cancer* are not among the most frequent of the English language, learners can benefit from the fact that they are cognates. The word *produce*⁴², as already said, was addressed in the beginning of the lesson and reviewed in the *background and vocabulary* section due to being important for comprehension.

Under the title "Organic produce vs. Regular Produce", the text in reading one starts by explaining that Mr. Green is a newspaper columnist devoted to answering people's questions in his column. The text begins with a question posed by a reader, which is then answered along the text (why organic produce is more expensive and does not seem as beautiful as regular produce). The main idea of the text consists of Mr. Green explaining the reasons why organic produce might be more expensive, by showing the differences between the two kinds of produce. It seems that the word *chemicals* is essential for the learner to comprehend the higher cost of organic produce. In other words, the text explains that by using chemicals, farmers can produce more, which means cheaper products for people. By not using chemicals, farmers produce less, translating into higher costs for buyers. In addition to that, by not using chemicals on organic produce, farmers have to deliver their produce as fast as possible to avoid spoiling. It does not mean, however, that *chemicals* is the only word for main idea identification. Secondary ideas might also help learners comprehend the text, so it is possible to say that all the words approached by the authors in this unit have their fundamental role.

Regarding the results of the role of the target words for secondary ideas of the text, nine of them appear to be relevant. For instance, in the first paragraph, the word *produce* is essential, since regular produce looks nicer due to the use of chemicals to kill insects and weeds, according to the text. The same can be noted for the

⁴² According to the Oxford Learners Dictionary, produce means things that have been made or grown, especially things connected with farming.

second paragraph, where the words *chemicals*, *insects* and *weeds* are relevant to express the fact that regular produce looks nicer due to the use of chemicals to kill insects and weeds. In the third paragraph, the word *ripe* conveys the essential idea of the paragraph, which is the fact that farmers use chemicals to make fruits and vegetables ripe, allowing them to be available all year long. In paragraph four, *cancer*, an identical cognate conveys the negative aspect of consuming chemicals, e.g. too many farming chemicals can cause cancer. In paragraph five, *old-fashioned* is used to explain what organic produce is, that is, the fact that chemicals can be bad for nature as well, leading farmers to produce in the old-fashioned way (organic produce). In paragraph six, the word *fresh* is used to explain that organic produce might be more expensive because it needs to be fresh at all times. Last, in paragraph seven, *worth it* is relevant for it explains that the reader has to decide whether organic produce is worth it or not.

Concerning the number of encounters with the words, the target ones (except for *weeds*) provide from six to more than twenty encounters (see Appendix Z, Table Z3, for a detailed account on where the target words appear). However, the words approached in this unit have most encounters within the same unit, meaning that they do not seem to provide spaced repetition for learners, bearing in mind that longer appear to be better for word encoding (Ullman & Lovellet, 2016). To be more precise, the word *insects* appears eight times in unit 7 out of a total of nine times; the word *chemicals* appears thirty out of forty times; the word *old-fashioned* appears five out of six times; the word *pick* appears thirteen out of fifteen times; the word *cancer* appears six out of eight times; the word *produce* appears eighty-four out of eighty-six times; and the word *fresh* appears sixteen out of a total of eighteen times. Furthermore, the words *concerned about*, *weeds*, *ripe*, and *worth it* are only shown along unit seven, meaning that learners are not given new opportunities for reusing the words with longer gaps, as Ullman and Lovellet (2016) believe it is effective for word encoding.

As proposed by the authors of the textbook, the words approached in the section entitled *background and vocabulary* are reviewed in *focus on writing – vocabulary* (Appendix N). Interestingly, as observed in previous units, in *focus on writing – vocabulary*, the authors used a different approach for presenting/reviewing the target vocabulary. The target words appear

in boldface, and the headline of the exercise instructs learners to cross out the words that are not related to the boldface word. This type of activity seems to engage learners in activating their background knowledge of the words and their associations. Next, there is an excerpt from a journal, and learners are instructed to focus their attention to the words in boldface, again, the target ones. After that, among two options, learners have to select one as being the suitable definition of a word/phrase. This type of activity resembles a specific componential reading process, namely lexical access, in which learners automatically select the best meaning for a word in that specific context. In other words, it seems that by choosing the best meaning, textbook authors are enabling learners to deautomatize lexical access, which in fact, might be positive, in the sense that it works as a scaffolding⁴³ for novice learners.

Last, a fill-in-the-blanks exercise is provided under the headline “Complete the journal entry with the appropriate words or phrases from the box” (see exercise in Appendix N). As it has been mentioned previously, for this specific exercise, there is not any comprehension measure, meaning that learners might not actually need those words for comprehension. On the other hand, the activity that follows the cloze-exercise demands more from learners, since they actively have to use some of the words in the box (see Appendix N for the activity) to complete the letter. In this case, learners are supposed to evaluate the use of words, in order to guarantee coherence for their text. To be more precise, learners can only productively use the words they know, considering that knowing a word entails knowing its meaning, written and spoken form, its grammatical behavior; its collocations, register, association and its frequency, as explained in Chapter two. Overall, by reviewing the words, the authors provide learners with a variety of activities, dealing with words in different contexts, which actually might be positive, despite the limitations aforementioned.

The words approached in the pre-reading activity are indeed reviewed as a post-reading activity, as the results have shown. The *research topic* suggests that learners do a research in order to open a restaurant that serves local food (see Figure 11). Analyzing

⁴³ Scaffolding is used here as “the process by which learners utilize discourse to help them construct structures that lie outside their competence” (Ellis, 2010, p. 143).

the *research topic*, it is undeniable that learners might use the recent learned words for carrying out this activity. However, it is beyond the scope of this piece of research to analyze this vocabulary in classroom use.

▪ **Figure 11. Unit 7 - Research Topic**

UNIT 7: The Best Produce There Is

Work in a small group. You are thinking about opening a restaurant that serves only local food. Find out what is available in your area. Follow these steps:

Step 1: As a group, choose several vegetable markets where you can do your research. Farmers markets are best for finding local produce, but “health food” stores or vegetable markets might also carry local produce.

Step 2: At the market, make a list of which local vegetables are in season at different times of the year. You might also list local foods that are not vegetables, such as meat and cheese. You will need to ask the person selling the vegetables which items are local. You can also ask him or her what is available at different times of the year.

Step 3: As a group, make a list of the ingredients that you will have available at different times of the year.

Step 4: Find dishes that you will be able to make with these ingredients.

Step 5: Think of a name for your restaurant and make sample menus for each season.

Figure 11. Research topic of unit 7.

Reprinted from: Haugnes, N. & Maher, B. (2009). *North Star: Focus on reading and writing level 2*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education Inc.

In order to report the results of the depth of processing of the activity from unit seven, it is important to remember the activity instructions. First, learners are instructed to read the text trying to infer word meanings using the context as a clue, so then they are directed to match the words of the text with the meanings in the next column (Figure 10). With this in mind, an attempt was made to equate this activity with item 2 of the task-induced involvement load hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001), which posits that reading and comprehension questions with the target words not being glossed despite being necessary for the task might demand *moderate need*, *no search*, and *no evaluation*. It has become apparent in the overall analysis that learners may need the words for comprehending the task; therefore, it is possible to claim that there is a *moderate need* of knowing the words. On the other hand, learners might not have to look up the meanings of words in a dictionary, considering that the result of matching (in II), might be used as a glossary, leading to the

conclusion that *no search* is needed. Last, moderate evaluation might be necessary⁴⁴, especially regarding part II of the exercise, in which it would be unrealistic to match a word with its meaning without evaluating the context it happens. In sum, this activity does not seem to promote a deep level of processing.

4.1.2. On textbook two

The second textbook was designed by Jack C. Richards and Sumuela Eckstut-Didier, under the title “Strategic Reading”. The second edition of the textbook aims at, according to the authors, developing reading strategies, critical thinking and vocabulary learning (Richards & Eckstut-Didier, 2012). Concerning the unit structure, all the twelve units contain ten pages each, divided into three readings. Table 10 depicts the unit structure.

Table 10. Organization of Textbook two.

-
- 1. Unit Preview**
 - 2. Pre-reading tasks**
 - 2.1. Reading Preview
 - 2.1.1. Predicting
 - 2.1.2. Previewing vocabulary
 - 2.1.3. Thinking about the topic
 - 2.1.4. Thinking about what you know
 - 2.2. Skimming/Scanning
 - 3. Post-Reading Tasks**
 - 3.1.** Comprehension Check
 - 3.2.** Vocabulary Study
 - 3.3.** Reading Strategy
 - 3.4.** Relating Reading to Personal Experience
 - 4. Timed Reading**
-

Each reading begins with a *unit preview*, designed to activate learners’ background knowledge. Two pre-reading tasks accompany each reading, a *reading preview* and *skimming/scanning*. The tasks in the reading preview may vary among *Predicting*, *Previewing Vocabulary*, *Thinking About the Topic*, or *Thinking About What You Know*, meaning that vocabulary is not always presented before reading. The post-reading tasks comprise items 3.1

⁴⁴ Despite the fact that the original model proposes no evaluation.

to 3.4, shown in Table 10. The authors call this section post-reading, but actually, Tomitch (2009a) considers this type of activity⁴⁵ as a during-reading task, since it comprises activities that help learners still comprehend the actual text. Tomitch (2009a) explains that a post-reading task is devoted to connecting the ideas conveyed by the text with readers' reality, namely the section entitled *relating reading to personal experience*. In sum, items 3.1 to 3.3 are considered during-reading activities and 3.4 a post-reading activity. The next sections are devoted to reporting the results of the analysis carried out in units four and eight, chosen randomly.

4.1.2.1. Textbook two – Unit 4

The topic of unit two is music, which is subdivided into three readings, to mention, *reading one*, under the title “Music and moods”; *reading two*, entitled “I’ll be Bach”; and *reading three*, “The biology of music”. As mentioned in the introductory paragraph for textbook two, the pre-reading sections do not always approach vocabulary. In this unit, only reading two is introduced by a vocabulary activity, as it will be shown in the sequence.

4.1.2.1.1. Textbook two – Unit 4 – Reading 1

Reading one begins with the title “Music and moods” followed by a picture, available in Appendix O. To begin with, there are neither instructions on how learners should deal with unknown words, nor glossaries. The only instruction before reading is that learners read to find out the connection between music and moods. After that, the *vocabulary study* approaches five words and one phrase of the text, addressing learners to find them in the text in order to select the correct meanings. The target words are (1) *rejuvenated*; (2) *boost*; (3) *good state of mind*; (4) *switch*; (5) *serene*; and (6) *ballad*, as Figure 12 exhibits.

⁴⁵ Except for 3.4.

▪ **Figure 12. Vocabulary Activity of unit 4 – Reading 1.**

B Vocabulary Study

Find the words and phrases in *italics* in the reading. Then circle the correct meanings.

1. When you feel *rejuvenated*, you feel **sleepy** / **energetic**. (par. 1 & 4)
2. When you *boost* something, you have **more** / **less** of it. (par. 2)
3. When you are in a *good state of mind*, you are **feeling fine**/ **thinking a lot**. (par. 3)
4. When you change your mood by *switching* music, you do so by **listening to** / **changing** it. (par. 4)
5. *Serene* music is **loud and fast** / **peaceful and calm**. (par. 4)
6. A *ballad* is a **slow love song** / **fast dance song**. (par. 4)

Figure 12. Vocabulary activity directing learners to find the words in the text to find the appropriate meaning in isolated sentences.

Reprinted from: Richards, J.C., & Eckstut-Didier, S. (2012). *Strategic Reading 1*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

According to frequency results displayed in Appendix AA, the frequency of the target words varies from highly-frequent (*switch* and *boost*) to low-frequent (*rejuvenated* and *good state of mind*). The importance of focusing on high-frequency words has been pointed out along this work, in the sense that they “cover a very large proportion of the running words in spoken and written texts” (Nation, 2001, p. 13). As for this unit, focusing on low-frequency words might be problematic, especially with beginners. To be more precise, beginners need to be familiar with high-frequency words, especially due to the fact that they cover large amounts of written and spoken texts (Nation, 2001). The authors examine that “when teachers spend time on low-frequency words in class, they should be using the words as an excuse for working on the strategies” (p. 21). Put another way, the primary concern of material developers and teachers should be to provide exposure to highly frequent words, so that learners can use strategies for dealing with low frequency words (Nation, 2001).

Regarding false-cognates, only one has been found in this unit, which is *ballad*. In the Portuguese language, learners might confuse with *balada*, which means a party at a club. However, it seems that the focus here was not to teach this false cognate, and yet to teach a word that is topic related.

The main idea of the text is given in the headline of reading one, where the authors mention “skim the reading to find the connections that the writer makes between music and moods” (Richards & Eckstut-Didier, 2012, p. 32). Considering this, the secondary ideas (as detailed in Appendix AA – Table AA2) work as explanations to the main idea. Moreover, the context seems to give clues to help learners infer word meanings. To be more precise, in the sentences “music can also help you relax and feel *rejuvenated*”; “to cheer up or *boost* your energy” and “start with something *serene* and relaxing, and then gradually increase the tempo and beat” (p.33), there are some very similar words in meaning to the target ones, such as *relax-rejuvenated*; *cheer up-boost energy*; and *serene-relaxing*. In sum, all these synonym-related words may help learners to infer meanings using context, leading to questioning what would be the goal of teaching such words, considering that the context is filled with clues for lexical inferencing.

Regarding the number of encounters the textbook provides, results (as shown in Table AA3 – in Appendix AA) have shown that the target words of reading one can only be found in reading one itself and in the vocabulary activity (Figure 12), leading to the conclusion that it lacks opportunities for learners to meet with the words in different contexts. Furthermore, meeting a word two or three times might not be enough for its retention, considering the literature reviewed in this study. In sum, one question seems to remain unanswered: what is the goal of approaching words that are not relevant to the reading section?


According to the task-induced involvement load (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001), the presence of involvement factors (need, search and evaluation) constitute whether words will be processed in a shallower or deeper manner. Concerning the aforementioned activity, it seems to promote a shallow level of processing. To be more precise, words are not necessary for reading the text, as it has been said. If learners do *not need* them, neither *search* nor *evaluation* is necessary, since they may not look up word meanings nor evaluate their use in the context. In case learners need them, their meanings are given in the exercise itself, as shown in Figure 12.

4.1.2.1.2. Textbook two – Unit 4 – Reading 2

Differently from reading one in Unit 4, this section begins by instructing learners to pay attention to the words in the box, since they will be in the text. Then, instructions direct learners to discuss the possible word meanings with a partner and to consult the dictionary (see Figure 13). As pointed out in Chapter two, using a dictionary has shown to be effective for vocabulary learning (Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015). Nation (2001) also reviews some studies on dictionary use and concludes that it helps learning and comprehension, especially for learners who are not fond of guessing from context. The approached target words before reading are (1) *brain*; (2) *melody*; (3) *composition*; (4) *opera*; (5) *computer program*; (6) *pattern*; (7) *database*; and (8) *software*, as shown in the figure below.

- **Figure 13. Pre-reading activity for teaching vocabulary – Unit 4 – Reading 2**

Reading 2



I'll Be Bach

J.S. Bach

Predicting

The words in the box are from the reading. Discuss the meanings of the words with a partner. Look up any new words in a dictionary. Then look at the picture and the reading title and answer the questions below with your partner.

brains	compositions	computer program	database
melodies	opera	patterns	software

1. Who was J.S. Bach? Who do you think David Cope is?
2. How are Bach and Cope similar? How are they different?

Figure 13. Pre-reading activity approached as a vocabulary activity. Previewing word meanings and vocabulary search.

Reprinted from: Richards, J.C., & Eckstut-Didier, S. (2012). *Strategic Reading 1*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Besides having a *predicting* section for pre-teaching vocabulary, this section presents some words after the text, as part of what the authors call *post-reading*, which is actually a during reading activity, according to Tomitch (2009a). In the *vocabulary study* (see Figure 14), learners are instructed to find the words in italics in the text and match with their possible meanings. This time, the words are

(1) *original*; (2) *analyze*; (3) *complex*; (4) *collaboration*; (5) *review*; and (6) *feedback*.

▪ **Figure 14 - Vocabulary Study – Unit 4 – Reading 2**

B Vocabulary Study

Find the words in *italics* in the reading. Then match the words with their meanings.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| ___ 1. <i>original</i> (par. 1) | a. information that tells you how well or badly you're doing something |
| ___ 2. <i>analyze</i> (par. 4) | b. reports that give opinions about music, books, or plays |
| ___ 3. <i>complex</i> (par. 4) | c. not a copy |
| ___ 4. <i>collaboration</i> (par. 5) | d. study something in a careful way |
| ___ 5. <i>reviews</i> (par. 5) | e. having many parts |
| ___ 6. <i>feedback</i> (par. 6) | f. the act of working together |

Figure 14. Vocabulary study of unit 4 reading 2 instructs learners to match the words from the text with the definitions.

Reprinted from: Richards, J.C., & Eckstut-Didier, S. (2012). *Strategic Reading 1*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

The results of the frequency of the vocabulary items presented both before and during reading, as shown in Table BB1 in Appendix BB, demonstrate that only three words are considered highly-frequent, to mention *brain*, *pattern* and *original*. Furthermore, false-cognates do not seem to have been approached in this section, in fact, most of the words appear to be cognates. Focusing on cognates has its negative and positive sides. The positive side is that beginners may feel more comfortable while reading due to being familiar with the target words. The negative side, in contrast, is that focusing on cognates might not be time well spent, especially if the learners' goal is to acquire vocabulary.

The actual text of reading 2 (see Appendix P) is about a software designed to compose original pieces of classical music. As obvious as it may seem, the ideas of each paragraph enable the reader to construct the meaning of the text as a whole, meaning that vocabulary might be crucial for this stage. However, it was noticed that target words do not receive much attention during the reading. Put another way, the authors could have highlighted them (in bold or

italics) in order to direct learners' attention to the lexical items. In fact, we have highlighted the words (in Appendix P) in the text to examine their importance for building the main and secondary ideas of the text. It seems that paragraphs two, three and six are benefited by the approached words, since they might be key-words for ideas conveyed by the authors. As for comprehension of the remaining paragraphs, learners might not need the target words, since they can use different strategies in order to construct meaning, to state a few, using context to infer word meanings; benefiting from cognates, and text features (title, subheadings, pictures).

From the results on the number of encounters with the words (displayed in Table BB3 in Appendix BB) several conclusions may be drawn. First, most of the words are brought up for reading that specific text (see Appendix P), since results have shown that it lacks different opportunities for learners to deal with these words. Second, this lack of variety of word context fails to provide learners with a better understanding of the words. Third, the number of encounters with them do not seem to favor memorization, especially considering the need for the figure six to more than twenty encounters with spaced repetition. Last, not a single target word was approached in a post-reading section.

As for depth of processing, it seems that the aforementioned activity promotes a rather shallow processing. Based on Laufer and Hulstijn's task-induced involvement load hypothesis (2001), learners may *need* them for comprehension, but the fact that they are glossed in the text entails *no search* regarding their use. Last, learners might not have to *evaluate* word usage, since they are not essential for text comprehension.

4.1.2.1.3. Textbook two – Unit 4 – Reading 3

Reading 3 from unit 4 begins with a warm-up discussion on music. Next, learners are instructed to skim the text to reject and/or confirm their expectations built based on sentences in the section named *thinking about the topic*. The target words are (1) *limited*; (2) *process*; (3) *evidence*; (4) *fitness*; (5) *automatically*; and (6) *show off*, and they have been presented after the comprehension questions, in a fill-in-the-blanks exercise, as shown below.

▪ **Figure 15. Vocabulary Study – Unit 4 – Reading 3**

B Vocabulary Study

Find the words in the box in the reading. Then complete the sentences.

limited (par. 2)	evidence (par. 4)	automatically (par. 5)
processes (par. 5)	fitness (par. 6)	showing off (par. 6)

1. Fred is dancing in front of a lot of women. He's _____ again.
2. She can only play two pieces on the piano. Her ability is _____.
3. When you see a red traffic light, you should _____ stop your car.
4. Today scientists know a lot about how the brain _____ language.
5. He's good with children. This shows his _____ to be a good father.
6. Whales use song to communicate with each other. Scientists have a lot of _____ that proves it.

Figure 15. Vocabulary study – filling in the blanks with the appropriate words.

Reprinted from: Richards, J.C., & Eckstut-Didier, S. (2012). *Strategic Reading 1*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Results from word frequency have shown that the words approached in unit 4 do not seem to be highly-frequent. The only word found in Nation's lists (2006) was *evidence*, which has also been shown to be highly-frequent for having 87692 occurrences, according to COCA-BYU. It seems, therefore, that the words presented in this unit have been put for the sake of clarifying unknown words in the text.

By analyzing whether the target words are related to the main idea of the text, it is possible to claim that they do not seem to play a role in helping learners with main or secondary ideas. To be more precise, the text is about the relationship between music and emotions, so the words *limited*, *processes*, *evidence*, *fitness*, *automatically* and *show off* do not seem to be highly relevant for the gist. As for the secondary ideas, the same is possible to assume, according to Table CC2, in Appendix CC.

Similar to previous results in this study, this section of unit 4 lacks opportunities for learners to revisit the target words. All the words (except for *evidence*) are presented only within reading 3 of unit 4, following a pattern of being presented in the text followed by

the vocabulary activity, as it has been displayed in Table CC3, Appendix CC. In sum, this unit does seem to provide learners with an appropriate number of encounters with the words.

In regards to promoting a deep level of processing, it seems that the activity shown in Figure 15 might not be needed for reading. Therefore, it is possible to claim that the activity induces *no need*, *no search* and *no evaluation* to learners, consequently promoting a shallow level of processing.

4.1.2.2. Textbook two – Unit 8

The topic of this unit is “Friends”, bringing three different articles on the subject. The first is entitled “ten easy ways to make friends” (see Appendix R), a magazine article offering some tips on how to make new friends. The second text is about having a best friend, and the third poses the question whether online friends could be considered real friends. As with regards to how vocabulary is approached by the authors, reading 1 deals with new words before and during reading, while readings 2 and 3 addresses vocabulary only during reading. Next, see the detailed results of the analysis.


4.1.2.2.1. Textbook two – Unit 8 – Reading 1

As it has been mentioned, reading 1 deals with vocabulary in different moments, before and during reading. However, in these moments, the authors chose to address different words, instead of allowing learners to have multiple encounters with the same words. The instructions were the same as unit 4 – reading 2, directing learners to discuss word meanings with their partners and use a dictionary if necessary. See the activity in Figure 16, below.

- **Figure 16. Pre-reading activity for teaching vocabulary – Unit 8 – Reading 1**

Reading 1

Ten Easy Ways to Make Friends



Previewing Vocabulary

The words in the box are from the reading. Discuss the meanings of these words with a partner. Look up any new words in a dictionary. Decide which words describe the qualities of a good friend.

caring	consistent	generous	popular
self-critical	shy	supportive	talkative

Figure 16. Pre-reading activity approached as a vocabulary activity. Previewing word meanings and vocabulary search.

Reprinted from: Richards, J.C., & Eckstut-Didier, S. (2012). *Strategic Reading 1*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

After that, learners are directed to scan the text to find the approached words and circle them in order to find “the qualities of a good friend” (Richards & Eckstut-Didier, 2012, p. 72). Vocabulary here seems to be relevant for readers, and the authors chose to direct learners attention to it, different from unit 4, in which words did not seem to deserve much attention. In “vocabulary study” (Figure 17), learners are advised to find the words in italics in the reading and

match with their possible meanings. It is relevant to point out that this previewing vocabulary might be used as a glossary.

▪ **Figure 17. Vocabulary Study – Unit 8 – Reading 1**

B Vocabulary Study

Find the words and phrases in *italics> in the reading. Then circle the correct meanings.*

1. When you *observe* something, you write it down / watch it. (par. 2)
2. Your *strong points* are your good features / bad features. (par. 3)
3. When you *dominate* a conversation, you want to control / end it. (par. 5)
4. When you *pursue* something, you like / look for it. (par. 9)
5. When you *admire* someone, you have a good opinion of / love the person. (par. 9)
6. When you are *loyal*, you support / talk to your friends all the time. (par. 10)

Figure 17. Vocabulary study of unit 8 reading 1 suggests that learners match the words from the text with their definitions.

Reprinted from: Richards, J.C., & Eckstut-Didier, S. (2012). *Strategic Reading 1*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

With reference to the frequency of these lexical items, five out of fourteen words are highly-frequent, as shown in Table DD1 (in Appendix DD). The remaining words, despite the fact that they are not highly-frequent, might be important for main and secondary ideas of the text. In fact, the target words have been highlighted in order to demonstrate their relevance, both for main and secondary ideas of the text (Table DD2).

The results from the search of the vocabulary items along textbook two (see Table DD3 in Appendix DD) have shown that most of the words have been approached only for the sake of reading the texts of the unit. In other words, the target words appear around 2.9 times along the textbook. The lack of opportunities for learners to meet with the words might difficult word retention and recall. The only word which appeared more often was *popular*, totalizing 22 encounters with spaced repetition.

As opposed to results from the previous unit of textbook two, the target words are relevant to the reading task. Consequently, it can be attributed moderate *need*, *search* and *evaluation* to the words. Put another way, learners may *need* the words for reading,

which may lead them to *search* word meaning, which finally ends with *evaluating* whether the words are suitable for the given context. In sum, the activity seems to provide a deep level of processing.

4.1.2.2.2. Textbook two – Unit 8 – Reading 2

Reading two begins with an activity for learners to predict some specific information regarding the text. Vocabulary is addressed during reading in the section entitled *vocabulary study*. The way the activity is put, again, suggests that learners might use it as a glossary during reading. This time, the target words are (1) *happiness*; (2) *variety*; (3) *safe*; (4) *encouragement*; (5) *behavior* and (6) *hesitation*, as shown in Figure 18.

Figure 18 - Vocabulary Study – Unit 8 – Reading 2

B Vocabulary Study

Find the noun forms of the words in column A in the reading. Write the nouns in column B. Then match the nouns in column B with their meanings in column C.

A	B	C
1. <i>happy</i> adj.	_____ <i>happiness</i> _____ (par. 1)	a. protection from bad things
2. <i>various</i> adj.	_____ (par. 2)	b. the way people act
3. <i>safe</i> adj.	_____ (par. 3)	c. pleasure
4. <i>encourage</i> v.	_____ (par. 3)	d. different types of one thing
5. <i>behave</i> v.	_____ (par. 3)	e. a pause before speaking
6. <i>hesitate</i> v.	_____ (par. 6)	f. helping someone have confidence or hope

Figure 18. Vocabulary study of unit 8 reading 1 suggests that learners match the words from the text with their definitions.

Reprinted from: Richards, J.C., & Eckstut-Didier, S. (2012). *Strategic Reading 1*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Results of word frequency have shown that none of the words approached in this section are among the 2,000 most frequent of the English language, according to Nation (2006). As for the results of COCA-BYU, the most frequent words have shown to be *behavior*, *safety*, and *variety*, having 67828; 46775; and 37626 occurrences, respectively (see Appendix EE – Table EE1 for a

complete account). Equally worrying is the fact that these words do not seem to help the reader construct meaning from the text, they seem not to have a clear purpose for being in the lesson.

The results of where the target words can be found along the textbook are displayed in Table EE3 (Appendix EE), suggesting a different pattern from the previous units. The words *happiness*, *variety*, *encouragement*, and *behavior* seem to appear in different units. This pattern suggests a great deal of opportunities for learners to meet the words with spacing intervals, which has been mentioned as being effective for memorization. In contrast, the words *safety* and *hesitation* are mentioned only once in the unit, similarly to previous results. These results might suggest that the textbook authors do not seem to plan where vocabulary is put along the units, and its importance for reading.

The analysis has shown that despite the fact that words approached by the activity in Figure 18 are glossed in the text, they might be of little use for learners' comprehension of the text. Therefore, according to the task-induced involvement load hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001), this activity does not seem to induce *need*, *search*, or *evaluation*. This result suggests that this activity does not promote a deep level of processing for word retention.

4.1.2.2.3. Textbook two – Unit 8 – Reading 3

Reading three begins by brainstorming about online friends, having learners reflect on the topic, so then they will be able to skim the text to confirm/reject their expectations. The target words are (1) *virtual*; (2) *beneficial*; (3) *face-to-face*; (4) *deep relationships*; (5) *express*, and (6) *opinions*. Similar to previous activities of textbook two, vocabulary is approached in the section named *vocabulary study*. The instructions tell learners to “match the words and phrases from the reading that are similar in meaning” (Richards & Eckstut-Didier, 2012, p.80), as shown in Figure 19. Again, this type of activity might be used as a glossary as well.

▪ **Figure 19. Vocabulary Study – Unit 8 – Reading 3**

B Vocabulary Study

Match the words and phrases from the reading that are similar in meaning.

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| ___ 1. <i>virtual friends</i> (par. 1) | a. <i>strong bonds</i> (par. 1) |
| ___ 2. <i>beneficial</i> (par. 1) | b. <i>good</i> (par. 2) |
| ___ 3. <i>face-to-face</i> (par. 1, 3–5) | c. <i>points of view</i> (par. 4) |
| ___ 4. <i>deep relationships</i> (par. 4) | d. <i>e-buddies</i> (par. 4) |
| ___ 5. <i>express</i> (par. 5) | e. <i>say</i> (par. 4) |
| ___ 6. <i>opinions</i> (par. 5) | f. <i>in person</i> (par. 4) |

Figure 19. Vocabulary study of unit 8 reading 13 suggests that learners match the words from the text with their synonyms.

Reprinted from: Richards, J.C., & Eckstut-Didier, S. (2012). *Strategic Reading 1*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

As it was observed in previous units analyzed here, the target words presented in Reading 3 might not be essential for comprehension, since learners may use strategies for coping with them. For instance, the phrase *virtual friends* can be easily understood since *virtual* is a cognate, and *friends* has been the topic of the lesson, which entails that learners have been previously exposed to this word. The words *beneficial*, *face-to-face*, *express* and *opinions* are also cognates, making it possible to assume that this textbook might not be the most appropriate for Brazilian students. The point is, what is the purpose of spending time teaching items that learners might pick by the context? In fact, Nation (2001) argues that time should be spent teaching the 2,000 most frequent words of the language, this way, when faced with unknown words outside this range, learners might use appropriate strategies. Results from word frequency have shown that only *express* and *opinions* are highly frequent.

Results from the present analysis have shown two different patterns concerning word repetition. First, on the one hand, the words/phrases *virtual friends*, *beneficial*, *face-to-face* and *deep relationships* appear only in unit 8, as shown in Table FF1 (Appendix FF). Second, on the other hand, the highly-frequent words *express* and *opinions* appear seventeen times along the textbooks in

several units, showing that learners may have several opportunities of meeting the words with spaced repetition.

Similar to previous results, the activity of reading three does not seem to promote *need*, *search* or *evaluation* for learners. In other words, first, since most of the target words are cognates, learners might be strategic, entailing a lack of *need*. Second, a matching exercise already presents the probable answer for the target words, meaning that no *search* is necessary. Third, learners might not need to *evaluate* word usage in this context. In sum, this activity does not appear to provide a deep level of processing.

4.1.3. On Textbook three

The last textbook analyzed is *Just: Reading and Writing Upper Intermediate*, written by Jeremy Harmer and Carol Lethaby, published by Marshall Cavendish Education, 2005. Now, we move to the results of units four, six and eight of section A.

4.1.3.1. Textbook three – Unit 4A

The unit begins by showing a table and directing learners to fill in the table with the information from the two texts presented in the section A of the unit (see Appendix U for the text). Vocabulary is only introduced as the first activity after the text. The target words are (1) *launch*; (2) *piece*; (3) *frail*; (4) *vulnerable*; (5) *thesis*; (6) *scuba-diving*; and (7) *apparatus*. The instructions and the target words are displayed below, in Figure 20.

▪ **Figure 20. Vocabulary activity of unit 4A**

<p>2 Look at these sentences from the texts. What parts of speech are the words in blue? What words or phrases can replace the words in blue without changing the meaning too much?</p>	<p>a Then they launch themselves twisting into the air.</p> <hr/> <p>b They have been known to break their legs if they land ... on a piece of seaweed.</p> <hr/> <p>c He looked more like the statue ... than a frail human being.</p> <hr/> <p>d And then he was gone ... incredibly graceful and frighteningly vulnerable.</p> <hr/> <p>e She had been doing a university thesis on freediving.</p> <hr/> <p>f She ... began scuba-diving when she was 13.</p> <hr/> <p>g Freediving [means] diving with no breathing apparatus.</p>
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Figure 21. Vocabulary activity of unit 6B - Matching the words of the text with their corresponding meanings.

Reprinted from: Harmer, J. & Lethaby, C. (2005). *Just Reading and Writing Upper-Intermediate*. London: Marshall Cavendish ELT.

By doing this exercise, learners are expected to use the context as a clue for inferring the meanings of the target words. Another possibility is using a dictionary, if learners find that the context does not provide enough clues for making inferences. Previous results in this study have shown that the vocabulary activities could be used as a glossary, in case learners need it. It is difficult to make such suggestion here, considering that the vocabulary activity is after the text and it does not deal with definitions.

Results from word frequency (see Table GG1 in Appendix GG for the Table of word frequency) suggest that the only highly-frequent word is *piece*, having 54897 occurrences at COCA-BYU and the only one found in Nation's lists (2006). The words *launch* and *vulnerable* have presented the figure of 14746 and 14014 occurrences at COCA-BYU, respectively. In addition to the low-frequency of the remaining lexical items, they do not seem to be relevant neither for main idea, nor for secondary ideas. To be more precise, there is no target word in the first, sixth and seventh paragraphs; in the second paragraph, the target word is at the end of

the paragraph, to describe that divers land on a *piece* of seaweed. In paragraphs three and six, the words *launch* and *apparatus* can be inferred by the picture shown beside the text (see Appendix U). In the fifth paragraph, on the other hand, the word *thesis* is important for describing how a diver met his wife. This word, in fact, can be considered a false-cognate, for in Brazilian Portuguese, *thesis* resembles *tese*.

Concerning whether this unit provides an appropriate number of encounters with the words, results displayed have shown that the only word which provides a great deal of encounters is the highly-frequent word *piece*, totalizing 14 appearances along the textbook. The remaining words range from two to five encounters, below the figure suggested by the literature (see Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015). Furthermore, the analysis has shown that most of the words appear only in the text for section A of this unit and in the vocabulary activity (see Table GG3, in Appendix GG for a complete account on the search performed for these results).

Regarding the level of processing of the aforementioned activity, it is possible to observe that the words have neither been glossed in the text, nor in the activity. According to the task-induced involvement load hypothesis, reading comprehension questions with words glossed in the text induce *no need*, *no search* and *no evaluation*. Therefore, it is possible to claim that this activity does not promote a deep level of processing for word retention.

4.1.3.2. Textbook three – Unit 6A

The unit begins by presenting some comprehension questions, followed by the target vocabulary of the text (see Appendix V), which are (1) *foresee*; (2) *leading*; (3) *mapping*; (4) *reconstructive*; (5) *fanciful*; (6) *extinct*; and (7) *shortcutting*. The vocabulary exercise comprises of matching seven words with their meanings, as shown in Figure 21. Similar to previous results in this study, this type of exercise is useful as a glossary for learners to access while reading the text.

▪ **Figure 21. Vocabulary activity of unit 6A**

3 Match these words in the text to their meaning.

a foresees (paragraph 2)	1 describing, making a plan of	[]
b leading (paragraph 3)	2 making or doing something	
c mapping (paragraph 3)	faster	[]
d reconstructive (paragraph 3)	3 no longer existing	[]
e fanciful (paragraph 4)	4 most important, most	
f extinct (paragraph 6)	respected	[]
g shortcutting (paragraph 7)	5 predicts, sees in the future	[]
	6 impossible, imaginary	[]
	7 recreating or rebuilding	[]

Figure 21. Vocabulary activity of unit 6A - Matching the words of the text with their corresponding meanings.

Reprinted from: Harmer, J. & Lethaby, C. (2005). *Just Reading and Writing Upper-Intermediate*. London: Marshall Cavendish ELT.

Regarding word frequency, results have shown that only the words *lead* and *map* can be found in Nation's 2,000-word lists (2006). The remaining words could be considered low frequent ones, due to their number of occurrences at COCA-BYU (see Appendix HH – Table HH1 for the complete search on word frequency).

Moreover, results have also shown that the target words are not essential for comprehension, they are, in fact, complementary. In other words, by removing the target words, readers might still comprehend the text, and by complementary, we refer that the target words might help readers having a detailed comprehension of the text. In fact, knowing these words might be useful for lower level comprehension processes in reading.

As for the role of the target words, it remains unclear. See the excerpt of the text: “William Futrell isn't afraid to make predictions, however. As one of America's top plastic surgeons, he *foresees* a time when people will be flying around using their own wings (...)” (Harmer & Lethaby, 2005, p.37). This excerpt allows the claim that the word *foresee* can be easily inferred by the presence of the word *prediction* in the line before. A similar pattern can be observed in the third paragraph, where the phrase *leading authorities* may be inferred, for the authors exemplify the works of the doctor

they have been mentioning along the text (in Appendix V). The *words mapping*, *extinct* and *reconstructive* are similar cognates, and learners might as well benefit from that. On the other hand, the word *shortcutting* might be considered essential for the main idea of this paragraph (how Mars can become a place to be lived in), for it expresses the result of the work to be carried out by a machine in Mars.

Results have shown the little opportunities learners are given to meet with the words in different contexts. Most of the words appear in the pre-reading exercise and in the text itself. In fact, it is possible to infer that the authors only approached these words for the sake of reading, meaning that they might have failed to consider word retention. Equally worrying is the fact that the number of appearances of the words range from two to five times, as displayed in Table HH3 (Appendix HH).

As an attempt to analyze this activity to fit in Laufer and Hulstijn's (2001) task-induced involvement load hypothesis perspective, it can be suggested that the words are glossed in the text, but, overall, irrelevant to the task, meaning that learners might not *need* them. In sum, this activity does not seem to promote a deep level of processing. In fact, as it has been said, the target words might help learners having a full understanding of the text information.

4.1.3.3. Textbook three – Unit 8A

The unit begins with two brainstorming activities related to the topic, followed by the text (in Appendix W). Vocabulary, similar to unit 6A, is presented after the text, comprising the following words: (1) *numerous*; (2) *risky*; (3) *consent*; (4) *urging*; (5) *objections*; (6) *substantiated*; (7) *cultivate*; (8) *yields*; (9) *enhance*; (10) *millennia*; and (11) *advocates*. The activity consists of matching the words with their synonyms (see Figure 22). Similar to previous results in this study, this type of activity may be used as a glossary.

▪ **Figure 22. Vocabulary activity of unit 8A**

3 Match the words (a–k) from extracts 1–4 on page 53 with their synonyms or definitions (1–11).

a numerous (extract 1)	1 grow
b risky (extract 2)	2 thousands of years
c consent (extract 2)	3 proved
d urging (extract 3)	4 many, lots of
e objections (extract 3)	5 dangerous
f substantiated (extract 3)	6 trying to persuade, strongly advising
g cultivate (extract 4)	7 productivity, harvests
h yields (extract 4)	8 permission, agreement
i enhance (extract 4)	9 expressions of disapproval
j millennia (extract 4)	10 supporters
k advocates (extract 4)	11 improve

Figure 22. Vocabulary activity – matching the words with their synonyms.
Reprinted from: Harmer, J. & Lethaby, C. (2005). *Just Reading and Writing Upper-Intermediate*. London: Marshall Cavendish ELT.

The target words of this unit do not seem to be highly frequent, considering that none of them have been found in Nation's lists. Regarding their frequency at COCA-BYU, the words with most occurrences have been *numerous* (19905), *yield* (11749), and *enhance* (11099). In spite of their low frequency, the target words have been shown to be somehow relevant for main and secondary ideas of the text, given the fact that the text contains a lot of details, and knowledge of the words helps learners construct meaning. In other words, higher level processes might have more attentional resources to take place, once learners have decoded and comprehended the text literally.

In agreement with results from previous units, with previous results of this study, these words have been approached only for the sake of reading the text, bearing that few opportunities are given for learners to meet with them in further contexts in the textbook. For instance, the words appear two to three times, considering that the first time is the text of unit 8A, and the second time in the vocabulary activity (see Appendix II – Table II3 for a detailed description).

According to the task-induced involvement load hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001), the activity displayed in Figure 22 fits the status of reading and comprehension questions with words glossed in the text and relevant to the task. Consequently, having “words glossed in the text and relevant to the (reading) task” (p.18) induces *moderate need, no search* and *no evaluation*, which can be translated into shallow level of processing.

Next, we move to the conclusion on textbook analysis.

4.1.4. Conclusions on textbook analysis

In this section, the research questions will be answered in respect to textbooks analysis. The first research question is *what is the relationship of the vocabulary activities with the reading section of the EFL textbooks used at UFSC’s English undergraduate course?* Results from the analysis have shown that textbook one is especially designed for reading and writing programs, considering the design of the lessons. To be more precise, textbook one approaches a certain topic, and develops it along the unit in a great variety of activities, ranging from reading, vocabulary and writing. Moreover, activities such as *read for main ideas, read for details, make inferences, and integrate readings one and two* seem to be useful for developing learners’ reading fluency. As for textbook two, it might be difficult to state that the vocabulary approached was essential for comprehension, both at lower- and -higher levels of comprehension, especially considering that most of the analyzed activities have not been shown to be related to the reading section. It appears that the words were randomly assembled in the activities with no special purpose in mind. Overall, the analysis has shown that the context may help learners infer word meaning, leaving open the question of what is the relevance of teaching those words if they are neither relevant to the reading task and learners may also infer their meanings? Results from textbook three have shown that all of the approached words were connected to the readings.

Regarding research question two *what componential reading processes the vocabulary activities foster*, results of textbook one have shown a preference for activities in which the definition of the words are given for learners, so that vocabulary can be used whenever necessary. With that in mind, learners might devote their attentional resources for higher level comprehension processes, such

as inferential comprehension and comprehension monitoring. In other words, lower level comprehension processes might be supported by the word meanings given by glossaries. Regarding textbook two, results have suggested that due to the target words not being related to the reading section, vocabulary activities of textbook two might not help readers with neither lower nor higher-level reading processes. Put differently, the activities do not seem to have a clear purpose, especially if we consider that the target words might be easily inferable by readers. Regarding textbook three, results have suggested that the target words do not seem to be highly relevant for reading comprehension, leaving to question what is the purpose of approaching words which are not related to the reading per se?

Concerning the third research question, *how vocabulary is presented in the reading section*, results have demonstrated that, in textbook one, there is a preference for activities such as inferring word meanings using the context. Moreover, the definitions of the words were given in all the analyzed units, so that learners might use them as a glossary during and after reading. As for textbook two, the analysis has shown that, all of the six sections analyzed approached vocabulary in a form-meaning⁴⁶ design. The two sections that approached words before reading also dealt with form-meaning exercises. Last, the analysis of textbook three has revealed, from the sample analyzed, a preference for exercises dealing with synonyms (form-meaning). One of the activities instructed learners to match the words with their meanings. In fact, it has been mentioned that the activities from textbook three could as well be used as glossaries while reading.

The fourth research question asked *whether the activities focused on high-frequency words, false cognates and/or words that are part of main/secondary ideas of the text in the reading section*. For textbook one, results have pointed out that a great deal of high-frequency words/phrases have been approached, and the “not-so-frequent” or low-frequent words were connected to the main and secondary ideas of the texts. As for textbook two, results have suggested that most of the lexical items approached were not highly frequent. As for false cognates, it has been found only one false-

⁴⁶ Form-meaning consists in “finding words in the text which match the definitions given after the text” whose only goal is to connect form and meaning (Nation, 2001, p. 160).

cognate in unit 4 – reading 1 (*ballad*, which is similar to *balada* in Portuguese). Regarding the role of the target words, the analysis suggests that words might be useful, but learners might as well use strategies to comprehend the text. Last, for textbook three, results have revealed that the majority of the target words were not highly-frequent in the English language. As for false-cognates, it has been reported the presence of only one. Similar to previous results in this study, the target words do not appear to be relevant for main/secondary ideas of the text, they are in fact, complementary.

The fifth research question concerned *whether the textbook provides a number of encounters with the words*. Results have shown that textbook one seems to provide a wide range of opportunities for learners using the words, however, they are localized in the unit they have been first presented, which can be translated that the target words do not respect the spaced interval, suggested by literature in memory. As for textbook two, results have shown that most of the words were addressed only in the units they had been introduced, having from three to five encounters, meaning that textbook two fails to provide a number of encounters with the words. Last, for textbook three, the analysis has shown that except for the words in unit 4A, most of them appear only in the first introduced unit. Results have also shown that the words do not respect the figure posited by Laufer and Rozovski-Roitblat (2015).

The sixth research question refers to whether *the vocabulary activities promote a deep level of processing for word retention*. For textbook one, results suggest that activities from units one and three promote a deep level of processing, both generating *moderate need, no search and moderate evaluation*, while the ones from unit seven do not, generating *moderate need, no search and no evaluation*. As for textbook two, results have reported that the vocabulary activities of textbook two do not promote a deep level of processing for word retention, especially due to the fact that vocabulary does not appear to be related to the reading section. Last, for textbook three, none of the activities have seemed to provide a deep level of processing, since activities from units 4A and 6A induce *no need, no search and no evaluation*, as they have been “glossed in the text but irrelevant to the (reading) task” (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001, p.18). As for unit 8A, the activity seems to induce *moderate need, no search and no evaluation*, for being “glossed in the text and relevant to the task” (p.18).

Next, see the results on the perceptions on vocabulary, according to professors and students of the English course.

4.2. ON PROFESSOR'S PERCEPTIONS

This section is dedicated to reporting the results obtained via recorded interviews with professors of the Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures of the English Course of the Federal University of Santa Catarina, as already mentioned in the method. Their answers are organized into five sub-topics: (1) on the importance of vocabulary for L2 reading; (2) on incidental vocabulary acquisition; (3) on students' lack of vocabulary knowledge; (4) on how vocabulary is approached in reading; and (5) on the types of activities. These topics are organized according to the questions asked in the interviews. The participants will be called P1, P2, P3, P4 and P5, short for professor. Also, the professors will be referred with the genderless singular pronoun as *s/he* and *her/his*, to avoid sexism and to preserve the identity of the participants. Furthermore, the sentences uttered by the participants will appear between quotes. Next, the results on their perceptions regarding L2 vocabulary knowledge for reading in English are presented.

4.2.1. On the importance of vocabulary for L2 reading

The first question of the interview concerned professors' opinions on the importance of knowing vocabulary in order to read in a second language. The rationale behind this question relies on the established role of vocabulary knowledge for reading comprehension (to name a few authors: Gagné et al., 1993; Grabe, 2009; Laufer 2017a; 2017b; Stahal & Nagy, 2006; Tumolo 1999; 2007).

The first professor interviewed, henceforth P1, considers vocabulary knowledge very important, and highlights what *s/he* likes to call as reciprocal causation. In P1's words, "the more vocabulary knowledge you have, the better the comprehension, the better the reading, the more reading you have, the better the comprehension, the more vocabulary you develop". In fact, the 'reciprocal causation' mentioned by P1 can be found in Stanovich's article from 1986, in which he presents some initial evidence of the reciprocal causation (Stanovich, 1986). According to him, the relation is causal due to the fact that vocabulary knowledge determines reading comprehension,

and “reading is a significant contributor to the growth of vocabulary” (Stanovich, 1986, p. 379). Nowadays, in fact, it is widely accepted in the field that vocabulary knowledge is a predictor of reading comprehension (Laufer, 1992; Gagné et al., 1993; Stahal & Nagy, 2006; Tumolo, 1999; 2007) as well as reading increases vocabulary knowledge (Laufer, 2017a; 2017b).

In addition to that, P1 highlights the motivational aspect of knowing the words in a text, “the better you feel that you can understand the text, the more motivated you are to the reading task”. This motivation, according to P1, leads learners to develop more vocabulary. Simply put, P1 endorses that “the more you read a text in English, the more motivated you are, the more you are exposed to the language, the more you acquire vocabulary in a very implicit way, because you expose yourself to the language”. In fact, motivated readers seem to be better readers and more strategic too, according to Grabe (2009). Moreover, being strategic is fundamental for learning from text (Just & Carpenter, 1987).

The second professor interviewed (P2) seems to have a similar view, since s/he claims that “vocabulary knowledge is crucial for language use, both language comprehension and language production, be it in one’s L1 or L2”. P2 explains that vocabulary is the most important aspect of language, for one cannot form a sentence without words, meaning that vocabulary precedes syntax. In fact, research has shown that in reading comprehension “learners rely on word meaning first, then on their knowledge of the subject and least of all on syntax” (Laufer & Sim, 1985a; 1985b as cited in Laufer 1992). As opposed to that, Gagné et al. (1993) describe that fluent L1 readers make use of both lower- and higher-comprehension processes in parallel, whenever needed, meaning that in literal comprehension, both lexical access (word meaning identification) and parsing (syntax) can be employed at the same time.

P2 also said that without vocabulary, communication would be impossible. In fact, Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2014) say that knowing a language means knowing the words of that language, but that does not guarantee communication, since by only using isolated words “you would not be able to form the simplest phrases or sentences in the language, or understand a native speaker” (p. 5). Words are central to human language, but they are not the whole picture.

The third professor interviewed (P3) reinforces that the role of vocabulary for reading is evident, but also highlights that learners use different strategies in order to cope with vocabulary demands. P3 seems to agree with P2 in the sense that vocabulary is important for language in general, therefore, s/he does not deal with vocabulary for specific purposes, that is, s/he does not spend much time on teaching words for reading. In this regard, it seems that P3 sides with those researchers that believe that ‘vocabulary-through-input-only’ is enough for vocabulary acquisition. As a matter of fact, a combination of input, instruction, and involvement seem to be the ingredient for second language vocabulary acquisition (Laufer, 2017b). Despite P3’s claim s/he does not emphasize vocabulary much, s/he acknowledges that some interesting things could be done with vocabulary.

The fourth professor (P4) also agrees that vocabulary is relevant, however, s/he notes that due to reading being considered a passive skill, learners might take advantage of the context to infer the meaning of unknown words. P4 added that in speaking and writing, for instance, it is more challenging to cope with lack of vocabulary knowledge than it is with reading. In the literature of vocabulary, this distinction is called receptive and productive⁴⁷, in the sense that “receptive carries the idea that we receive language input from others through listening or reading and try to comprehend it, productive that we produce language forms by speaking and writing to convey messages to others” (p. 24). Nevertheless, it has been established in the field of reading that rather than passive (or receptive), reading is an interactive process in two senses: first, it is the interaction between the reader and the text (Aebersold & Field, 1997) and also fluent reading employs interaction of many knowledge sources, as proposed by Rumelhart (1985).

The fifth and last professor (P5) states that her/his views as a professor are based on a functional approach to language. P5 explains that s/he puts her/his students to a contextualization of the topic in order to bring them to the context of that topic in the pre-reading section. In this sense, P5 believes that learners’ knowledge of vocabulary will be activated as they get familiar with the topic of the reading. However, research has shown that background

⁴⁷ Nation (2001) explains that some authors call it active and passive as synonyms for productive and receptive, respectively.

knowledge did not seem to compensate for lack of vocabulary knowledge (Stahl, Jacobson, Davis & Davis, 1989). This finding suggests that vocabulary knowledge was useful for the macrostructure of the text in detriment to the microstructure⁴⁸ (Stahl et al., 1989). In fact, P5 emphasizes that dealing with separate words is her/his last resource, meaning that s/he tries to make her/his students comprehend the whole, or in her/his words “to get the message within the context” without having to understand every single word.

In sum, it is possible to assert that all of the professors seem to agree on the importance of vocabulary for language use as a whole. However, some believe that vocabulary deserves some attention in their classrooms, while others emphasize that vocabulary should arise as a result of communication. In fact, incidental vocabulary acquisition is the topic of the next section.

4.2.2. On incidental vocabulary acquisition

The second question of the interview concerned professors’ perceptions on acquiring vocabulary as a result of reading large amounts of material, that is, incidental vocabulary acquisition. The rationale behind this question arose out of several studies on incidental vocabulary acquisition (to state a few, Laufer 2005; 2017a; 2017b).

P1 believes that the more one reads, the more vocabulary one acquires, as mentioned in the previous section. Moreover, s/he adds that both general and field specific vocabulary should be repeated in an optimal interval. In this sense, research has shown that learning is conditional upon spaced intervals (Anderson, 2000; Ullman & Lovelett, 2016). In other words, “in order to remember material for long periods of time, it is important to study the material at widely spaced interval”, as stated by Anderson (2000). Research has suggested that spacing is effective for many domains, including vocabulary learning (see Ullman & Lovellet, 2016 for a complete account on domains).

⁴⁸ Macrostructure involves selection of propositions as important, and through such selection, the development of a macrostructure, which is similar to a summary (Stahl et al., 1989, p. 40).

P2 believes that we do learn words incidentally, in fact, s/he brings to the discussion the issue of awareness. P2 observes that it is difficult to claim that there is such thing as learning vocabulary totally implicitly, or in her/his own words, “I think you can learn vocabulary somehow incidentally or with very little attention, or at least with no intention of learning vocabulary, it doesn’t mean that you’re not attending to language. You are attending to language, but your objective is not learning vocabulary”. In this regard, arguments have already been presented in favor of incidental vocabulary acquisition – learning without intention, while doing something else (Laufer, 2017b; Ortega, 2013). In fact, Ortega (2013) argues that “lack of priori intentions to learn while doing something else does not rule out the possibility that, in the course of processing, attention may be deliberately turned to the input” (p. 94). In addition to that, the benefits of Focusing on Form (attend to vocabulary to fulfill a communicative task) have already been mentioned along this work for vocabulary acquisition (see Chapter two, for a complete account on Laufer, 2005; Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015).

P3 seems to agree with both P1 and P2, for s/he suggested that “the more that you read, the more vocabulary you’ll have, but that happens in the first language that you learn, the second, the third...”. P3 also highlights that people do not read that much nowadays, so incidental learning could happen through watching movies and engaging in different types of activities of language use.

P4 says that incidental vocabulary learning is good, and s/he seems to agree with Nation (2001) on the fact that learners might guess incorrectly. S/he brings up the issue of what actually means to know a word by saying that:

there is a risk of getting this imprecise knowledge and then you think you know the word and then you actually don’t know all the different shades that the word has, semantic meanings, or slightly different usages in terms of whether you can use it in English and the kind of message that you are exactly communicating when you select certain words (recorded interview, P4, June 26, 2017).

In this sense, Nation (2001; 2014) argues that one needs to know at least 95% of the words in the text in order to make a correct lexical inference.

Last, P5 asserts that incidental learning is a good start, but it might not be enough for reading. In fact, Ortega (2013) claims that people do learn words by reading, but “people learn faster, more and better when they learn deliberately or with intention” (p. 107). P5 believes that the best way to learn vocabulary is incidentally. When asked by the researcher whether s/he did not teach vocabulary due to her/his belief that vocabulary was best acquired incidentally, P5 was emphatic to examine that “English is out there”, meaning that lexical input is best learned in an incidental manner. P5 seems to side with those researchers who believe that the only and best way to learn vocabulary is through massive exposure to the language (see Chapter two and Laufer, 2017a for a review).

In a nutshell, it seems that the professors have some level of agreement on the effectiveness of incidental vocabulary acquisition, or put another way, they overall agree that it is effective but they tend to disagree in the way this effectiveness takes place. For instance, P1 and P3 believe that the more one reads, the more vocabulary one will acquire, but P1 believes spaced repetition is needed, and P3 believes other kinds of input could help in acquiring vocabulary for reading. P2, in contrast, brings to question the issue of awareness, that is, whether learners are aware they are paying attention to the input (Ortega, 2013). P4 seems to endorse instruction, since, in her/his view, inferring meanings from context should be done cautiously. Last, P5 emphasizes that words are exclusively picked up from context. In fact, among the professors of the English course, the pendulum swings from those who believe in vocabulary-through-input, the ones who defend word-focused instruction and those who stand in the middle, that is, input plus instruction. Next, it is reported how professors deal with their students’ lack of vocabulary knowledge.

4.2.3. On students’ lack of L2 vocabulary knowledge

The third question of the interview addressed professors’ strategies towards their students’ lack of vocabulary knowledge during reading classes.

P1 reported using two major strategies for learners’ vocabulary development. The first strategy consists of using a topic related textbook, therefore, vocabulary is connected to the topic of the lesson. In P1’s words, “some of the words, or words that might

be part of their vocabulary in development are the words related to the topic, which are to be from the same semantic field”. Essentially, P1 seems to side with the longstanding belief in the lexicon field that words are stored (and activated) in semantic fields (Aitchison, 1987; Miller & Fellbaum, 1991). In addition to that, P1 says that using a topic related textbook might be positive since the words are repeated along the units, which according to her/him, would contribute for learners’ vocabulary development, in line with the spacing effect for word acquisition (Anderson, 2000; Ullman & Lovelett, 2016).

The second strategy consists of building tasks on Moodle⁴⁹, in which learners are expected to read and write about a given topic. According to P1, “you would have something very short to be read, and based on that you’d write also something short”. Still according to P1, “my purpose is to get them involved in reading and writing about the topic and hope that, by exposing themselves, by exposing repeatedly to words within the same semantic field, they would naturally, spontaneously, implicitly learn that”. In fact, a recent study has shown the effectiveness of writing for vocabulary acquisition (Rassaei, 2017). Summarizing and using the target words was one of the conditions of the experiment, whose findings suggest that “summarizing after reading a text and incorporating unfamiliar vocabulary items in the summary enhance L2 vocabulary knowledge” (p. 89).

Similar to P1, P2 reported using two strategies to manage learners’ lack of vocabulary knowledge. The first strategy consists in trying to convince learners that it is not necessary to know all the words in the text under the argument that “there are 99% chances that you find words that you don’t understand in this piece of reading, you read now, but try to circumvent that lack of specific vocabulary and still try to make sense”. Indeed, the amount of words needed for comprehension depends on the goals for reading (Aebbersold & Field, 1997). The second strategy consists in pre-teaching vocabulary if s/he realizes that vocabulary might hinder

⁴⁹ Moodle stands for “Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment” and consists of a learning platform designed for learning environments (About Moodle, n.d.). The main goal of using Moodle at UFSC is to facilitate teaching/learning, communication between students and professors and other aspects involved in this process (Política de uso, Moodle UFSC, n.d.).

comprehension, in line with Aebersold and Field (1997) who believe that teachers must consider which vocabulary learners already know in order to incorporate vocabulary for learners to comprehend the text.

Interestingly, P2 reported raising learners' awareness of how vocabulary learning takes place by explaining to her/his learners that "if you know these ten plus the rest of the knowledge you already have, I think you can go through this piece of reading and do whatever you need with it". Raising learners' awareness regarding the process of vocabulary acquisition has shown to be a powerful tool, as observed by research in the area (Nation, 2001; Sökmen, 1997). In fact, Nation has dedicated a whole section of his book to presenting the importance of being an autonomous learner (2001; 2013).

As opposed to P2's approach to dealing with students' deficiencies, P3 believes that learners lacking vocabulary knowledge means "lack of contact with the language, in all aspects". In her/his view, it is interesting to teach chunks of language instead of isolated words, or even working with reading strategies connected to vocabulary, such as false cognates and inferring meaning from context. Last, P3 emphasizes that vocabulary for reading should be learned incidentally, since s/he emphasizes that learners have to read more.

Different from the other professors, P4 reported trying to select texts that are not overwhelming for students to read, meaning, s/he controls for text difficulty. In her/his own words:

I think I'm more concerned about vocabulary when I do the text selection. So, I choose something that is not just way too much for the student with lots of new words, in that sense, or if the text has a lot of new words, so maybe I would break it into some smaller pieces, so, depending, of course, on the proficiency level of the group (recorded interview, P4, June 26, 2017).

In fact, this statement seems to bring up the issue of using authentic texts (retrieved from original sources) and/or modified texts (adapted according to learners' proficiency), according to Aebersold and Field (1997). The argument is that both can be useful and effective, it all depends of the goal(s) of the teacher/learner.

Last, P5 described that her/his reading lesson begins with a pre-reading activity, followed by a during-reading task. According to P5, when her/his learners struggle with vocabulary, s/he advises them not to get attached to every single word. If comprehension still suffers, then s/he advises them to check word meanings in a dictionary. P5's view resembles P2's attitudes towards learners' difficulties. Again, as it has been said, it all depends on the goals of the reading.

Interestingly, P5 also reported avoiding translation in her classes. S/he said that after reading the text, s/he likes to elicit from students the words they did not understand, so then s/he can explain by giving examples, since s/he avoids translating into Portuguese. The debate concerning whether to use translation or not in classrooms seems endless. Simply put, "Translation has the advantages of being quick, simple, and easily understood. Its major disadvantage is that its use may encourage other use of the first language that seriously reduces the time available for use of the second language" (Nation, 2001, p. 85).

Overall, it is possible to infer that most professors believe teaching learners to use strategies to cope with lack of vocabulary knowledge is useful in reading lessons. Moreover, P1 also believes topic-related lessons help building vocabulary knowledge. P2 and P5 agree on pre-teaching selected words, while P4 carefully designs her/his reading lesson in order to avoid overwhelming learners with lots of vocabulary.

4.2.4. On how vocabulary is approached in reading

This question addressed how professors present (or not) vocabulary in reading lessons. P1 has reported several manners of approaching vocabulary. The first one entails using a textbook which is topic related, so according to her/him, words appear naturally as learners engage in the reading unit. The second one regards the use of forums on Moodle, in which learners are expected to read and write about a certain topic. P1 explains that the purpose "is to get them involved in reading and writing about the topic and hope that, by exposing themselves, by exposing repeatedly to words, within the same semantic field, they would naturally, spontaneously, implicitly learn that". Overall, it seems that P1 designs tasks in which learning

words comes as a result of communicating (FonF by Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015).

P2 has also reported using a textbook which is topic related. While P1 believes that by being topic related, learners might grasp vocabulary for reading and writing, P2 has a different view, for s/he approaches vocabulary in a pre-reading moment of the class, always trying to activate learners' background knowledge of the lexical items. P3 has also reported brainstorming as a resource of activating learners' background knowledge of vocabulary. In fact, "when students are asked to draw on their background knowledge, they connect the new word with the already known words, the link is created, and learning takes place" (Sökmen, 1997, p. 241).

Similar to P1, P3 strongly believes vocabulary arises as a result of reading. In fact, both believe that learners are responsible for their vocabulary learning. To be more precise, P1 reported s/he usually asks learners to build a glossary on Moodle with the words they have learned in each unit, while P3 emphasizes that learners can help each other construct meaning, and they have to build their own strategies for dealing with lack of vocabulary knowledge. This view is strongly supported by research (to mention a few, Sökmen, 1997; Nation 2001). To exemplify, Sökmen (1997) reports that at some point of the learning process, learners realize their active participation, classmates' collaboration and personal, quiet, and self-reflective periods are extremely important.

Different from previous statements, P4 usually starts the reading lesson asking learners to read for main ideas, followed by some comprehension questions, and then, as a final step s/he focuses on vocabulary. Setting the goal for reading is of utmost importance, as several authors in the reading field endorse (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Davies, 1995; Tomitch, 2002). In other words, reading without a purpose might lead to reading in a bottom-up approach, hindering the construction of a mental representation of the text (Tomitch, 2002). P4 adds that if s/he designs the reading lesson, s/he highlights or uses boldface in the words s/he may focus in the lesson. P4 has also reported helping learners grasp the meaning of words by using the context as a clue.

Resembling P2, P5 reported introducing the topic "and then always brainstorming certain aspects that come to their mind in terms of that topic we're talking about" by building a map to activate learners' background knowledge. This map is written on the board,

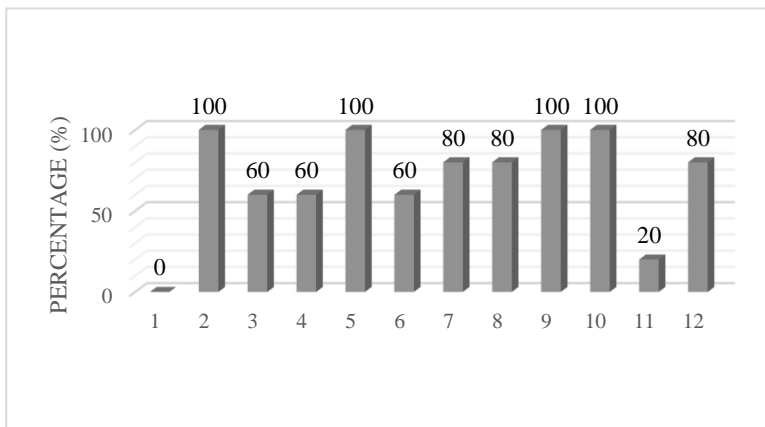
so that learners can visualize the words in case they need them while reading the text. What seems problematic here is the fact that P5 expects that only by activating learners' background knowledge of the topic of the lesson/text is enough. In fact, it has been said that relying solely on topic knowledge might not be enough for vocabulary acquisition (Stahl et al., 1989). With this in mind, it seems that vocabulary deserves instruction in the classroom, so that learners might not suffer comprehending texts.

In sum, it is possible to argue that professors use different resources to approach vocabulary in their reading lessons. For instance, P1 and P3 agree that words come as a result of reading, but P1 believes that by reading and writing about a certain topic would facilitate learners' usage of vocabulary. On the other hand, P2 prefers to pre-teach words, and P5 believes that by building a word map, learners' background knowledge of vocabulary will be activated. Last, P4 reported focusing on comprehension first. Next, we move to the discussion on the types of activities professors believe to be useful for reading lessons.

4.2.5. On the types of activities

The last question of the interview attempted to investigate professors' preferences regarding vocabulary activities used in reading lessons. First, the results will be discussed according to the commonalities among their answers, followed by their comments on their choices. The sheet containing the twelve types of activities is available in Appendix C. The results are displayed in the graph below:

▪ **Graph 1. Professors' perceptions**



Graph 1. Types of activities for reading lessons. 1) using of glossary with translation of key-words; 2) using a glossary with definitions of key-words; 3) pre-teaching target words and practicing using them in a sentence; 4) analyzing semantic features of words; 5) matching words with their definitions; 6) using a dictionary during reading; 7) using a glossary provided before reading; 8) inferring meaning from context; 9) filling in the gaps; 10) semantic mapping; 11) writing sentences; 12) organizing projects and class discussion.

Overall, all of the professors who participated in this study agreed on the provision of a glossary with the definitions of the key words of the text. In particular, P1 noted that besides providing a glossary, s/he has learners build their own glossaries. P3 reported providing the glossary especially if the text is very difficult for learners. P5 added that s/he provides a glossary when dealing with “specific texts that need technical words”. The effectiveness of glossaries with word definition has been extensively shown by research (Laufer, 2005; Nation, 2001).

On the other hand, none of the professors of this sample reported providing a glossary with the translation of the key-words of the text. A possible explanation for this result relies on the knowledge that knowing a word is more than just knowing its translation. Knowing a word means knowing its meaning, written

and spoken forms, the grammatical behavior, the collocations, the register, the associations and frequency (Grabe, 2009).

Regarding matching the words of the text with their definitions, all the professors interviewed seem to agree on the use of matching as a resource in the classroom. In fact, this type of activity has the sole goal of connecting form and meaning (Nation, 2001), which might be a limited resource considering that knowing a word is more than just connecting form to meaning (Grabe, 2009). The bright side is that professors have used this resource cautiously. For instance, P2, P3, and P5 do not feel so strong about it, considering that P2 reported that matching exercises may happen in the classroom, and P3 revealed that it might be an interesting idea for working with vocabulary. Last, P5 highlights using this activity only for teaching technical words, since s/he believes it might be problematic.

Gap filling of target vocabulary using the context as a clue has shown to be another activity used by all the professors that participated in this study, as shown in Graph 1. The goal of gap filling is connecting form and meaning, according to Nation (2001), as it has been mentioned above, it does not seem to be enough for covering what knowing a word encompasses. Once again, there are some particularities regarding this choice. For instance, P1 declared s/he would use this type of activity, but not as a first resource. Besides, s/he has reported s/he has not been using fill-in-the gaps activities lately. P4 reported using this activity “especially for the next class, like giving them a second chance to use the same words, revisiting the words”. Last, P5 has observed that depending on the type of text, s/he would use this type of activity.

Regarding the use of a semantic map, all the professors agreed on the use of it, but under certain circumstances. For instance, P2 recalls having used it, but it is not something s/he does very often, despite being a good idea, according to her/him. Similarly, P3 has acknowledged the importance of elaborating a semantic map. In fact, s/he adds that building maps is also useful for learners to activate background knowledge of the topic. P3 finishes by claiming that s/he would use this activity “just to see how words have similarities”. Last, P4 believes that working with a semantic map is more suitable for speaking than for reading lessons. As it has been pointed out by Sökmen (1997), a semantic map is an effective way of having learners integrating the words they already know with new words.

Concerning the use of glossaries provided before reading the text, 80% of the professors of this study revealed having students use it. Despite having marked this option, P1 has pointed out that the glossary does not have to be necessarily provided before reading. Presenting the glossary before the text may be advantageous in two senses: first, it may be used as a pre-teaching activity; and second, it may provide extra encounters with the target words (Nation, 2001).

In relation to whether professors would tell their students to infer word meanings by context, 80% of the sample agree on this type of activity. In fact, one of the professors of this study (P5) has stated her/his strong belief in this type of activity. Furthermore, it has been mentioned along this work that inferring word meanings is a powerful strategy, however, an influential researcher in the vocabulary field advocates that learners must know at least 95% of the words of the text in order to make the correct guess (Nation, 2001; 2014). In addition to that, Nation (2001) explains the steps for being a strategic inference generator, starting with (1) deciding “on the part of speech of the unknown word”, followed by (2) “looking at the immediate context of the word, simplifying it grammatically if necessary”. After that, learners must (3) “look at the wider context of the word, that is the relationship with adjoining sentences or clauses”, so then (4) they can make the guess and (5) check if the guess is correct (p. 257).

Concerning class discussions about the topic of the text encouraging learners to use the new words, 80% of the professors believe it may be a useful resource. In fact, despite the fact that P1 does not instruct learners to use the new words, s/he highlights that the words may be used while performing the aforementioned task. P2 and P4 share a similar view, for they organize class projects and discussions, but they do not force learners to use the new words, in fact, they encourage them to do so. Both P2 and P4 find this activity hard to control learners’ usage of the new words. Last, P5 has observed s/he “would organize other activities that would be meaningful for them to use the vocabulary”. It is important to remember that having class discussions is a useful resource for post-reading activities (Tomitch, 2009a), and Nation (2001) argues that it is important to revisit the words of the text, so having class discussions in which teachers encourage learners to practice new vocabulary could be a powerful tool.

Concerning pre-teaching target words and using them in a sentence, 60% of the professors believe it might be useful. In fact, P1 said s/he would pre-teach words, and would also ask learners to use them later on, not necessarily as a pre-reading activity. Writing sentences not only provides an extra encounter with the words, but it might also strengthen the memory trace, since in order to write original sentences learners need to evaluate the words in order to use them correctly, as suggested by the task-induced involvement load (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). According to them, this type of task “induces *moderate need, no search, and strong evaluation* because the new words are evaluated against suitable collocations in a learner-generated context” (p. 17). As presented in Chapter two, in order for words to be processed incidentally they should be conditioned upon three factors, to mention, need, search and evaluation. *Need* refers to need to understand word meaning, *search* refers to looking for the meaning of the word, and *evaluation* refers to evaluating whether the given word fits the context.

Regarding the analysis of semantic features of the words, 60% of the professors side with this type of activity. As Sökmen (1997) suggested, analyzing semantic features of the words requires learners to integrate their previous knowledge of vocabulary with new words, while discriminating word meaning. In addition to that, Channel (1981) explains that “vocabulary of a language consists not of a long random list of words, but rather of many interrelating networks of relations between words” (p.117), and the aforementioned activity seems to help in constructing these networks for word acquisition.

As regards to using a dictionary during reading, 60% of professors find it useful. In the literature, there are two arguments on dictionary usage. The first argument brings evidence on the effectiveness of using dictionaries. For example, Laufer and Rozovski-Roitblat (2015) state that using a dictionary entails some attention to words for performing a communicative task (FonF), a claim which is grounded on several studies (Knight 1994; Lupescu & Day, 1993; Cho & Krashen, 1994 as cited in Laufer, 2005). The second argument, on the other hand, suggests that looking up words in a dictionary interrupts the flow of reading (Finger-Kratochvil, 2013; Finger-Kratochvil & Carvalho, 2016).

Despite the fact that the results from previous research (Laufer, 2003 for a review; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Augustin-

Llach, 2009; Zou, 2017; among others) have shown the effectiveness of writing sentences with new vocabulary, only 20% of the professors of this study reported using writing sentences as a resource to vocabulary learning.

Next, results on learners' perceptions will be presented.

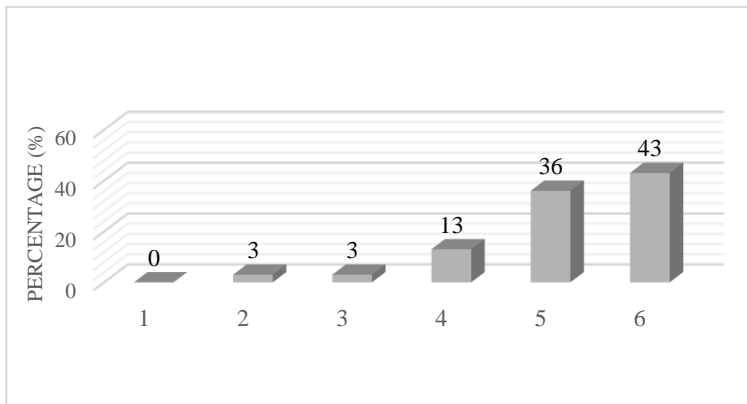
4.3. ON LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS

This section discusses the results obtained through questionnaires applied to undergraduate students of the English Course as part of the objective of investigating learners' perceptions towards vocabulary acquisition. The first part details results obtained by asking learners the importance they would give to knowing vocabulary for reading in English. The second part addresses learners' choice of strategies to deal with unknown words. The third and last part reveals learners' perceptions regarding the most effective activities for dealing with vocabulary.

4.3.1. Perceptions on the importance of vocabulary for reading in English

Question one addresses students' opinion regarding the importance of vocabulary for reading in English. In a Likert scale, one being 'not important at all' and six being 'extremely important', the results are displayed in the graph below:

▪ **Graph 2. Results (%) on the importance of vocabulary for reading in English**



Graph 2. Perceptions regarding learners' perceptions on the importance of knowing vocabulary for reading in English. Degree of importance: 1) not important at all; 2) not very important; 3) somewhat important; 4) important; 5) very important; and 6) extremely important.

From a total of 30 participants, 13 students consider vocabulary as extremely important (43%), 11 students find it very important (36%) and 4 (13%) students think vocabulary is important for reading in English. Only one student finds vocabulary as somewhat important (3%) and one as not very important (3%).

The results have shown that learners recognize the importance of vocabulary for reading in a second language. Put another way, it seems that learners have internalized some sort of belief that knowing vocabulary is important for second language reading. In fact, learners' beliefs seem to influence learning, as Ellis (2008) puts it. Based on these results, it is possible to suggest that learners being aware of the importance of vocabulary, they might pay attention to the input, a *sine qua non* condition for learning (Schmidt, 2001; Baddeley, 1998)⁵⁰.

⁵⁰ See Schmitt's (2001) assertion that attention is relevant for second language acquisition; Baddeley's (1998) claim that one has to attend to input in order to learn from it.

4.3.2. Strategies⁵¹ towards unknown words

In order to investigate learners' strategies towards unknown words while reading a text, options (henceforth, strategies) ranged from 1 to 6. To be more precise, strategy 1 corresponds to 'nothing', meaning that learners do nothing when meeting unknown words in reading. Strategy 2 refers to taking advantage of the context to infer word meaning. Strategy 3 refers to analyzing the word, its written form, pronunciation and grammatical function in the sentence. Strategies 4, 5 and 6 are similar in that they suggest dictionary work, yet different in the sense of when reading must be interrupted to deal with unknown words. In detail, strategy 4 refers to highlighting unknown words, and after reading the text, looking up their meanings in a dictionary. Strategy 5 refers to interrupting reading in order to look up meanings in a dictionary, while strategy 6 refers to interrupting reading in order to look up the meanings of words learners consider relevant for constructing the main idea of the text.

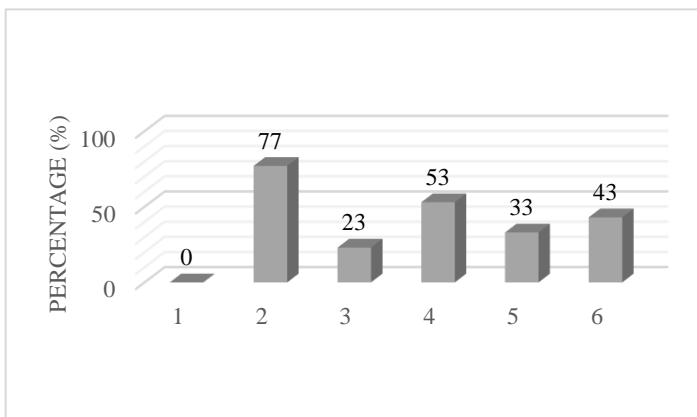
Regarding learners' strategies towards unknown words (summarized in Table 11), inferring word meaning using context has been shown to be learners top strategy (77%). In second place comes highlighting unknown words for checking them in a dictionary only after reading the text (53%), followed by interrupting reading to look up the words that are thought to be relevant for main idea construction (43%). Interrupting reading at any time to consult a dictionary comes in fourth place (33%). Last, seven instances (23%) were given to analyzing the words. Interestingly, all the learners of this sample seem to be aware that vocabulary deserves some attention, considering, first, their variety of answers and second, the zero responses on the action named 'nothing', as summarized in Table 11, below.

⁵¹ In this piece of research, strategies are considered as choices made by learners to help them cope with unknown vocabulary (my definition based on Nation, 2001).

Table 11. Summary of results of strategies towards unknown vocabulary.

Strategies towards unknown vocabulary	No. of answers	%
1. Nothing	0	0%
2. Inferring word meaning from context.	23	77%
3. Trying to analyze the words, e.g. written form pronunciation, and grammatical function in the sentence.	07	23%
4. Highlighting unknown words and after reading, looking up meanings in a dictionary.	16	53%
5. Interrupting reading to consult a dictionary.	10	33%
6. Interrupting reading to consult words that are considered relevant for main idea.	13	43%

▪ **Graph 3. Overall strategies regarding unknown words.**

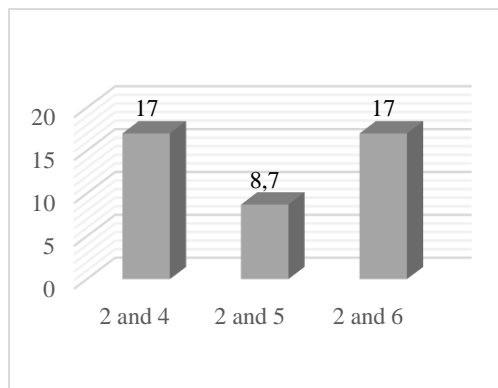


Graph 3. Learners' strategies concerning unknown words while reading. 1) nothing; 2) Inferring word meaning using the context; 3) Analyzing written, pronunciation, and grammatical functions of the word in the sentence; 4) looking up word meaning after reading; 5) looking up word meaning while reading; 6) looking up word meanings of only relevant words for main idea.

A general preference for inferring word meanings (77%) is in consonance with Nation's claim that "incidental learning via guessing from context is the most important of all sources of vocabulary learning" (Nation, 2001, p. 232).

According to the results displayed in Graph 4, 17% of learners who infer word meanings while reading also highlight unknown words to consult a dictionary after reading has finished. In contrast, 17% of learners who usually infer word meaning also look up meanings of words considered important for main idea. In fact, these learners seem to be more strategic than those who interrupt reading (8,7%) to look up unfamiliar words.

▪ **Graph 4. Inferring word meaning and others.**



Graph 4. Learners' strategies concerning unknown words while reading, comprising strategy 2 (inferring word meaning using the context) plus other strategies, to mention, strategy 4 (looking up word meaning after reading); strategy 5 (looking up word meaning while reading); and strategy 6 (looking up word meanings of only relevant words for main idea).

As already mentioned, Nation (2001; 2014) argues that inferring word meaning from context is effective, but he also calls attention for certain constraints on this strategy, in the sense that learners must know at least 95% of the words in order to make a correct guess. However, it is interesting to point out that besides

inferring word meanings, learners reported using the dictionary, suggesting that they might be balancing among strategies, which might be positive for learning, since “the higher strategy use may be a result of learners’ awareness of the importance of vocabulary” (Schmitt, 1997, p. 201).

Results have also suggested learners’ strategic behavior concerning dictionary use, for 53% highlight words to consult a dictionary after reading, and 43% reported interrupting reading to consult a dictionary for relevant words for comprehension. Despite this interruption in reading caused by dictionary search, this is not considered negative if done cautiously (Finger-Kratochvil, 2013; Finger-Kratochvil & Carvalho, 2016). According to Miller and Gildea (1987), using the dictionary “requires considerable sophistication”, for learners have to interrupt reading to find an unfamiliar word in an alphabetical list while keeping mind the mental representation of the text can be considered a “high level cognitive task” (p. 97).

Put another way, learners must know when reading deserves to be interrupted for dealing with unknown words, which is the case of learners who only look up words they find relevant for main idea and look up words after reading the text. On the other hand, extensive research has shown the important role assigned to dictionary use, since it “involves attention to words in order to complete a communicative task” (Laufer, 2017b).

Last, 23% of the participants reported analyzing the words, their written form, pronunciation and grammatical functions. In fact, this result suggests that learners remain focused at lower-level comprehension processes, to mention decoding and literal comprehension. Alptekin and Erçetin (2011) suggested that relying on literal comprehension is detrimental to comprehension, since learners “fail to call on higher-level conceptual processes of reading” (p 236).

Overall, these results have demonstrated that learners are strategic regarding unknown words, since they use more than just one strategy to cope with their lack of vocabulary.

4.3.3. Perceptions on the types of activities

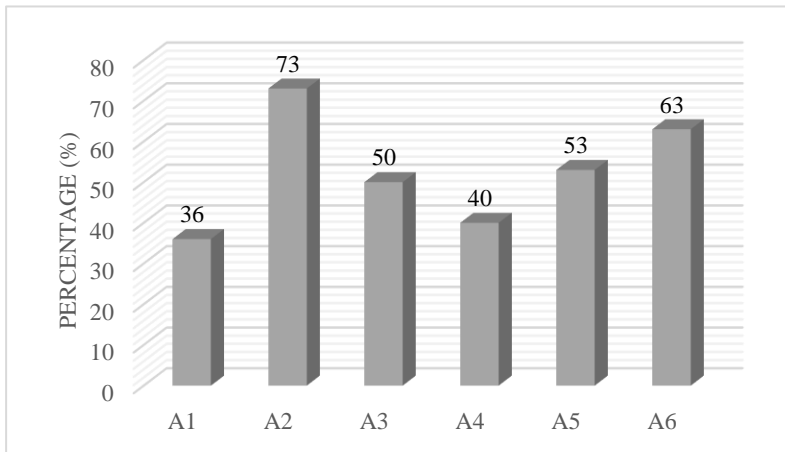
This section reports the results obtained by asking learners which activities they considered most effective for vocabulary

learning. Results depicted in Table 12 and Graph 5 demonstrate a general preference for using a glossary with the definitions of the key-words of the text (73%). Secondly, sentence-writing accounted for 19 of responses (63%). Thirdly, filling in the blanks of the text with the suitable words corresponded to 16 of responses (53%). Fourthly, 15 responses (50%) were assigned to matching the words with their suitable definitions. As for the fifth favorite option, using a dictionary accounted for 12 responses (40%). Last, only 11 participants (36%) reported glossary with word translation as effective.

Table 12. Summary of results on the types of vocabulary activities.

On the types of activities	Number of answers	%
A1. Glossary with translations of key words of the text.	11	36%
A2. Glossary with the definitions of key words of the text.	22	73%
A3. Matching the words with their definitions.	15	50%
A4. Consulting a dictionary for unknown words.	12	40%
A5. Filling-in-the-blanks of the text with target words.	16	53%
A6. Sentence writing with the target words.	19	63%

▪ **Graph 5. Perceptions on the types of activities**



Graph 5. Perceptions on the types of activities.

A1) Glossary with translation; A2) glossary definition; A3) matching form and meaning; A4) Dictionary use; A5) Fill-in-the-blanks exercises; and A6) Sentence writing.

Results demonstrate that 73% of participants find glossaries with definitions effective, while 36% find glossaries with translations effective. Regardless of their nature, learners' perceptions seem to be in consonance with the literature on glossary use for reading. To be more precise, using glossaries have been shown to be effective, as research has shown (Yoshii, 2006; Nation, 2001; and Laufer, 2005 for a review). For instance, Yoshii (2006) has found no differences in terms of either L1 or L2 glossaries for vocabulary learning. Moreover, glossaries avoid interruptions while reading (Nation, 2001).

In this regard, these results have some interesting findings. The first one suggests that both professors (100% of the sample, see Graph 1) and learners (73% of the sample, see Graph 5) agree on the use of glossaries with the definition of words. The second finding suggests that while none of the professors rely on the use of glossaries with translations, 36% of learners believe they are effective.

This piece of research has also shown that 63% of participants seem to regard sentence-writing as an effective tool for learning vocabulary, while only 20% of professors reported using so. As it has been declared, research has extensively shown the positive role of sentence writing for vocabulary retention (see Chapter two for a review on Laufer, 2003; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Augustín-Llach, 2009; Zou, 2017). Similarly, 36% of learners consider glossaries with L1 translations as effective, while none of the professors believe so. Again, results have shown that professors preferences differ from learners’.

Results have suggested that 53% of participants find filling in the blanks of the text with the target words effective. In fact, this type of activity was first used to measure learners’ readability of texts (Read, 2000), but then, it has been shown to draw on learners “higher-level textual competence” (Alderson, as cited in Read, 2000). In other words, learners would have to resort to higher level comprehension processes in order to comprehend the text, so that they would be able to fill in the gaps with the appropriate words. As in similar cases, professors (100% of the sample, see Graph 1) agree on the use of gap filling, a little more than half of the learners who participated in this study (53% as shown in Graph 5).

Regarding matching words with their definitions, results have demonstrated that 50% of learners believe it is effective for learning, while 100% of professors believe so. As a matter of fact, this type of activity demands noticing and retrieving the lexical item, depending on the learner’s background knowledge of the word. In fact, it could be considered “pure FonFs activities require learners to work with isolated words that are not related to any meaning-based task” (Laufer, 2005, p. 238). Granted that, the author defends that FonFs is necessary, for input alone cannot fully account for L2 vocabulary learning.

Last, 40% of learners from this sample find the dictionary useful for learning, while 60% of professors believe so. Evidence coming from previous research suggest that “students who read a text and looked up unknown words in the dictionary remembered better than students who read a text without a dictionary” (Lupescu & Day, 1993; Knight, 1994 as cited in Laufer, 2005, p. 228). In addition to that, dictionary use is one of the most reliable sources for clearing up doubts (Finger-Kratochvil & Carvalho, 2016). Another key aspect, consulting word meaning in a dictionary might prevent

learners from making incorrect guesses regarding vocabulary (Nation, 2001). However, if reading is constantly interrupted for checking the dictionary, then comprehension might suffer. In this sense, Finger-Kratochvil and Carvalho (2016) suggest that learners should use the dictionary wisely, that is, other strategies should be used to avoid overreliance on dictionary search.

Participants also had the opportunity to report additional information regarding the types of activities. From a total of 30 participants, only three made some comments. Participant 09 mentioned s/he learns best when having to use vocabulary in speaking. Participant 20 reported making a list of words with their respective synonyms. Last, participant 30 added that matching words with their definitions, consulting dictionaries, gap filling and sentence writing should be used to add variety in the classroom, since using only one of these activities would not motivate her/him to learn. Participant 30 ends up by saying that “I think an activity that involves production at the end, such as using the new words in a sentence in the end of the learning cycle is a must”.

Overall, the results suggest that learners are somehow aware of the types of activities that enhance vocabulary learning and also help to cope with unknown words, since all of the learners’ responses seem to match the literature on vocabulary acquisition. For instance, using glossaries has been shown as positive for vocabulary acquisition (Laufer, 2005; Nation, 2001), and in this particular study, a great preference for this activity has been shown, since all the professors agreed on its use, so did 73% of the learners. In contrast, using translations in glossaries neither seems to be professors’ nor learners’ favorite activity (0% and 36%, respectively). These results suggest that learners are aware that knowing a word is more than only connecting form to meaning (Grabe, 2009). Regarding isolated work with vocabulary (FonFs), matching words with their definitions (preferred by 50% of learners by 100% of teachers), and gap filling with target vocabulary (100% of professors and of 53% learners), literature has shown that pure FonFs tasks are necessary, since overreliance on input might not be enough for acquisition (Laufer, 2005). Despite the fact that looking up word meanings while reading can interrupt the reading process, consulting a dictionary may prevent learners from making incorrect word guessing (Nation, 2001), and it might enhance word learning (Laufer, 2005). Therefore, dictionary use still has its place in the classroom, as results have

shown (60% for professors and 40% for learners). Last, while 20% of professors adopt sentence writing, 63% of learners find it effective, and indeed, research has shown its positive role in acquisition (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Laufer, 2003 to mention a few). Next, we move to the conclusions of professors' and learners' perceptions.

4.3.4. Conclusions on professors' and learners' perceptions

This section is devoted to answering the research questions related to professors' and learners' perceptions towards vocabulary and reading. The seventh research question of this study aimed to find out *what were undergraduate professors' perceptions regarding vocabulary instruction and its relevance to L2 reading comprehension*. Results have shown that all the professors who participated in this study seem to agree on the importance of vocabulary for language use. Results have also shown that professors seem to agree that incidental vocabulary acquisition occurs, but some of them believe the best way to learn new words is through language input. In addition to that, results have led us to infer that learners should be able to build strategies in order to cope with lack of vocabulary knowledge for reading in L2. Another interesting finding is that each of the professors who took part of this study seem to approach vocabulary in their own way, according to their beliefs as professors and/or researchers. The last findings of this study regard the most used types of activities among them, to mention, using glossaries with definitions, matching words with their definitions, gap filling and semantic mapping reached 100% of agreement. As for inferring word meanings and glossary use (provided before reading), results have shown 80% of agreement. Pre-teaching words and using them in sentences, analyzing semantic features of words, and dictionary use while reading reached 60% of agreement. The least preferred resources are writing sentences (20%) and glossaries with translations (0%).

The eighth and last research question aimed at finding *what were undergraduate students' perceptions regarding vocabulary learning and its relevance to L2 reading comprehension*. Results have shown that most of the undergraduate learners who participated in this study believe that vocabulary is important for L2

reading comprehension. Results have also shown that learners are strategic when dealing with unknown words. As for their perceptions regarding vocabulary activities, glossary with definitions reached 73% of their choices, followed by sentence-writing (63%).

The next Chapter details the final remarks of this study, limitations, suggestions for further research and the pedagogical implications.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINAL REMARKS, LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY, SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH, AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This Chapter presents the final remarks of this study followed by its limitations and suggestions for further research. Finally, the pedagogical implications are presented.

5.1. FINAL REMARKS

The main goals of this study were to analyze the vocabulary activities of EFL textbooks used in and undergraduate course aiming to investigate the relationship of the activities with the reading section of the textbooks, and to report undergraduate professors' and students' perceptions towards the vocabulary-reading pair.

In order to achieve the first aforementioned goal, specific objectives were set, as follows: (1) examining whether the vocabulary activities are linked to the reading section of textbooks and how this relation happens; (2) investigating what type of componential reading processes the activities foster: lower-level (decoding and lexical access) and higher-level (inferential comprehension and comprehension monitoring); (3) demonstrating how vocabulary is presented in the reading section of textbook units, whether before, during and/or after the text; finding out what type of activity the vocabulary is inserted in (fill-in-the-blanks, synonym-antonym, etc.); and whether there are any glossaries and/or suggestion for dictionary use; (4) reporting what type of words the activities focus on, for instance, frequent words, false cognates, words that are part of main/secondary ideas in the reading section; (5) calculating the number of encounters with the words in order to examine whether there are opportunities for learners to meet the words in several language contexts; (6) investigating whether the vocabulary activities promote a deep level of processing for word retention; and last (7) estimating whether the activities help activating learners' background knowledge of the words, and verify

whether they help establishing a network of association for better word retention.

In order to reach the second aforementioned goal, specific objectives were set. First, it was aimed to report undergraduate professors' perceptions regarding the importance of vocabulary knowledge for reading comprehension. Second, it was aimed to report undergraduate students' perceptions in regards to the relevance of vocabulary knowledge for reading comprehension.

The method used for achieving the specific goals related to the textbooks consisted in a framework designed by this researcher, based on results of previous studies (to mention a few, Gagné et al., 1993; Sökmen, 1997; Laufer 1990; 2001; 2005; 2017a; 2017b; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). As for the second goal of obtaining undergraduate learners' and professors' perceptions on the relationship between reading a vocabulary, structured interviews were carried out with five professors of the Letras course, and questionnaires were applied to undergraduate learners. Both were elaborated taking into account previous studies on vocabulary and/or reading (to mention a few, Laufer 2001; 2017a; 2017b; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015; Nation (2001).

Aiming to achieve the goal of analyzing EFL textbooks, three textbooks available on the course plan of UFSC's English undergraduate course were selected, from which three units were analyzed from textbooks 1 and 3, and two units from textbook two. As for the perceptions on reading and vocabulary, five professors and thirty undergraduate students took part in this study. Data from the perceptions were both analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively.

Results from analyzing textbooks have allowed to answer the research questions, as follows:

R1. What is the relationship of the vocabulary activities with the reading section of the EFL textbooks used at UFSC's English undergraduate course?

The activities of textbook one have shown to be related not only to the reading section of the textbook, complying with the objectives of the textbook, which also focused on writing activities. As for textbook two, the activities were not connected to the reading section and vocabulary work did not seem to have a clear goal. As for

textbook three, all of the vocabulary activities were somehow connected to the reading sections.

R2. What are the componential reading processes the vocabulary activities foster? Results from textbook one have demonstrated that all the activities could be used as glossaries, meaning that more attentional resources could be devoted to making inferences and monitoring comprehension. As for textbook two, since the words of the activities have not shown to be related to the reading section, they might not help reading. As for textbook three, the words being related to the reading section suggests that they might foster higher-level comprehension processes.

R3. How is the vocabulary presented in the reading section? Results have shown that, in textbook one, there has been a preference for directing learners to infer word meanings. In addition to that, all the analyzed units seemed to have some sort of activity that could be used as glossary. For textbooks two and three, it was observed the exclusive use of form-meaning exercises.

R4. What is the main focus of the vocabulary activities? Regarding word frequency, results have shown that textbook one approached a good variety of highly-frequent words, considering the figure of 13 highly frequent words out of 33. As for textbook two, only 11 highly-frequent words were approached out of 52 words of the sample analyzed. Last, for textbook three, most of the approached words were not highly-frequent, considering only 2 highly-frequent words out of 25. Regarding false-cognates, results have shown that textbook one presented two false cognates, and both textbooks two and three presented one each. Whether words are part of main/secondary ideas of the text, results have shown that words presented before reading in textbook one are relevant both for main and secondary ideas of the text. For textbook two, on the other hand, vocabulary might be useful for main/secondary idea(s) identification, but in fact, some of them can be easily inferable. As for textbook three, the target words do not seem to be highly

relevant for main/secondary ideas, they seem to have a complementary role.

R5. How many encounters do the textbooks provide with the words? Taking into consideration the figure of six to more than twenty encounters being ideal for word retention (Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015), most of the words approached in textbook one appear in different contexts, allowing a great range of encounters with them along the unit. The downside, however, is that they are presented only in the unit they have been introduced in the first place. In other words, it would be ideal that these words appeared in different units, to have some sort of spaced intervals. As for textbooks two and three, they fail to provide both a great deal of opportunities for meeting the words and spacing intervals between encounters.

R6. Do the activities promote a deep level of processing for word retention? Results have shown that only the activities in textbook one promote a deep level of processing for word retention, analyzed from the view of Laufer and Hulstijn's (2001) task induced involvement load.

R7. What are undergraduate professors' perceptions regarding vocabulary instruction and its relevance to L2 reading comprehension? Firstly, all of the professors of this sample appear to agree that vocabulary is important for language use. Secondly, they also agree that incidental vocabulary acquisition takes place, yet some professors are more inclined towards a view it is the best way to learn new words for language use. Thirdly, it is possible to infer that most of the professors think that building strategies is the best way to circumvent lack of vocabulary in reading in L2. Fourthly, it is possible to describe that each professor has their own way of approaching vocabulary in their reading lessons. Last, using glossaries with definitions, matching words with their definitions, gap filling and semantic mapping reached 100% of agreement among this sample, when asked about best vocabulary activities. Inferring word meanings and glossary use (provided before reading) reached 80% of agreement. Pre-teaching words and using them in sentences, analyzing semantic features of words, and

dictionary use while reading reached 60% of agreement among this sample. The least preferred resources are writing sentences and glossaries with translations, having 20% and 0%, accordingly.

R8. What are undergraduate students' perceptions regarding vocabulary learning and its relevance to L2 reading comprehension? Firstly, most of the undergraduate learners of this sample believe that vocabulary is important for L2 reading comprehension. Secondly, results have shown that learners are strategic when dealing with unknown words. Thirdly, learners' top activities ranged from glossary with definitions (73%), to sentence-writing (63%). Interestingly, both professors and learners find glossary with definitions very relevant. On the other hand, while 63% of learners believe sentence-writing is effective for vocabulary learning, only 20% of professors prefer so.

Next, the limitations of this study will be presented.

5.2. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Despite the carefulness in designing this study, throughout the work some limitations have been observed. Both the limitations and possible suggestions for further research are detailed below.

Regarding the framework for textbook analysis. A limitation found in the framework concerns whether the activities promote a deep level of processing. Despite Laufer and Hulstijn's operationalization of Craig and Lockhart's construct of depth of processing, Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) admit that experimental research is needed to test the validity of such construct. In fact, Zou (2017) describes many studies which found supportive evidence for the involvement load hypothesis (to mention a few, Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Laufer & Girsai, 2008; Nassaji & Hu 2012; Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2011 as cited in Zou, 2017, p. 55). On the other hand, there are also many studies which present counter evidence to the involvement load hypothesis (to state a few, Laufer, 2003; Folse, 2006; Lu, 2013 as cited in Zou, 2017, p. 56). With this in mind, it

would be interesting to investigate the hypothesis posed by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) in a variety of vocabulary activities.

Regarding the instruments for data collection on perceptions. Despite the fact that both questions used in the interviews with professors and the questionnaire for capturing learners' perceptions were elaborated having previous research in mind, they were not piloted prior to data collection. For instance, professors who strongly believe that vocabulary is better acquired incidentally did not seem comfortable in answering what type of vocabulary activity they believe it was best for a reading class. Another possibility would be to have a semi-structured interview, so that the researcher could have changed the questions to fit the situation. For further research, these limitations should be taken into account.

Regarding the vocabulary activities. Despite the careful analysis of the vocabulary activities, it would be interesting to investigate the application of those activities in the classroom environment. Next, the pedagogical implications of this study will be presented.

5.3. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The pedagogical implications of this study will be outlined according to our findings regarding (i) the relationship of the vocabulary activities with the reading section and componential reading processes; (ii) vocabulary presentation in the reading section; (iii) what kinds of words should be approached; (iv) the provision of several encounters; (v) depth of processing; (vi) integration of new words with the old; and (vii) professors' and learners' perceptions.

Regarding the relationship of the vocabulary activities with the reading section and componential reading processes. It has been stated along this study that previous research has found a close link between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. In addition to that, knowing vocabulary entails automatizing lower-level comprehension processes, which frees attentional resources for higher-level comprehension processes, such as making inferences and monitoring comprehension. Therefore,

vocabulary deserves a considerable amount of time in reading lessons, especially for beginner readers. This does not mean, however, that instruction should account for all unknown words, but at least the most frequent, and/or those who are essential for main/secondary ideas of the text.

Regarding vocabulary presentation in the reading section. Literature on language teaching suggests that vocabulary does not need to be always approached before reading. Teachers and material designers may choose different approaches for presenting essential words for the reading unit. However, I advocate that words be presented before reading, so that the number of encounters with these words for memorization is increased, as long as the words are reviewed along the unit/lesson. Textbook one, for instance, has shown that words approached before reading were reinforced throughout the whole unit, while was not the case of textbook two.

Regarding what kinds of words should be approached. Not all words should be approached, as already mentioned. Therefore, the most frequent words, the words that may cause confusion, such as false cognates and words that help identifying main/secondary ideas deserve attention in the classroom. Research has made such claim (e.g. Sökmen, 1997; Nation, 2001) and results of textbook two allow us to make this inference. In other words, it is wondered what would be the purpose of approaching words which are neither frequent, nor essential for reading the text.

Regarding the provision of several encounters. In addition to the aforementioned aspects, words should be approached from six to more than twenty times along the units/lessons. Results from this study have shown that this figure is not always respected. Equally important is that words should be presented with some spacing repetition, meaning that words approached in lesson/unit 1 should be reviewed some time later in order to enhance the number of encounters of the words.

Regarding depth of processing. Both textbook two and three have shown that most of the vocabulary activities did not seem to promote a deep level of processing for word retention. Consequently, this means that more elaborative activities, such as

sentence-writing and composition writing could be used as post-reading activities to enable a more creative use of vocabulary.

Regarding professors' and learners' perceptions. It is important that both learners and professors have a dialogue on what activities/strategies should be approached throughout the reading/language courses. The rationale behind this relies on one particular result, in which professors and learners disagreed on sentence-writing, a powerful way of using new words, according to the literature.

The aforementioned pedagogical implications pointed out in this section, besides the ones that this researcher might have missed point out to implications to material designers as well as teachers/professors.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – Invitation to professors (via e-mail)

Prezada (o) Prof. XXX,

Meu nome é Bruno de Azevedo, estudante de Mestrado da UFSC. Faço pesquisa na área de Leitura e Vocabulário sob a orientação da professora Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch.

Convido você para ser participante na pesquisa: “Leitura e Léxico: análise de atividades de vocabulário em livros didáticos de inglês como língua estrangeira em nível universitário e a percepção de professores e alunos sobre a relação leitura e léxico”.

Meu objetivo é analisar as atividades de vocabulário dos livros didáticos do curso de Letras-Inglês da UFSC, além verificar qual é a percepção dos professores e alunos em relação ao conhecimento de vocabulário para sucesso na leitura em inglês. Para que isso aconteça, convido você a ser entrevistada (o) com o intuito de angariar informações sobre a sua percepção no que se refere ao ensino de vocabulário e sua importância na leitura de textos.

Em relação aos riscos ao participar dessa pesquisa, afirmo que são mínimos. O que pode acontecer é um certo desconforto durante a entrevista, uma vez que estarei gravando ao áudio da mesma. Este será utilizado somente pelos pesquisadores e somente para esta pesquisa, ficando guardado pelos pesquisadores pelo prazo de 5 anos, após o qual será destruído.

Em relação sua identidade a mesma não será revelada de forma voluntária; os dados serão confidenciais, ou seja, somente os pesquisadores terão acesso aos nomes dos professores. Apesar de todo o cuidado, não podemos garantir anonimato uma vez que as informações sobre os professores das turmas em cada semestre são públicas, sendo os nomes rastreáveis.

Lembro que sua participação não é obrigatória, e sim, totalmente voluntária. Esse e-mail é um convite. Caso haja a recusa na

participação, a/o professora (o) não será afetada (o) no curso, de modo algum.

Caso deseje cancelar sua participação na pesquisa, garanto que é possível a qualquer momento da pesquisa, e caso haja o cancelamento, não haverá prejuízo algum para a/o professora (o). Isso pode ser feito através do meu telefone (48) 99163 - 1647, e-mail: bruno_de_azevedo@hotmail.com ou bruno.azevedo2901@gmail.com ou pessoalmente.

Caso tenhas alguma dúvida, responderei prontamente no telefone e e-mail acima. O e-mail da minha orientadora é: leda@cce.ufsc.br ou ledatomitch@gmail.com

Ela também pode ser contatada através do seguinte endereço:

Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina - Centro de Comunicação e Expressão – CCE “B” – Sala 109 Campus Universitário – Trindade – Florianópolis – SC – CEP: 88.040-900

Essa pesquisa foi aprovada pelo CEPESH sob o parecer número 2.143.727, cumprindo os termos das resoluções CNS 466/12 e 510/16 e também suas complementares, que são os documentos que normatizam pesquisas como essa no Brasil. Caso aceite participar dessa pesquisa, levarei o termo de consentimento livre e esclarecido (TCLE) presencialmente para leitura e assinatura.

Desde já, agradeço sua atenção!

Atenciosamente,
Bruno de Azevedo.

APPENDIX B – Invitation to students (e-mail sent to professors)

Prezada (o) Prof. XXX,

Como já é de seu conhecimento, estou coletando os dados da minha pesquisa de mestrado - “Leitura e Léxico: análise de atividades de vocabulário em livros didáticos de inglês como língua estrangeira em nível universitário e a percepção de professores e alunos sobre a relação leitura e léxico” – sob orientação da Prof. Lêda Tomitch.

Dessa forma, gostaria de pedir sua permissão para aplicar um questionário com seus alunos da disciplina “Compreensão e Produção Escrita em Língua Inglesa (nº fase)” sobre a percepção deles em relação ao aprendizado de vocabulário para leitura.

Em caso de aceite, vou aplicar o questionário (em anexo) em horário de aula, a ser combinado.

Em caso de dúvidas, posso responder nesse e-mail ou pelo telefone (48) 99163 – 1647. O e-mail da minha orientadora é: leda@cce.ufsc.br ou ledatomitch@gmail.com

Essa pesquisa foi aprovada pelo CEPESH sob o parecer número 2.143.727, cumprindo os termos das resoluções CNS 466/12 e 510/16 e também suas complementares, que são os documentos que normatizam pesquisas como essa no Brasil. Caso aceite participar dessa pesquisa, levarei o termo de consentimento livre e esclarecido (TCLE) presencialmente para leitura e assinatura.

Desde já, agradeço sua atenção!

Atenciosamente, Bruno de Azevedo.

APPENDIX C – Questions used in the structured interview

1. In your opinion, what is the importance of vocabulary knowledge for L2 reading comprehension?
2. What is your opinion regarding incidental vocabulary acquisition, that is, learning new words by reading large amounts of materials?
3. How do you deal with your students' lack of vocabulary knowledge in reading?
4. When you prepare a reading lesson, how do you approach the vocabulary of the text?
5. If you were to select the types of activities to deal with the vocabulary of the text, which ones would you choose? Mark an X next to your answers in the column below:

X	TYPE OF ACTIVITY
	I would provide a glossary with the translation of the key words of the text.
	I would provide a glossary with the definitions of the key words of the text.
	I would pre-teach selected words that will appear in the text and ask students to contextualize them by using the taught words in sentences, for example.
	I would ask students to analyze the semantic features of the words (see figure 1).
	I would have students match the words of the text with their definitions.
	I would have students look up unknown words in the dictionary.
	I would have students use the glossary (provided before reading the text).
	I would tell students to infer the word meanings using the context.
	I would tell students to fill in the gaps with the appropriate words using the context as a clue.
	I would teach them on how to elaborate a semantic map (see figure 2).
	I would have students write sentences using the just-learned words.
	I would organize projects, class discussions about the topic of the text and tell them to try to use the new words.

The topics used in question 6 of the interview were adapted from previous studies on vocabulary acquisition, mainly Laufer (2001; 2005; 2017a; 2017b), Laufer and Hulstijn (2001), Hulstijn and Laufer (2001), Laufer and Rozovski-Roitblat (2015), Rassaei (2017), and Zou (2017), as they are detailed in Chapter two.

APPENDIX D – Questionnaire

PARTICIPANTE N°: _____	IDADE: _____
FASE: _____	

Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Centro de Comunicação e Expressão – CCE
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês – PPGI
Mestrando: Bruno de Azevedo
Orientadora: Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch

**Reading and Vocabulary: Analyzing Vocabulary Activities in
 EFL Textbooks and Undergraduate Teachers' and Students'
 Perceptions on the Role of Vocabulary in Reading
 Comprehension**

STUDENT'S QUESTIONNAIRE

1. From 1 to 6 (1 being 'not important at all' and 6 being 'extremely important'), what is the importance of knowing the words in English for reading the texts in class?

Mark X next to your answer (Choose ONLY ONE answer).

<input type="checkbox"/>	Not important at all
<input type="checkbox"/>	Not very important
<input type="checkbox"/>	Somewhat important
<input type="checkbox"/>	Important
<input type="checkbox"/>	Very important
<input type="checkbox"/>	Extremely important

2. What do you do when you find unknown words while reading a text?

(Mark as many as necessary)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Nothing.
<input type="checkbox"/>	I try to infer the meaning of the word from the context.
<input type="checkbox"/>	I try to analyze the words, their written form, pronunciation, and grammatical functions in the sentence.
<input type="checkbox"/>	I highlight them and when I finish reading the text, I look up their meanings in a dictionary.

	I stop reading and look up their meanings in the dictionary.
	I stop reading and look up the meanings of the words that I think are relevant to the main idea (s) of the text.
	Other (s). Explain.

3. Mark (X) the activity (ies) you consider most effective for vocabulary learning.

(Mark as many as necessary).

	When there is a glossary with the translations of the key words from the text.
	When there is a glossary with the definitions in English of the key words from the text.
	When there is an exercise to match the words with their definitions.
	When we have to use the dictionary to look up the meanings of the words we do not know.
	When we have to fill in the blanks of the text with the suitable words.
	When we have to write sentences with the new words.
	Other (s). Explain.

APPENDIX E – Questionário em Português

PARTICIPANTE N°: _____	IDADE: _____
FASE: _____	

Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Centro de Comunicação e Expressão – CCE
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês – PPGI
Mestrando: Bruno de Azevedo
Orientadora: Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch

**Reading and Vocabulary: Analyzing Vocabulary Activities in
 EFL Textbooks and Undergraduate Teachers' and Students'
 Perceptions on the Role of Vocabulary in Reading
 Comprehension**

QUESTIONÁRIO AOS ALUNOS DE LETRAS-INGLÊS

**Marque a alternativa que corresponde à sua ação em relação ao
 vocabulário dos textos:**

- 1. Em uma escala de 1 a 6 (sendo 1 completamente irrelevante e 6 extremamente relevante), qual é a importância de conhecer vocabulário em inglês para a leitura de textos?**
Marque X na sua resposta. APENAS UMA ALTERNATIVA.

<input type="checkbox"/>	1. Completamente irrelevante
<input type="checkbox"/>	2. Mínima importância
<input type="checkbox"/>	3. Razoavelmente importante
<input type="checkbox"/>	4. Importante
<input type="checkbox"/>	5. Muito importante
<input type="checkbox"/>	6. Extremamente importante

- 2. Durante a leitura de um texto, o que você faz quando encontra palavras desconhecidas? (Marque quantas alternativas forem necessárias)**

<input type="checkbox"/>	Não faço nada.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Tento deduzir pelo contexto.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Procuro analisar os aspectos da palavra, como sua forma escrita, pronúncia, e função gramatical.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Destaco-as para depois procurar o significado no dicionário.

	Paro a leitura e imediatamente procuro o significado no dicionário.
	Paro a leitura e procuro no dicionário somente as palavras que forem importantes para minha compreensão da ideia principal do texto.
	OUTRO: Especifique:

3. Marque com X a (s) atividade (s) abaixo que você considera mais eficaz (es) para seu aprendizado de palavras novas?

(Marque quantas alternativas forem necessárias).

	Quando há um glossário com a tradução das palavras-chave do texto
	Quando há um glossário com as definições das palavras chave do texto em inglês.
	Quando há uma atividade para ligar as palavras do texto com as respectivas definições.
	Quando procuro palavras desconhecidas no dicionário.
	Quando é necessário preencher as lacunas do texto com as palavras apropriadas (utilizando contexto).
	Quando escrevo frases com as palavras novas.
	OUTRO: Especifique:

APPENDIX F – Declaração de Participação em Pesquisa



Universidade Federal de Santa
Catarina
Centro de Comunicação e
Expressão
Departamento de Língua e
Literatura Estrangeira

**DECLARAÇÃO**

Declaramos _____ que
_____ participou
da pesquisa intitulada “Leitura e Léxico: análise de atividades de
vocabulário em livros didáticos de inglês como língua estrangeira em
nível universitário e a percepção de professores e alunos sobre a
relação da leitura e léxico”, sob a responsabilidade do Mestrando
Bruno de Azevedo e de sua orientadora Prof. Dra. Lêda Maria Braga
Tomitch, com carga horária de 10 (dez) horas.

Pesquisador
Mestrando PPGI – UFSC

UFSC

Orientadora
DLLE – PPGI -

Florianópolis, ____ de _____ de 2017.

APPENDIX G – Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido – Professores



**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM INGLÊS:
ESTUDOS LINGÜÍSTICOS E LITERÁRIOS**

**Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido – Professor
Participante**

Prezada (o) Sra./Sr.

Meu nome é Bruno de Azevedo, estudante de Mestrado da UFSC. Faço pesquisa na área de Leitura e Vocabulário sob a orientação da professora Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch.

Convido você para ser participante na pesquisa: “Leitura e Léxico: análise de atividades de vocabulário em livros didáticos de inglês como língua estrangeira em nível universitário e a percepção de professores e alunos sobre a relação leitura e léxico”.

Por que esta pesquisa está sendo realizada?

Vários estudiosos afirmam que o conhecimento das palavras em inglês auxilia no entendimento do texto, assim como a leitura auxilia no aprendizado de palavras novas. Dessa forma, meu objetivo é analisar as atividades de vocabulário dos livros didáticos do curso de Letras-Inglês da UFSC, além de verificar qual é a percepção dos professores e alunos em relação ao conhecimento de vocabulário para sucesso na leitura em inglês.

O que vai acontecer?

Vou entrevista-lo para verificar qual sua percepção sobre a relação da leitura e léxico.

Haverá algum risco ao participar dessa pesquisa?

Os riscos são mínimos. O que pode acontecer é um certo desconforto durante a entrevista, uma vez que estarei gravando o áudio da mesma. Este será utilizado somente pelos pesquisadores e somente para essa pesquisa, ficando guardado pelos pesquisadores pelo prazo de 5 anos, após o qual será destruído.

Haverá algum benefício?

Apesar de não haver benefícios diretos para os alunos e professores, ao final do trabalho os achados podem ser de grande valia tanto para a área em questão, em termos do aumento do conhecimento, como para a sala de aula de inglês como LE, ao informar futuros professores, bem como elaboradores de materiais didáticos.

A identidade dos professores será revelada?

Não de forma voluntária; os dados serão confidenciais, ou seja, somente os pesquisadores terão acesso aos nomes dos professores. Vamos nos referir a professor A, B, e C, de acordo com as fases observadas (1ª, 3ª e 5ª fases do curso de Letras-Ingês). Apesar de todo o cuidado, não podemos garantir anonimato uma vez que as informações sobre os professores das turmas em cada semestre são públicas, sendo os nomes rastreáveis.

A participação nessa pesquisa é obrigatória?

Não. A participação é totalmente voluntária. Esse documento é um convite. Caso haja a recusa na participação, a/o professora (o) não será afetada (o) no curso, de modo algum.

Haverá alguma despesa?

Não. A pesquisa vai acontecer no horário de aula, portanto, não há necessidade de deslocamento. Poderá haver ressarcimento no caso de eventuais despesas não previstas pelos pesquisadores.

Haverá benefício financeiro?

Não. A participação na pesquisa é voluntária e não envolve dinheiro, mas me comprometo a garantir indenização diante de eventuais danos.

É possível desistir de participar ou cancelar essa autorização?

Sim. É possível cancelar a participação **a qualquer momento** da pesquisa, caso haja o cancelamento, não haverá prejuízo algum para a/o professora (o). Isso pode ser feito através do meu telefone **(48) 99163 - 1647**, e-mail: **bruno_de_azevedo@hotmail.com** ou pessoalmente.

Como faço o contato para esclarecer dúvidas?

Eu responderei prontamente no telefone e e-mail acima. O e-mail da minha orientadora é: leda@cce.ufsc.br ou ledatomitch@gmail.com

[Ela também pode ser contatada através do seguinte endereço:](#)

Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina - Centro de Comunicação e Expressão – CCE “B” – Sala 109 Campus Universitário – Trindade – Florianópolis – SC – CEP: 88.040-900

Caso você queira entrar em contato com o Comitê de Ética em Pesquisas com Seres Humanos da UFSC, que é o órgão que aprova esse tipo de pesquisa, use uma dessas formas de contato:

Prédio Reitoria II, 4º andar, sala 401, localizado na Rua Desembargador Vitor Lima, nº 222, Trindade, Florianópolis - Telefone (48) 3721-6094 - E-mail: cep.propesq@contato.ufsc.br

Essa pesquisa cumpre os termos das resoluções CNS 466/12 e 510/16 e também suas complementares, que são os documentos que normatizam pesquisas como essa no Brasil.

Esse documento deverá ser assinado em duas vias, todas as páginas rubricadas, ficando uma via com você e outra com o pesquisador. A assinatura desse documento me permite usar os dados coletados. Muito obrigado!

Assinatura dos Pesquisadores

Bruno de Azevedo

Lêda Maria Braga

Tomitch

Mestrando-Pesquisador

**Orientadora e pesquisadora
responsável**

DECLARAÇÃO DE CONSENTIMENTO PÓS-INFORMAÇÃO

Eu, _____
(nome completo), fui esclarecida (o) sobre a pesquisa: “Leitura e Léxico: análise de atividades de vocabulário em livros didáticos de inglês como língua estrangeira em nível universitário e a percepção de alunos e professores sobre a relação da leitura e léxico” e autorizo que os dados coletados sejam utilizados para a realização da mesma.

Assinatura do Participante

Nome completo do Participante

Assinatura do Participante

CPF

Florianópolis – SC, _____ de _____ de 2017.

APPENDIX H – Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido – Alunos



**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM INGLÊS:
ESTUDOS LINGÜÍSTICOS E LITERÁRIOS**

Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido – Alunos Participantes

Prezada (o) Sra./Sr.

Meu nome é Bruno de Azevedo, estudante de Mestrado da UFSC. Faço pesquisa na área de Leitura e Vocabulário sob a orientação da professora Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch.

Convido você para ser participante na pesquisa: “Leitura e Léxico: análise de atividades de vocabulário em livros didáticos de inglês como língua estrangeira em nível universitário e a percepção de professores e alunos sobre a relação leitura e léxico”.

Por que esta pesquisa está sendo realizada?

Vários estudiosos afirmam que o conhecimento das palavras em inglês auxilia no entendimento do texto, assim como a leitura auxilia no aprendizado de palavras novas. Dessa forma, meu objetivo é analisar as atividades de vocabulário dos livros didáticos do curso de Letras-Inglês da UFSC, além de verificar qual é a percepção dos professores e alunos em relação ao conhecimento de vocabulário para sucesso na leitura em inglês.

O que vai acontecer?

Vou convidá-lo a responder um questionário sobre sua percepção em relação ao conhecimento de vocabulário para leitura em inglês.

Haverá algum risco ao participar dessa pesquisa?

Os riscos são mínimos. O que pode acontecer é que você fique desconfortável e ansioso ao responder o questionário.

Haverá algum benefício?

Apesar de não haver benefícios diretos para os alunos e professores, ao final do trabalho os achados podem ser de grande valia tanto para a área em questão, em termos do aumento do conhecimento, como para a sala de aula de inglês como LE, ao informar futuros professores, bem como elaboradores de materiais didáticos.

A identidade dos alunos será revelada?

Não. Os dados dos alunos serão confidenciais, ou seja, os nomes dos alunos não aparecerão na pesquisa. Os questionários virão previamente marcados com o código S1, S2, S3, etc. sem constar, o nome dos alunos. Apesar de todo o cuidado, não podemos garantir anonimato uma vez que as informações sobre as turmas em cada semestre são de posse do Departamento e da Universidade, sendo os nomes rastreáveis.

A participação nessa pesquisa é obrigatória?

Não. A participação é totalmente voluntária. Esse documento é um convite. Caso haja a recusa na participação, a/o aluna (o) não será afetada (o) no curso de modo algum.

Haverá alguma despesa?

Não. A pesquisa vai acontecer no horário de aula, portanto, não há necessidade de deslocamento. Poderá haver ressarcimento no caso de eventuais despesas não previstas pelos pesquisadores.

Haverá benefício financeiro?

Não. A participação na pesquisa é voluntária e não envolve dinheiro, mas me comprometo a garantir indenização diante de eventuais danos.

É possível desistir de participar ou cancelar essa autorização?

Sim. É possível cancelar a participação **a qualquer momento** da pesquisa, e, caso haja o cancelamento, não haverá prejuízo algum para a/o aluna (o). Isso pode ser feito através do meu telefone **(48) 99163 - 1647**, e-mail: **bruno_de_azevedo@hotmail.com** ou pessoalmente.

Como faço o contato para esclarecer dúvidas?

Eu responderei prontamente no telefone e e-mail acima. O e-mail da minha orientadora é: leda@cce.ufsc.br ou ledatomitch@gmail.com

[Ela também pode ser contatada através do seguinte endereço:](#)

Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina - Centro de Comunicação e Expressão – CCE “B” – Sala 109 - Campus Universitário – Trindade – Florianópolis – SC – CEP: 88.040-900

Caso você queira entrar em contato com o Comitê de Ética em Pesquisas com Seres Humanos da UFSC, que é o órgão que aprova esse tipo de pesquisa, use uma dessas formas de contato:

Prédio Reitoria II, 4º andar, sala 401, localizado na Rua Desembargador Vitor Lima, nº 222, Trindade, Florianópolis - Telefone (48) 3721-6094 - E-mail: cep.propesq@contato.ufsc.br

Essa pesquisa cumpre os termos das resoluções CNS 466/12 e 510/16 e também suas complementares, que são os documentos que normatizam pesquisas como essa no Brasil.

Esse documento deverá ser assinado em duas vias, todas as páginas rubricadas, ficando uma via com você e outra com o pesquisador. A assinatura desse documento me permite usar os dados coletados. Muito obrigado!

Assinatura dos Pesquisadores

Bruno de Azevedo

Lêda Maria Braga

Tomitch

Mestrando-Pesquisador

**Orientadora e pesquisadora
responsável**

DECLARAÇÃO DE CONSENTIMENTO PÓS-INFORMAÇÃO

Eu,

(nome completo), fui esclarecida (o) sobre a pesquisa: “Leitura e Léxico: análise de atividades de vocabulário em livros didáticos de inglês como língua estrangeira em nível universitário e a percepção de professores e alunos sobre a relação leitura e léxico” e autorizo que os dados coletados sejam utilizados para a realização da mesma.

Assinatura do Participante

Nome completo do Participante

Assinatura do Participante

CPF

Florianópolis – SC, ____ de _____ de 2017.

APPENDIX I – Parecer Consubstanciado do CEP

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE
SANTA CATARINA - UFSC**PARECER CONSUBSTANCIADO DO CEP****DADOS DO PROJETO DE PESQUISA**

Título da Pesquisa: LEITURA E LÉXICO: ANÁLISE DE ATIVIDADES DE VOCABULÁRIO EM LIVROS DIDÁTICOS DE INGLÊS COMO LÍNGUA ESTRANGEIRA EM NÍVEL UNIVERSITÁRIO E A PERCEPÇÃO DE PROFESSORES E ALUNOS SOBRE A RELAÇÃO LEITURA E

Pesquisador: Lêda Maria Braga Tomitch

Área Temática:

Versão: 1

CAAE: 69097417.3.0000.0121

Instituição Proponente: Centro de comunicação e expressão

Patrocinador Principal: Financiamento Próprio

DADOS DO PARECER

Número do Parecer: 2.143.727

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE
SANTA CATARINA - UFSC

Continuação de Parecer: 2.143.727

Situação do Parecer:

Aprovado

Necessita Apreciação da CONEP:

Não

FLORIANÓPOLIS, 28 de Junho de 2017

Assinado por:
Yimar Correa Neto
(Coordenador)

APPENDIX J – Text 1 – Unit 1 – Textbook one

2 FOCUS ON READING

A READING ONE: Finding the Ideal Job

Imagine you are not satisfied with your job. You decide to job hunt—that is, to look for a new job. With a partner, write a list of things you might do to find a job.

1. I might ask someone in my family for a job. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____

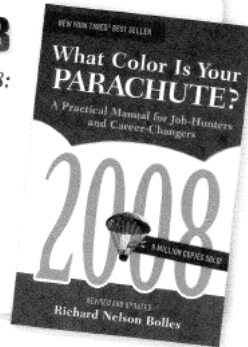
Now learn what a professional has to say about this topic. Read a book review of a job-hunting manual.

FINDING THE IDEAL JOB

*What Color Is Your Parachute? 2008:
A Practical Manual for Job-Hunters
and Career-Changers*

by Richard Nelson Bolles, Ten Speed Press, \$18.95.

- 1 You are **out of work**.
You hate your job.
You aren't satisfied with your **career**.
You are looking for your first job. Where do you start?



- 2 If you are like most Americans, you'll probably send your **résumé** to a lot of companies. You might search for job **postings** on the Internet or look for **ads** in the newspaper. But experts¹ say you won't have much luck. People find jobs only five to ten percent of the time when they use these ways. So what can you do?
- 3 One thing you can do is read Richard Bolles's *What Color Is Your Parachute?*² Bolles is an expert in job hunting. He has helped thousands of people find jobs and careers. This book is different from other job-hunting manuals. Bolles doesn't help you to find just another job. Instead, he helps you find your **ideal** job: a job that fits you, a job that makes you happy. What kind of job is ideal for you? If you don't know the answer, Bolles says, you can't find your ideal job. You need to have a clear picture in your mind of the job you want. The book has many exercises to help you draw this picture.
- 4 Bolles says that you must think about three things:
(1) YOUR SKILLS. What do you like to do? What do you do well? Are you good at talking to groups? Growing vegetables? Teaching? Drawing on the computer? Bolles asks you to think about all your skills, not only "work skills." For example, a mother of four children is probably good at managing people (children!). This woman may be a good **manager**.
(2) JOB SETTING. Where do you like to work? Do you like to work outside? At home? In an office? Alone or with others? What kinds of people do you like to work with?
(3) JOB REWARDS. How much money do
- you need? How much money do you want? What else do you want from a job? What makes you feel good about a job?
- 5 After Bolles helps you decide on your ideal job, he gives you **specific** advice on how to find that job. Bolles's exercises teach you how to find companies and how to introduce yourself. The chapter on job **interviews** is full of useful information and suggestions. For example, most people go to interviews asking themselves the question, "How do I get the company to **hire me**?" Bolles thinks this is the wrong question. Instead, he wants you to ask yourself, "Do I want to work here or not?"
- 6 Some people think that Bolles writes far too much and repeats himself. True, his book could probably have 100 pages instead of 456. But his writing style makes the book very easy to read, and a reader doesn't have to read the parts that seem less important. Other readers say that there is not enough space to write the answers to the exercises. But these are very small problems. *What Color Is Your Parachute?* is the best job-hunting manual you can buy.
- 7 *What Color Is Your Parachute?* was first written in 1970. Over nine million copies have been sold since then. The information is updated³ every year. So, if you are looking for a job or if you have a job but want a new one, remember: Don't just send out copies of your résumé. Don't just answer ads. And don't wait for friends to give you a job. Instead, buy this book and do a job hunt the right way.
- Barbara Kleppinger
- ¹ **experts:** people who know a lot about something
² **parachute:** something you wear when you jump out of a plane. When you jump, it opens up and it stops you from hitting the ground very hard.
³ **updated:** changed to show new information

Reprinted from: Haugnes, N. & Maher, B. (2009). *North Star: focus on reading and writing level 2*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education Inc.

APPENDIX K – Text 1 – Unit 3 – Textbook one

MAKING MONEY

1 IT WAS SO QUICK AND EASY.

A 14-year-old boy in Scottsdale, Arizona, pulled out a \$50 **bill** and put it onto his school's new computer **scanner**. Then he printed ten copies of his \$50 bill on a color copier. Within seconds he changed \$50 into \$550, and he was ready to shop.

2 Twenty years ago only a few people had the skills or **equipment** to make

counterfeit money. Computer, copier, and printer **technology** is much better now, so today almost anyone can "make" money. With the new technology there is a new kind of **counterfeiter**: casual counterfeiters. These counterfeiters are called casual because they don't have special skills and don't need to plan much.

3 The number of **fake** bills made by casual counterfeiters on their home or office computer is growing fast. In fact, this number has doubled every year since 1989! There is no way to **completely prevent** counterfeiting. However, the government has a few new ways to make casual counterfeiting more difficult than ever before.

4 One way is to put very, very small words, called microprint, in hidden places on the bill. These words are only 6/1,000 inch. No one can read them without a magnifying glass, a special glass that makes things look bigger. And they are too small to come out clearly on a copier. If someone copies a bill that has microprint and you look at the



copy through a magnifying glass, you will see only black lines instead of microprinted words.

5 Another way to prevent people from making **illegal** money on their home computers is to use special color-changing **ink**. Money printed with color-changing ink will look green from one direction and yellow from another. Home computers

cannot use color-changing ink. So any copies from a home computer will have normal ink that is easy to notice.

6 Additionally, money is made on special paper with very small pieces of red and blue **silk**¹ mixed in. Only the U.S. government can buy this exact paper. And on each bill there is a special line that runs from the top to the bottom of the bill.

Suppose, for example, that you hold a \$20 bill up to the light. If you do this, you can see the line has the words "USA twenty." The line turns red if you put it under a special (ultraviolet) light. In 2004 the U.S. government started using different colors in the background of bills. These background colors, the line, and the special paper with red and blue silk are not easy for home computers to copy.

7 The Bureau of Engraving and Printing needs to keep changing the way it makes money because counterfeiters can learn to copy the changes. Today copiers can't copy microprinted words or color-changing ink. But in a few years, who knows?

¹ **silk**: a fine thread made by silkworms

Reprinted from: Haugnes, N. & Maher, B. (2009). *North Star: focus on reading and writing level 2*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education Inc.

APPENDIX L – Focus on writing – Vocabulary – Unit 7

3 FOCUS ON WRITING

A VOCABULARY

REVIEW

- 1 The sentences on the next page do not make sense. Replace the boldfaced word or phrase with its antonym (opposite) from the box so the sentences make sense.

arrested	completely	illegal	prevent
casual	counterfeiter	nervous	

56 UNIT 3

- When I got the \$100 bill, I noticed that the paper didn't feel right. "Is it possible that a **government worker** made this?" I asked myself.
- Look at this bill. The ink is almost brown, not green. The paper feels like regular computer paper, not money. This must be the work of a **professional** counterfeiter.
- The police officer took the woman by the arms, put her in the police car, and took her to the police station. He **set her free**.
- His legs were shaking. His heart was going very fast. His lips were dry. He felt very **relaxed** as he gave the bank the counterfeit money.
- The fire destroyed everything in the shop. The expensive designer clothing and all of the jewelry were **not at all** destroyed.
- It's **not a problem** to make photocopies of money. Teachers should use real bills when they teach students about American money.
- New Zealand, Brazil, and China now use special plastic instead of paper for their bills to **make** counterfeiting **easier**.

2 Complete the sentences with the words from the box.

bill	equipment	fake	ink	scanner	technology
------	-----------	------	-----	---------	------------

- Printing presses, copiers, scanners, and magnifying glasses are different kinds of _____ used in counterfeiting.
- Even new printing presses use _____ that is over 500 years old.
- I want to be able to put this magazine photograph on my computer screen. I need a(n) _____.
- Don't be fooled by that "Rolex" watch. It's cheap because it's _____.
- I need change. Can I have four quarters for a one-dollar _____?
- Professor Porter always corrected my papers with purple _____ since she didn't like red.

EXPAND

1 Money isn't the only counterfeit product. Look at the pictures of other counterfeit products. How can you tell that these products are fake? Discuss with a partner.



2 Read about Nicole and Joe, and look at the picture.

Nicole and Joe are at the flea market, a market where people sell lots of cheap products. Nicole is surprised that there are so many cheap designer products. Joe knows that these products are all fake.



Now complete the conversation with the words from the box.

brand name	labels	packaging	quality
imitation	logo	pirated	

NICOLE: Joe! Look at this! They have Rayban sunglasses for only \$25!

JOE: Nicole, those aren't real. Those are Raybans—the brand name is spelled wrong!

NE: Oh. But what about these bottles of perfume? It's Chanel!

JOE: Can't you tell that those are fake? They have different

2 and 3.

NE: Oh, look! Here are some CDs of the Rolling Stones. I love the Rolling Stones!

JOE: These CDs are 4. Someone just copied the covers on their scanner.

NE: Well what about the shoes? These are Nikes, and they are really cheap!

JOE: You can tell that they are not Nikes because the 5 looks wrong... They are cheaper because the 6 is bad. They will probably fall apart in one week!

NE: What about those jackets? They look like Armani.

JOE: For \$25? They are 7. Armani. Nicole, everything here is fake!

CREATE

Look at the picture and complete the conversation. Use as many of the words from the box as you can.



arrest	casual	counterfeiter	illegal	pirated
bills	completely	equipment	logo	prevent
brand name	counterfeit	fake	nervous	scanner

NICOLE: Well maybe you know that these products are all fake, but that kid over there is buying a lot of stuff. Look! He just bought some software.

JOE: Oh, that is pirated. You can tell because _____

N: And now he's buying _____.
How do you think he got all that money?

J: That's not real money. I think _____.

N: Really? _____.

J: It looks like he used _____.

N: You're right. He also seems _____.

J: Uh, oh. Look behind you! There _____.

N: Do you think _____?

J: I don't know, but I think we should leave before there is trouble!

APPENDIX M – Background and Vocabulary – Unit 7

2 FOCUS ON READING

A READING ONE: Organic Produce vs. Regular Produce

Mr. Green has a newspaper advice column called "Ask Mr. Green." People with questions about produce and other food write to him. Read the letter to Mr. Green. The writer asks two questions. How will Mr. Green answer the questions? Write your ideas for each answer on the lines.

Dear Mr. Green:

Lately I see more and more "organic" fruits and vegetables in the supermarkets. I'm confused. Often the organic apples or strawberries aren't as shiny or as large as the regular ones, but they can cost a lot more! So tell me, what exactly are organic fruits and vegetables? And why are they so expensive?

*Confused Shopper
Bakersfield, CA*

1. _____
2. _____

136 UNIT 7

Now read Mr. Green's answer. Were your ideas correct?

ASK MR. GREEN: Organic Produce vs. Regular Produce

Dear Confused Shopper:

- 1 You're right. Sometimes organic **produce** doesn't look as nice as regular produce, and it often costs twice as much. Let me explain why.
- 2 Since about 1950, farmers in the United States have used **chemicals** to grow their fruits and vegetables. They use pesticides¹ to kill **insects**² that eat their plants. They use herbicides² to kill the **weeds** that kill their plants. These chemicals are a great help to farmers. By using them, farmers can grow more produce on the same amount of land. This means that shoppers can find more produce in the stores.
- 3 Farmers also use chemicals to make fruits and vegetables **ripe**. For example, they often **pick** tomatoes while they are still green, and then put them in a box to go to a supermarket. The green tomatoes turn red and get ripe because of a chemical that is in the box with them. Because some produce can be picked early, it can travel long distances to stores. As a result, we can find most kinds of regular fruits and vegetables all year long.
- 4 Some people argue³, however, that there are problems with using all these chemicals. When we eat produce, we're also eating a little bit of the chemicals. Small amounts of these are safe



to eat. But larger amounts—a little bit every day—can cause illnesses. Many scientists believe that these farming chemicals cause **cancer**.

- 5 Herbicides and pesticides can also be very bad for nature. They sometimes kill animals such as fish and birds, and they can poison⁴ rivers that are near farms. Farm workers who pick the crops often get very sick from the chemicals. Because of problems like these, some farmers are going back to growing produce the **old-fashioned** way—without chemicals. We call this kind of produce *organic*.
- 6 Organic produce is more expensive than other produce for several reasons. For instance, many organic farmers can't grow as much produce as other farmers. Their farms are usually smaller, and, of course, they don't use herbicides and pesticides. Also, because they don't use ripening chemicals, their produce has to arrive at the stores very soon after it's picked. So it is usually **fresh**, but this too costs money.
- 7 **Is it worth it?** That's up to you to decide. But if you're not familiar with organic produce, you might want to try it. More and more shoppers are buying organic produce. Many of these shoppers say that they're not just **concerned about** their own health. They are concerned about the health of our whole world.

Mr. Green

¹ **pesticides:** chemicals that kill insects and other small animals that eat crops

² **herbicides:** chemicals that kill weeds

³ **argue:** clearly explain that something is true

⁴ **poison:** make land, lakes, rivers, air, etc., dirty and dangerous

Reprinted from: Haugnes, N. & Maher, B. (2009). *North Star: focus on reading and writing level 2*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education Inc.

APPENDIX N – Textbook one – Unit 7 - Focus on writing –
vocabulary activities**VOCABULARY****REVIEW**

Cross out the word or phrase that is not related to the boldfaced word.

1. **chemicals:** herbicides, ~~orange juice~~; fake sugar
2. **ripe:** yellow banana, green strawberry, red apple
3. **pick:** crops, fruit, airplanes
4. **cancer:** illness, death, health
5. **produce:** potato, apple, soup
6. **it's worth it:** it will be a problem, it will be useful, you'll benefit by it
7. **concerned about:** worried, thinking, angry
8. **old-fashioned:** milking cows by hand, separating eggs with an electric machine, planting corn with a stick
9. **fresh:** tomatoes from the can, grapes off the vine, apples from the tree
10. **insect:** bee, bird, fly
11. **weeds:** delicious, unwanted, plants
12. **local:** nearby, neighbors, airplane trips
13. **environment:** nature, rivers and mountains, meat and milk
14. **pollute:** dirty air, driving cars, carrots from your garden

bland	fresh	it was worth it	picked	save gas
concerned about	healthy	local	pollute	sweet
environment	in season	out of season	ripe	year round

some _____^{9.} honey. The honey came from bees only three miles from my house. As I was leaving, I had to buy a cookie. I know cookies aren't _____^{10.}, but they sure taste good!

After I went to the market, I picked up my new car! I bought a hybrid electric car because I want to _____^{11.}. These hybrid electric cars _____^{12.} less than regular cars, so they are better for the _____^{13.}. It was a little expensive, but I think _____^{14.}. I am _____^{15.} the environment. Buying local produce and driving a hybrid electric car are two small things that I can do to make it better.

CREATE

In many cities in the United States, people pay a local organic farmer to deliver a box of fresh vegetables to their houses every week. Often, there is a letter from the farmer in the box. The letter usually tells a little bit about what is in the box and what is happening on the farm.

Study the list on the left side of the letter. Then complete the letter, using information from the list and some of the words from the box.

bland	fresh	it's worth it	pick	save gas
concerned about	healthy	local	pollute	sweet
environment	in season	out of season	ripe	year round



In this week's box:

Strawberries
(eat these right
away)

Potatoes

Lettuce

Spinach

Apricots
(new this week)

Peas
(These are the
last peas for this
year... enjoy them!)



Greetings and Happy Spring!

The weather is becoming very warm, and we are very busy on our farm. Rick is planting a new kind of squash that you will all be eating in July. The peaches are starting to look good. If the weather stays warm, you might get some peaches in your box next week.

The tomatoes are also looking good. Those are my favorites. They will be ready in about three weeks. If you have never had one of our organic tomatoes, get ready for a delicious surprise! Regular tomatoes from the store...

The strawberries...

We are excited to send you apricots this week...

And finally,...

Enjoy your box this week!

Sincerely,
Emily

EXPAND

1 Read the excerpt from a journal. Pay attention to the boldfaced words.

It's June in California. The market is full of wonderful produce. The potatoes always look good. They grow **year round**. The peaches and strawberries are **in season** now. I see lots of them. They taste really **sweet** this year—I won't need to use much sugar when I make pies and jam. But there are no fresh peas. Peas must be **out of season**.

Produce from the supermarket usually tastes **bland**, which is why I prefer produce from the farmers' market. Shopping at the farmers' market **saves gas**, too, because I can ride my bike there. Getting exercise and eating plenty of local fruits and vegetables are both really **healthy** things to do.

Now circle the best definition (a or b) for each new word or phrase.

- | | | |
|------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. year round | a. growing all year | b. growing in the ground |
| 2. in season | a. ripe at this time | b. still growing in the summer |
| 3. sweet | a. tasting like sugar | b. tasting fresh |
| 4. out of season | a. growing in the winter | b. not ripe at this time |
| 5. bland | a. delicious | b. without much taste |
| 6. saves gas | a. uses gas later | b. uses less gas |
| 7. healthy | a. good for your whole body | b. helping you to lose weight |

2 Complete the journal entry with the appropriate words or phrases from the box.

bland	fresh	it was worth it	picked	save gas
concerned about environment	healthy	local	pollute	sweet
	in season	out of season	ripe	year round

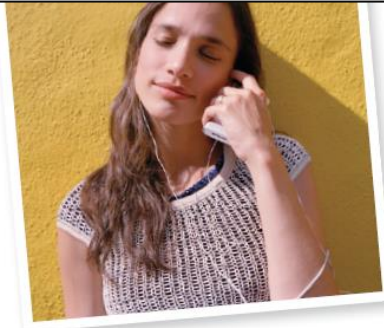
Saturday . . .

I tasted lots of fruit while I was at the market today. The blueberries were so fresh **1.**! The farmer probably **2.** them this morning. And apricots are finally **3.** The apricot I tasted seemed to have sugar on it. It was so **4.**! One guy was selling oranges, but they tasted a little **5.** I think that these oranges stayed in a refrigerator for at least a couple of weeks. We can buy oranges **6.** but they often don't taste so good. I wanted to buy some sweet potatoes, but there were none. I guess they are **7.** I asked my favorite farmer about blackberries, but he said that they are not **8.** yet. He might have some in a couple of weeks. I bought

(continued on next page)

APPENDIX O – Textbook two – Unit 4 – Reading 1

Music and Moods



Thinking About the Topic

When do you listen to certain kinds of music? Match the phrases in the columns to make true sentences about you. You can use the letters more than once. Compare your answers with a partner.

When . . .

- _____ 1. I want to cheer up,
 _____ 2. I want to relax,
 _____ 3. I want to have energy,

I listen to . . .

- a. music with a fast tempo.
 b. music with lots of percussion, such as drums.
 c. music with string instruments, such as violins.
 d. music with a slow tempo.
 e. music with a strong beat, such as Latin music.

Have you ever felt a sudden feeling of joy because you heard a favorite song playing? 1
 Then you know that music can have a strong effect on your emotions. Try to take
 advantage of this power of music. It can help get you out of a bad mood or stay in a good
 mood, says Alicia Ann Clair, professor of music therapy at the University of Kansas.
 Music can also help you relax and feel rejuvenated.

To cheer up or boost your energy, listen to Latin music or anything with a strong beat, 2
 lots of percussion, and a fast tempo. When you want to relax after a busy day, music with
 string instruments and woodwinds, less percussion, and a slower tempo can calm you.

Listen to calming music before you start any stressful activities, advises Dr. Clair. 3
 "Once you're in a good state of mind, it's easier to maintain it." You can lower stress at
 work with music, too, by playing relaxing tunes. But only play them when you really need
 them. "If you listen to them all day long, you'll stop noticing them." Dr. Clair explains.
 Then the music won't have any effect.

You can change your mood by switching from one kind of music to another. To feel 4
 rejuvenated, "Start with something serene and relaxing, and then gradually increase the
 tempo and beat," says Dr. Clair. For example, first play some nice gentle ballads, and then
 listen to something more energetic. When you want to calm down after a busy week at
 work, just do the opposite.

Adapted from Woman's Day

APPENDIX P – Textbook two – Unit 4 – Reading 2

Skimming

Skim the reading to check your answers. Then read the whole text.

Composer David Cope is the inventor of a computer program that writes original works of classical music. It took Cope 30 years to develop the software. Now most people can't tell the difference between music by the famous German composer J.S. Bach (1685–1750) and the Bach-like compositions from Cope's computer.

It all started in 1980 in the United States, when Cope was trying to write an opera. He was having trouble thinking of new melodies, so he wrote a computer program to create the melodies. At first this music was not easy to listen to. What did Cope do? He began to rethink how human beings compose music. He realized that composers' brains work like big databases. First, they take in all the music that they have ever heard. Then they take out the music that they dislike. Finally, they make new music from what is left. According to Cope, only the great composers are able to create the database accurately, remember it, and form new musical patterns from it.

Unit 4 • Music

3 Cope built a huge database of existing music. He began with hundreds of works by Bach. The software analyzed the data: It broke it down into smaller pieces and looked for patterns. It then combined the pieces into new patterns. Before long, the program could compose short Bach-like works. They weren't very good, but it was a start.

4 Cope knew he had more work to do – he had a whole opera to write. He continued to improve the software. Soon it could analyze more complex music. He also added many other composers, including his own work, to the database.

5 A few years later, Cope's computer program, called "Emmy," was ready to help him with his opera. The process required a lot of collaboration between the composer and Emmy. Cope listened to the computer's musical ideas and used the ones that he liked. With Emmy, the opera took only two weeks to finish. It was called *Cradle Falling*, and it was a great success! Cope received some of the best reviews of his career, but no one knew exactly how he had composed the work.

6 Since that first opera, Emmy has written thousands of compositions. Cope still gives Emmy feedback on what he likes and doesn't like of her music, but she is doing most of the hard work of composing these days!



David Cope and his computer, Emmy

APPENDIX Q – Textbook two – Unit 4 – Reading 3

Skimming

Skim the reading to find which of the statements the writer agrees with.

- 1 Humans use music as a powerful way to communicate. It may also play an important role in love. But what is music, and how does it work its magic? Science does not yet have all the answers.
- 2 What are two things that make humans different from animals? One is language, and the other is music. It is true that some animals can sing (and many birds sing better than a lot of people). However, the songs of animals, such as birds and whales, are very limited. It is also true that humans, not animals, have developed musical instruments.
- 3 Music is strange stuff. It is clearly different from language. However, people can use music to communicate things – especially their emotions. When music is combined with speech in a song, it is a very powerful form of communication. But, biologically speaking, what is music?

The Biology of Music

If music is truly different from speech, then we should process music and language in different parts of the brain. The scientific evidence suggests that this is true. 4

Sometimes people who suffer brain damage lose their ability to process language. 5
However, they don't automatically lose their musical abilities. For example, Vissarion Shebalin, a Russian composer, had a stroke in 1953. It injured the left side of his brain. He could no longer speak or understand speech. He could, however, still compose music until his death ten years later. On the other hand, sometimes strokes cause people to lose their musical ability, but they can still speak and understand speech. This shows that the brain processes music and language separately.

By studying the physical effects of music on the body, scientists have also learned a lot 6
about how music influences the emotions. But why does music have such a strong effect on us? That is a harder question to answer. Geoffrey Miller, a researcher at University College, London, thinks that music and love have a strong connection. Music requires special talent, practice, and physical ability. That's why it may be a way of showing your fitness to be someone's mate. For example, singing in tune or playing a musical instrument requires fine muscular control. You also need a good memory to remember the notes. And playing or singing those notes correctly suggests that your hearing is in excellent condition. Finally, when a man sings to the woman he loves (or vice versa¹), it may be a way of showing off.

However, Miller's theory still doesn't explain why certain combinations of sounds 7
influence our emotions so deeply. For scientists, this is clearly an area that needs further research.

¹ *vice versa*: a phrase used to show that the opposite of a situation is also true

APPENDIX R – Textbook two – Unit 8 – Reading 1

It's hard to make friends if you stay home alone all the time. You need to get out of the house and do things that will help you meet other people. Join a club, play a sport, do volunteer work. You'll find that it's easier to make friends with people who have similar interests.

Learn from people at school or work who seem to make friends easily. **Observe** their behavior. How do they make other people feel comfortable? Notice what they say and

Ten Easy Ways to Make Friends

how they act. Don't copy everything they do, but try some of their techniques. It will help you develop your own social style.

Don't be afraid to show people what you're really good at. Talk about the things that you like and do best. You might excel in sports, school, the arts, science, or some other area. People will want to learn about your interests and your **strong points**.

Think of some topics that would make good conversation. Find out the latest news, listen to the most **popular** types of music, or watch an interesting movie or TV show. The more you have to say, the more people will want to talk with you.

Be a good listener, and let people talk about themselves. Don't try to **dominate** the conversation with "me, me, me." Ask lots of questions. Show an interest in the answers. This will make people feel special, and they will want to be your friend.

Look people in the eye when you talk to them. It's hard to have a conversation when your eyes are looking everywhere except at the other person's face. If you don't make eye contact, people may think you're not interested in them. As a result, they may stop being interested in you.

When you start to get to know someone, don't be friendly and **talkative** one day and too **shy** to have a conversation the next day. Be **consistent**. Consistency is a quality that people look for in friends.

Have confidence in yourself. Don't be **self-critical** all the time. It's hard to get other people to like you if you don't like yourself! Think of your good qualities and all the reasons people would want your friendship.

Pursue the friendships you really want, with people that you like, respect, and **admire**. Try to meet a lot of people, too. That way, you'll have a bigger group to choose from and a better chance to make friends.

After you make new friends, keep them by being a good friend. Be loyal, **caring**, **supportive**, and **generous**. It's likely that your friends will treat you in the same way.

APPENDIX S – Textbook two – Unit 8 – Reading 2

Skim the reading to check your prediction. Then read the whole text.

In this introduction to her book, the writer explores why best friends are “the family that we choose.”

Men and women define “best friend” in the same way – a person who is always there when you need them. Your best friend is someone who shares your happiness, suffers through your worries, and lessens your sorrow. As one man said, “A best friend is somebody that you call if you get a flat tire on the expressway at 3:00 a.m., and you have to wait hours for a tow truck. Your friend says, “Tell me exactly where you are, and I’ll come and get you.”

Unit 8 • Friends

- 2 A variety of factors can help establish a best friendship, including the age of the people, the situation in which they meet, and how they satisfy each other’s needs. But in my study, I found the main themes that define a best friend were remarkably similar for many people.
- 3 “Safety” was a word I heard over and over. A best friend makes you feel safe and provides a comfort zone.¹ You never have to explain yourself to best friends because they understand you so well. You can be exactly who you are. You can cry too hard or laugh too loud and never worry about what they’ll think. Best friends will give you advice if you want it and encouragement if you need it, but they will not judge you or make you ashamed of your behavior. A best friend gives you unconditional love. That means complete love, without any limits.
- 4 Best friends are loyal and trustworthy. A best friend is a person who you can tell your most embarrassing personal secrets to. You can be sure that your best friend won’t repeat your secrets to anyone else. Best friends can also be completely honest with you, but in the most gentle way.
- 5 Finally, best friends are the family you choose. They love you because they want to, not because they have to. For many people, a best friend becomes the brother or sister they’d always wanted but never had.
- 6 A man I knew asked his dying mother, “What has been the most important thing in your life?” He fully expected her to say her husband, her children, or her family. Instead, without a moment’s hesitation, she replied sweetly, “My friends.”

¹ *comfort zone*: a situation in which you feel relaxed

APPENDIX T – Textbook two – Unit 8 – Reading 3

- 1 Modern computer technology has made a new kind of human relationship possible: online friendship. Online friends, or **virtual friends**, are people who have become acquainted with each other through the Internet. Are online friendships as **beneficial as face-to-face** friendships? What are the advantages and disadvantages of having **virtual friends**? Can people form strong bonds online? Today these questions are the subject of lively debate.

Some people believe that the Internet is the best way to make new friends. It's convenient, it's fast, and it allows you to make contact with different kinds of people from all over the world. When you use social networking Web sites and chat rooms, you can easily find people with interests and hobbies similar to yours. Information updates and photos add to the experience. Making friends on the Internet is especially good for shy people who feel uncomfortable in social situations. It's often easier to share thoughts and feelings online. In addition, **virtual friends** can offer emotional support. They can make people feel less lonely and help them solve problems.

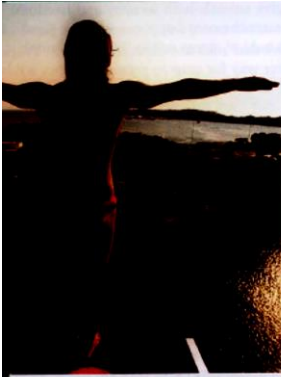
Although the Internet can encourage friendship, it has a major disadvantage. When you're not face-to-face, it's much easier to deceive people. Online friends only tell you what they want you to know. They sometimes exaggerate their good qualities and hide the less positive ones, so you can't be sure of what they are really like. That is why you should not give personal information to anyone online unless you're totally sure of who that person is.

Can online friendships be as meaningful as **face-to-face** ones? There are different points of view. Researchers at the University of Southern California surveyed 2,000 households in the United States. The results showed that more than 40 percent of participants feel "as strongly about their online buddies" as they do about their "offline" friends. Researchers also found that it's not unusual for online friends to become **face-to-face** friends. In contrast, there are many people who believe that it's not possible to have **deep relationships** with online friends. A young Indian software engineer, Lalitha Lakshmi pathy, says, "It's good to feel connected with many people, but all my e-buddies are not necessarily my close friends." Many people would agree. They say that it's hard to develop feelings of trust and connection when you don't share experiences in person.

People continue to **express different opinions** about online friendship. However, most of them would agree that **virtual friendships** must not replace **face-to-face** friendships. As one life coach¹ says, "a social networking site should only be the 'add on' in any relationship."

¹ **life coach**: someone who you pay to give you advice about how to improve your life

APPENDIX U – Textbook three – Text of unit 4A



1

American-born Dustin Webster has loved high-diving ever since his parents took him to see high-divers at an amusement park in San Diego when he was 11. He went backstage to ask the divers how they did it and six years later he joined their team. He has been high-diving ever since.

The kind of diving Dustin does is called cliff diving, and it's not like the diving you see in the Olympics. For a start, the distance from the board to the water (about 25 metres) is much greater than that. And secondly, cliff divers like Dustin do triple and quadruple somersaults on the way down. This makes cliff diving highly skilled and extremely dangerous. Many of them suffer injury and, on occasions, death if they land in the water on their stomachs or their backs. 'From 25 metres up, you fall a bit like a grand piano,' Dustin says cheerfully. They have been known to break their legs if they land on a fish or a **piece** of seaweed.

When you watch cliff divers, you get a real sense of how absolutely terrifying it is. They stand on the edge of the board and look down, far far down, and then they **launch** themselves

twisting into the air. No matter how many times you do it, Dustin and his colleagues say, you never lose the fear just before you jump.

So how come Colombian Orlando Duque, who has just beaten Dustin to become the latest cliff diving champion, looked so still and God-like as he stood above a seawater lake in Greece, arms outstretched, his long black hair falling down his back, protected by nothing except a small pair of red swimming trunks? That day, back in July, he looked more like the statue of Christ in Rio de Janeiro than a **frail** human being. And then he was gone, falling through the air, doing his famous back loop with four twists, incredibly graceful and frighteningly **vulnerable**. And it worked. When that day's competition was over, Duque had won the prize.

2

When world champion Francisco 'Pipin' Ferreras went to Baja California in 1996 to try and break the world freediving record he did not realise that he would meet the young woman who would soon become his wife. But that is what happened, for she had been doing a university **thesis** on freediving and he was the one person she wanted to talk to about it. Audrey Mestre, the woman doing the **thesis**, was born in France on August 11, 1974. Her grandfather and her mother were both spearfishers and, as a result, Audrey had been diving since she was a child. She won her first swimming race when she was two-and-a-half years old and began **scuba-diving** when she was 13.

In 1990 she moved (with her family) to Mexico, and it was there that she started freediving - diving with no breathing **apparatus**, something that people who fish with spears have been doing for as long as there have been people living by the sea. But modern freedivers try to break world records all the time to see who can go deepest, and for how long, without any oxygen at all.

Pipin Ferreras is a world champion and pretty soon his new girlfriend (Audrey, soon to be his wife) was joining him in his record attempts. In 1997 she did a free dive of 80 metres and in 1998 she dived to 115 metres with her husband. Things really took off in May 2000, however, when off the coast of the Canary islands she broke the female freediving world record by reaching a depth of 125 metres and coming back in two minutes and three seconds. Only one year later, she reached 130 metres.

But freediving is a dangerous sport. On October 12, 2002, Audrey was in the Dominican Republic attempting to beat a record set by UK freediver Tanya Streeter. This time she went too far and she died.

APPENDIX V – Textbook three – Text of unit 6A

Wings, babies and the pollution of planets

Predicting the future has always been a risky business, but recent claims are almost literally unbelievable. Or are they?

Back in 1949, the scientist Johan von Neumann made a statement which was both extraordinarily wrong and profoundly correct. 'It would appear,' he wrote, 'that we have reached the limits of what it is possible to achieve with computer technology, although I should be careful with such statements, as they tend to sound pretty silly in five years.' How true! Looking into the future has always been a dangerous occupation.

William Futrell isn't afraid to make predictions, however. As one of America's top plastic surgeons, he foresees a time when people will be flying around using their own wings, men will be having babies, and when we lose a leg in an accident the hospital will just grow a new one for us – using our own DNA.

You can't dismiss Futrell's predictions as pure fantasy, not given the fact that he is one of the leading authorities in his field. He has trained at least 20 professors and directors of US medical institutions. 'What's changed,' he says, 'is that we're mapping the human genome, the code for all life. And we can now extract stem cells for this kind of reconstructive work from a person's adipose tissue' (that's fat, to you and me).

When people dismiss Futrell's ideas as fanciful, he points out how far we've come. At the hospital where he works, robots take X-rays and other medical supplies to and from the wards; in Florida, in 2001, a doctor operated on a patient by remote control for the first time. Using computers and the Internet, he removed the gall bladder of a woman in France, 3,500 miles away. These things were once unimaginable.



And now, perhaps, we'll be able to grow wings and replace any body parts which become old or damaged. 'Believe me,' Futrell says, 'wings are not a long way off.' And he means it.

But even if we learn how to cure our bodies and end up living for ever, there isn't anything we can do about the fact that one day, as the sun gets hotter, this Earth will be an uncomfortable place to live. According to astronomical engineer Robert Zubrin, the Earth will become extinct unless we bring Earth life out with us into the universe'. And the only place to go is Mars – it has water, carbon dioxide and nitrogen. But at the moment it is too cold and dry for human habitation. We'd die within seconds of stepping onto its surface. So we'll just have to do something about it.

'The first step to making Mars habitable is to warm it up,' says NASA scientist Chris McKay. His plan is to drop off a pollution-making machine that will scoot around the surface of the planet spewing out greenhouse gasses, thus shortcutting the slow process of evolution. The next step is oxygen – and what better oxygen-makers have we got than trees?

McKay predicts that we'll be living on Mars some time in the next 80 years. 'By that time,' he says, 'the planet will have its algae and bacteria, and we'll have planted forests of trees. It'll be just right for human habitation.' The only problem is that we won't all fit. Mars is only a tenth the size of Earth.

APPENDIX W – Textbook three – Text of unit 8A

What is a vegan? A vegan (pronounced VEE-gun) is someone who avoids using or consuming animal products. While vegetarians avoid flesh foods, vegans also avoid dairy products and eggs, as well as fur, leather, wool, feathers and cosmetics or chemical products tested on animals.

Why vegan? Veganism, the natural extension of vegetarianism, is an integral component of a cruelty-free lifestyle. Living vegan provides numerous benefits to animals' lives, to the environment and to our own health – through a healthy diet and lifestyle.

The consumption of animal fats and proteins has been linked to heart disease, colon and lung cancer, osteoporosis, diabetes, kidney disease, hypertension, obesity and a number of other debilitating conditions. Cows' milk contains ideal amounts of fat and protein for young calves, but far too much for humans. And eggs are higher in cholesterol than any other food, making them a leading contributor to cardiovascular disease. The American Dietetic Association reports that vegetarian / vegan diets are associated with reduced risks for all of these conditions.

Genetic engineering of food is a risky process. Current understanding of genetics is extremely limited and scientists do not know the long-term effects of releasing these unpredictable foods into our environment and our diets. Yet, GE ingredients are freely entering our food without sufficient regulations and without the consent and knowledge of the consumer.

Although transnational companies and their political supporters want us to believe that this food is safe and thoroughly tested, growing awareness of the dangers from GE food has started a global wave of rejection by consumers, farmers and food companies in many of the world's largest food markets. Due to consumer pressure, supermarkets have taken GE food from their shelves, global food companies have removed GE ingredients from their products and leading pig and poultry producers have promised not to feed animals with GE feed.

Along with the saturated fat and cholesterol scares of the past several decades has come the notion that vegetarianism is a healthier dietary option for people. It seems as if every health expert and government health agency is urging people to eat fewer animal products and consume more vegetables, grains, fruits and legumes. Along with this advice have come assertions and studies supposedly proving that vegetarianism is healthier for people and that meat consumption causes sickness and death. Several medical authorities, however, have questioned this data, but their objections have been largely ignored.

Many of the vegetarian claims cannot be substantiated and some are simply false and dangerous. There are benefits to vegetarian diets for certain health conditions and some people function better on less fat and protein, but, as a practitioner who has dealt with several former vegans (total vegetarians), I know full well the dangerous effects of a diet devoid of healthful animal products.

What has come to be called 'biotechnology' and the genetic manipulation of agricultural products is nothing new. Indeed, it may be one of the oldest human activities. For thousands of years, from the time human communities began to settle in one place, cultivate crops and farm the land, humans have manipulated the genetic nature of the crops and animals they raise. Crops have been bred to improve yields, enhance taste and extend the growing season.

Each of the 15 major crop plants, which provide 90 percent of the globe's food and energy intake, has been extensively manipulated and modified over the millennia by countless generations of farmers intent on producing crops in the most effective and efficient ways possible.

Today, biotechnology holds out promise for consumers seeking quality, safety and taste in their food choices; for farmers seeking new methods to improve their productivity and profitability; and for governments and non-governmental public advocates seeking to stave off global hunger, assure environmental quality, preserve bio-diversity and promote health and food safety.

APPENDIX X – Results – Textbook one – Unit 1

Table X1
Word frequency of vocabulary activity – Unit 1

ENTRY	NUMBER OF OCCURENCES ⁵²	1 st 1000 list	2 nd 1000 list
1. Ads	18520		
2. Career	62046		X
3. Hire	11544		X
4. Ideal	17650		
5. Interview	44682		X
6. Manager	41003		
7. Out of work	1732		
8. Posting	2572		
9. Résumé ⁵³	-		
10. Rewards	5945		
11. Skill	16788		X
12. Specific	57248		X

Table X2
Secondary ideas of the text of unit 1

Paragraph	Main Idea of each paragraph = secondary ideas
1	Some questions are raised in order to verify whether the reader fits the profile of probable readers of this book.
2	There is a description on what one would do in an unemployment situation.
3	Reading Richard Bolles' book might help people find the ideal job.
4	Bolles explains the three things that must be taken into account for finding the ideal job, such as one's skills, job setting and rewards.

⁵² Verified on June 3rd, 2017.

⁵³ The word résumé was not found in the database, only with no accent resume, which actually mean “continue after interruption” (Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary).

- 5 This paragraph brings the author's specific advice on the matters raised in the previous paragraph.
- 6 The limitations of the book are raised.
- 7 The last paragraph is a summary of what the reader has to focus on to get the ideal job.

Table X3

Number of encounters with the words of unit 1 and where they were found along the textbook.

WORD	No.	WHERE THE WORDS WERE FOUND
1. Ads	07	Unit 1 a) Glossary; b) In the definition of the word <i>postings</i> ; c) Twice in text one; d) Twice in a vocabulary activity – focus on writing.
		Unit 6 e) In a reading comprehension exercise.
2. Career	16	Unit 1 a) Glossary; b) Text subtitle; c) Twice in the text; d) during reading exercises – making inferences; e) focus on vocabulary – writing section; f) in some text samples of the writing unit; g) in the grammar section within the writing unit; h) In the “research topic” section.
		Unit 1 a) The glossary; b) In the text; c) Focus on writing section.
3. Hire	03	Unit 1 a) Title of the unit; b) Brainstorming question in unit 1; c) Glossary; d) In the title of text one; e) Three times in text one; f) In the “reading for details” section;

			g) In text two;
			h) Nineteen times in the writing unit;
			i) In the “research topic” section.
			a) In the glossary;
			b) Twice in the text;
			c) Twice in the “make inferences” exercise;
		Unit 1	d) Twice in the “express opinions” section;
			e) Once in the “integrate readings one and two section”;
			f) Once in the grammar section;
			g) Three times on focus on writing – vocabulary;
5. Interview	25		h) Four times in the research project;
		Unit 2	i) Once on the research topic;
		Unit 4	j) Three times on the research topic;
		Unit 5	k) Once on the research topic;
		Unit 9	l) Once on the research topic;
		Unit 10	m) Three times in the “focus on writing – vocabulary”;
			a) In the glossary;
			b) In the text of “reading one”;
			c) “make inferences” exercise;
			d) Four times in “focus on writing – vocabulary”;
		Unit 1	e) In the grammar section;
6. Manager	13		f) In the text of “reading two”;
			g) the headline of the writing activity.
		Unit 3	h) at the research project suggestion for unit three.
7. Out of work	04	Unit 1	a) Twice in the glossary;
			b) In the text;
			c) In the writing exercise.

8. Posting	05	Unit 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) In the glossary; b) In the text; c) In the “make inferences” exercise; d) Reviewed twice on focus on writing – vocabulary.
9. Résumé	08	Unit 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) In the glossary; b) Twice in the text; c) In the “read for details” exercise; d) In the “make inferences” exercise; e) Reviewed twice on focus on writing – vocabulary. f) In the grammar section, within the text.
10. Rewards	17	Unit 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) In the glossary; b) Once in the text; c) Once in “read for main ideas” and “read for details”; d) Four times in the “integrate readings one and two”; e) Four times in “focus on writing – vocabulary”; f) Three times in the writing task;
		Unit 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> g) Once in “reading one” – text;
11. Skill	36	Unit 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) In the glossary; b) Three times in the text; c) Once in “read for main idea”; d) Once in “read for details”; e) In “reading two”; f) Four times in “integrate readings one and two”; g) Five times in the section “focus on writing – vocab.”; h) Once in the grammar section; i) Six times in the writing section;

Unit 2	j) Once in reading one;
Unit 3	k) Twice in reading one; l) Twice in reading two; m) Five times in the section “integrate readings one and two;
Unit 6	n) Once in the pre-reading activity called “background and vocabulary”; o) Twice in the writing section.
Unit 1	a) In the glossary; b) In “reading one”; c) In “read for main ideas”; d) Three times in the vocabulary review of the writing section; e) Once in the writing task;
12. Specific 13	
Unit 4	f) Five times in the writing instructions g) One in the writing instructions.

APPENDIX Y– Results – Textbook one – Unit 3

Table Y1
Word frequency of words of unit three

ENTRY	NUMBER OF OCCURENCES ⁵⁴	1 st 1000 list	2 nd 1000 list
1. Bill	126130		
2. Fake	8298		
3. Counterfeiter	52		
4. Technology	79940		X
5. Scanner	1859		
6. Equipment	34304		X
7. Ink	5710		
8. Illegal	22912		
9. Prevent	31753		X
10. Completely	43463		

Table Y2
Secondary ideas of the text of unit 3

Paragraph	Main idea of each paragraph = secondary ideas
1	The fact that it was quick and easy to counterfeit money.
2	The fact that twenty years ago, only a few people had access to technology in order to counterfeit money and it describes a special type of counterfeiter.
3	This paragraph presents the issue of the growing number of casual counterfeiters.
4 - 5	It explains how technology can prevent people from “making money”.
6	The type of paper used to make money, and the line that runs across the bill in order for counterfeiting to be more difficult.
7	The fact that The Bureau of Engraving and Printing has to keep updating its system to avoid counterfeiters to keep up.

⁵⁴ Verified on June 17th, 2017.

Table Y3

Number of encounters with the words of unit 3 and where they were found along the textbook.

WORD	No.	WHERE THE WORDS WERE FOUND
1. Bill	57	Unit 3
		a) Five times in the warm-up activity of the lesson.
		b) Nine times within the text.
		c) Three times in the section “read for main ideas”.
		d) Three times in the section “read for details”.
		e) Once in the section “make inferences”.
		f) Six times on reading two.
		g) Seven times in the section “integrate readings one and two”.
		h) Seven times in the review of vocabulary in the section “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
		i) Ten times along the grammar section
		Unit 6
		a) Once in “background and vocabulary”.
		Unit 10
		j) Five times in the section “integrate readings one and two”.
b) Fake	35	Unit 3
		a) Twice in the section “background and vocabulary”.
		b) On the instructions for “reading one”.
		c) Once in the text entitled “making money”.
		d) Twice on “read for details” exercise.
		e) In the introductory paragraph of “reading two”.
		f) In the section “integrate readings one and two”.
g) Twenty-six times on “focus on writing”.		

		Unit 7	h) Once on “focus on writing”.
c) Counterfeiter	37	Unit 3	a) Seven times on the text for “background and vocabulary.
			b) Six times on the text for “reading one”.
			c) One on “read for details”.
			d) Three times on the section entitled “make inferences”.
			e) Once on the section named “express opinions”.
			f) Twice in the introductory chapter for “reading two”.
			g) Once on the text for “reading two”.
			h) Nine times on the section “integrate readings one and two”.
			i) Three times on “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
			j) Twice on the grammar section.
			k) Twice on “alternative writing topics”.
d) Technology	6	Unit 2	a) Once on the text for “reading two”.
		Unit 3	b) Once on the text for “reading one”.
			c) Twice on “read for main ideas”.
			d) Once on “integrate readings one and two”.
			e) Once on “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
e) Scanner	11	Unit 3	a) Once on “background and vocabulary”.
			b) Once on the text (reading one).
			c) Once on the exercise “read for details”.
			d) Once on the section “integrate readings one and two”.
			e) Four times on “focus on

				writing – vocabulary”.
				f) Once on the grammar section.
				g) Twice on the section named “alternative writing topics”.
				a) Once on the “background and vocabulary section”.
				b) Once on the text “making money” (reading one).
				c) Once on the exercise “read for main ideas”.
f) Equipment	09	Unit 3		d) Once on the text “I made it myself” (reading two).
				e) Three times on the section “integrate readings one and two”.
				f) Twice on “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
				a) Once on the “background and vocabulary section”.
				b) Four times on the text “making money” (reading one).
				c) On the exercise “read for main ideas”.
g) Ink	15	Unit 3		d) On the exercise “read for details”.
				e) Twice on the text “I made it myself” (reading two).
				f) Four times on the section “integrate readings one and two”.
				g) Twice on “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
				a) Once on reading one.
				b) Once on reading two.
h) Illegal	09	Unit 3		c) Twice on “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
				d) Once on the grammar section.

			e)	Used in the definition of the phrase “broke the law” in the “background and vocabulary” section.
		Unit 4	f)	In the same section, but as a definition of the word <i>crime</i> .
		Unit 6	g)	Used in the definition of the word <i>bribe</i> for reading two.
		Unit 8	h)	Once on the “background and vocabulary section” of the unit.
		Unit 3	a)	Once on the “background and vocabulary section”.
			b)	Twice on reading one.
			c)	Five times on the exercise “read for main ideas”.
			d)	Twice on the exercise “read for details”.
			e)	Twice on on “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
			f)	Once on the writing activity.
		Unit 4	g)	Once on reading one.
			h)	Once on “integrate readings one and two”
		Unit 5	i)	Once the glossary of “reading one”.
		Unit 8	j)	Once on “reading one”.
		Unit 3	a)	Once on the “background and vocabulary section”.
			b)	Once on reading one.
			c)	Twice on “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
			d)	Once on reading one.
		Unit 9		
i) Prevent	17			
j) Completely	05			

APPENDIX Z – Results – Textbook one – Unit 7

Table Z1
Word frequency of words of unit seven

ENTRY	NUMBER OF OCCURENCES ⁵⁵	1 st 1000 list	2 nd 1000 list
1. Insect	4179		
2. Chemical	21125		
3. Concerned	44054		
4. Old-fashioned	6548		
5. Weed	3985		X
6. Pick	49146	X	
7. Ripe	4518		
8. Worth it	4495	X	
9. Cancer	50564		
10. Produce	40157		X
11. Fresh	50137	X	

Table Z2
Secondary ideas of the text of unit 7

Paragraph	Main idea of each paragraph = secondary ideas
1	The fact that organic produce is usually more expensive than regular produce. Sometimes organic produce does not look as nice as regular produce.
2	The fact that regular produce looks nicer due to the use of chemicals to kill insects and weeds.
3	The fact that farmers use chemicals to make fruits and vegetables ripe, allowing them to be available all year long.
4	The negative aspect of consuming chemicals, e.g. too many farming chemicals can cause cancer.
5	The fact that chemicals can be bad for nature as well, leading farmers to produce in the old-fashioned way (organic produce).

⁵⁵ Verified on August 17th, 2017.

- 6 The reasons why organic produce is more expensive.
- 7 The writer ends by saying that the reader has to decide whether organic produce is worth it or not.

Table Z3

Number of encounters with the words of unit 7 and where they were found along the textbook.

WORD	No.	WHERE THE WORDS WERE FOUND
1) Insects	09	Unit 7 a) Three times on background and vocabulary; b) Once on the text; c) Once in the glossary, used in the definition of the word <i>pesticides</i> ; d) Once on “read for main ideas”; e) Once on “ read for details”; f) Once on “focus on writing – vocabulary”;
		Unit 9 a) Once on the definition of the word <i>head lice</i> .
2) Chemicals	40	Unit 7 a) Three times on “background and vocabulary”; b) Ten times along “reading one”; c) Twice on the glossary (definition of the words <i>pesticides</i> and <i>herbicides</i>); d) Once on “read for main ideas”; e) Four times on “ read for details”; f) Four times on “make inferences”; g) Twice on “reading two”; h) Twice on “integrate readings one and two”; i) Once on “focus on writing – vocabulary”; j) Once on “grammar” section.

			Unit 9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Six times on “reading one”; b) Once on “integrate readings one and two”; c) Twice on texts on the writing section.
			Unit 10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Once on “reading one”.
3) Concerned about	09		Unit 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Twice on “background and vocabulary”; b) Twice on “reading one”; c) Once on “make inferences”; d) Four times on “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
4) Old-fashioned	06		Unit 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Twice on “background and vocabulary”; b) Once on “reading one”; c) Once on “integrate readings one and two” d) Once on “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
			Unit 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Once on the headline of “reading two”.
b) Weeds	05		Unit 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Twice on “background and vocabulary”; b) Once on “reading one”; c) Once on the glossary for reading one; d) Once on “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
c) Pick	15		Unit 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Three times on “background and vocabulary”; b) Four times on “reading one”; c) Five times on “focus on writing – vocabulary”; d) Once on the grammar exercises.
			Unit 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Once on the writing section.

			Unit 6	a) Once in a grammar exercise.
d) Ripe	15		Unit 7	a) Twice on “background and vocabulary”; b) Three times on “reading one”; c) Once on “read for details”; d) Six times on “focus on writing – vocabulary”; e) Once on the grammar section; f) Twice on “alternative writing topics” in the phrase <i>wine-ripened</i> .
e) Worth it	07		Unit 7	a) Twice on “background and vocabulary”; b) Once on “reading one”; c) Four times on “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
f) Cancer	08		Unit 7	a) Twice on “background and vocabulary”; b) Once on “reading once”; c) Once on “read for details”; d) Once on “integrate readings one and two”; e) Once on “focus on writing – vocabulary”.
			Unit 6	a) Once on “reading one”; b) Once on “integrate readings one and two”.
g) Produce	86		Unit 7	a) On the title of the unit “The best <i>produce</i> there is”; b) On the question of the section “focus on the topic – predict”; c) Twice on “background and vocabulary”; d) Sixteen times along “reading one”; e) Four times on “read for main ideas”; f) Eight times on “read for details”;

			g) Five times on “make inferences”;
			h) Once on “express opinions”;
			i) Five times on “reading two”;
			j) Six times on the multiple-choice questions after reading two;
			k) Sixteen times on “integrate readings one and two”;
			l) Five times on “focus on writing – vocabulary”;
			m) Six times on the grammar section;
			n) Six times on the writing activity;
			o) Twice on “research topic”.
		Unit 9	a) Used to explain the definition of the word <i>saliva</i> .
		Unit 10	a) Used to explain the definition of the word <i>dam</i> .
		Unit 7	a) Twice on “background and vocabulary”;
			b) Once on “reading one”;
			c) Once on “reading two”;
			d) Twice on “integrate readings one and two”;
h) Fresh	18		e) Eight times on “focus on writing – vocabulary”;
			f) Twice on the grammar section.
		Unit 8	a) Once “reading one”.
		Unit 2	a) Once on the writing section.

APPENDIX AA Results – Textbook two – Unit 4 - Reading 1

Table AA1

Word frequency of words/phrase – Unit 4 – Reading 1

ENTRY		NUMBER OF OCCURENCES⁵⁶	1st 1000 list	2nd 1000 list
1.	Rejuvenated	456		
2.	Boost	10873		
3.	Good state of mind	3		
4.	Switch	13954		X
5.	Serene	1877		
6.	Ballad	1279		

Table AA2

Secondary ideas of reading 1 – Unit 4

Paragraph	Main idea of each paragraph = secondary ideas
1	This paragraph highlights the importance of music in people's lives.
2	It describes the types of music according to one's mood.
3	It suggests that music can help people deal with stress.
4	It argues how music can change one's moods.

⁵⁶ Verified on August 31st. 2017.

Table AA3

Where the words can be found throughout the units

WORD	No.	WHERE THE WORDS WERE FOUND	
1. Rejuvenated	03	Unit 4	a) Twice on reading one; b) Once on the vocabulary study.
2. Boost	02	Unit 4	a) Once on the text; b) Once on the vocabulary study.
3. Good state of mind	02	Unit 4	a) Once on the text; b) Once on the vocabulary study.
4. Switch	02	Unit 4	a) Once on the text; b) Once on the vocabulary study.
5. Serene	02	Unit 4	a) Once on the text; b) Once on the vocabulary study.
6. Ballad	03	Unit 4	a) Once on reading one; b) Once on the vocabulary study; c) Once on recognizing cause and effect.

APPENDIX BB – Results – Textbook two – Unit 4 - Reading 2

Table BB1

Word frequency of words/phrase – Unit 4 – Reading 2

ENTRY	NUMBER OF OCCURENCES⁵⁷	1st 1000 list	2nd 1000 list
1. Brain	41105		X
2. Melody	3906		
3. Composition	11978		
4. Opera	11800		
5. Computer program	769		
6. Pattern	26604		X
7. Database	8725		
8. Software	30750		
9. Original	45305		X
10. Analyze	7644		
11. Complex	42625		
12. Collaboration	9754		
13. Review	45951		
14. Feedback	12393		

Table BB2

Secondary ideas of reading 2 – Unit 4

Main idea of each paragraph = secondary ideas

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | The first paragraph is about David Cope, a composer who invented a computer program that composes classical music. |
| 2 | What motivated Cope to create a program and the foundations behind the program. |
| 3 | It describes how the computer program started. |
| 4 | It explains the evolution of the program. |
| 5 | The computer program being ready and composing its first opera. |
| 6 | It ends by telling how the program has been doing nowadays. |

⁵⁷ Verified on August 31st. 2017.

Table BB3
 Number of encounters with words in reading 2 – unit 4

WORD	No.	WHERE THE WORDS WERE FOUND	
1. Brain	19	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) Once in the introduction for unit 4; j) Once the predicting section; k) Once on reading 2; l) Once on comprehension check for reading 2; 	
		Unit 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> m) Once the section “thinking about the topic” for reading 3; n) Four times on reading 3; o) Once on “comprehension check” for reading 3;
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> p) Once on “vocabulary study” for reading 3.
		Unit 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Once on “vocabulary study” for reading 3.
		Unit 10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Once on reading 1; b) Twice on the comprehension questions;
2. Melody	06	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Twice on “predicting” for reading 1; b) Once on reading 1; c) Once on reading 2. 	
		Unit 12	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> l) Once on “predicting” for Reading 2;
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> m) Twice on reading 2; n) Three times on the comprehension questions.
3. Composition	03	Unit 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Once on “predicting” for Reading 2; b) Twice on reading 2;

4. Opera	11	Unit 4	h) Once on “predicting” for Reading 2; i) Five times on reading 2; j) Five times on the comprehension questions.
5. Computer program	08	Unit 4	a) Once on “predicting” for Reading 2; b) Three times on reading 2; c) Four times on the comprehension questions.
6. Pattern	05	Unit 4	a) Once on “predicting” for Reading 2; b) Three times on reading 2; c) Once on the comprehension questions.
7. Database	09	Unit 4	a) Once on “predicting” for Reading 2; b) Four times on reading 2; c) Four times on the comprehension questions.
8. Software	08	Unit 4	a) Once on “predicting” for Reading 2; b) Four times on reading 2; c) Four times on the comprehension questions.
9. Original	03	Unit 4	i) Once on reading 2; j) Once on vocabulary study.
		Unit 3	a) Once on reading 3.
10. Analyze	04	Unit 4	a) Twice on reading 2; b) Once on “vocabulary study”; c) Once on the comprehension questions.
11. Complex	04	Unit 4	a) Once on reading 2; b) Once on “vocabulary study”;
		Unit 9	a) Once on reading 1.

12. Collaboration	02	Unit 4	a) Once on reading 2; b) Once on “vocabulary study”;
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13. Review	02	Unit 4	a) Once on reading 2; b) Once on “vocabulary study”;
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14. Feedback	03	Unit 4	a) Once on reading 2; b) Once on “vocabulary study”;
		Unit 2	a) Once on reading 2.

APPENDIX CC – Results – Textbook two – Unit 4 - Reading 3

Table CC1

Word frequency of words/phrase – Unit 4 – Reading 3

ENTRY		NUMBER OF OCCURENCES ⁵⁸	1 st 1000 list	2 nd 1000 list
a)	Limited	44764		
b)	Processes	20490		
c)	Evidence	87692		X
d)	Fitness	12558		
e)	Automatically	8884		
f)	Show off	1869		

Table CC2

Secondary ideas of reading 3 – Unit 4

Paragraph	Main idea of each paragraph = secondary ideas
1	The fact that science does not have all the answers regarding the role of music in love.
2	This paragraph describes the two things that differentiates humans from animals: language and music.
3	It endorses that music is a form of communication.
4	The fact that music and language are processed in different parts of the brain.
5	The story of a man who had a stroke but did not lose his musical abilities.
6	How music influences emotions, especially love.
7	More research is needed to comprehend this relation in depth.

⁵⁸ Verified on September 12th, 2017.

Table CC3
Number of encounters with words in reading 3 – unit 4

WORD	No.	WHERE THE WORDS WERE FOUND	
1. Limited	02	Unit 4	a) Once on reading 3; b) Once in the vocabulary study.
2. Processes	02	Unit 4	a) Once on reading 3; b) Once in the vocabulary study.
3. Evidence	03	Unit 4	a) Once on reading 3; b) Once in the vocabulary study.
		Unit 10	a) Once on reading 1.
4. Fitness	02	Unit 4	a) Once on reading 3; b) Once in the vocabulary study.
5. Automatically	02	Unit 4	a) Once on reading 3; b) Once in the vocabulary study.
6. Showing off	03	Unit 4	a) Once on reading 3; b) Once in the vocabulary study; c) Once on the comprehension questions.

APPENDIX DD – Results – Textbook two – Unit 8 - Reading 1

Table DD1

Word frequency of words/phrase – Unit 8 – Reading 1

ENTRY	NUMBER OF OCCURENCES ⁵⁹	1 st 1000 list	2 nd 1000 list
1. Caring	9018		
2. Self-critical	226		
3. Consistent	22616		
4. Shy	8641	X	
5. Generous	9228		
6. Supportive	7618		
7. Popular	54923		X
8. Talkative	612		
9. Observe	8661		X
10. Strong point	196		
11. Dominate	5542		
12. Pursue	12261		
13. Admire	4956		X
14. Loyal	6529		

Table DD2

Secondary ideas of reading 1 – Unit 4

Paragraph	Main idea of each paragraph = secondary ideas
1	The author of the text points out the importance of finding activities that make you leave the house.
2	It is interesting to <i>observe</i> how other people interact to help you develop a social life.
3	It is important to highlight your <i>strong points</i> .
4	Being updated is an interesting idea to keep a conversation.
5	Showing interest in other people's conversation is important, instead <i>dominating</i> the conversation.

⁵⁹ Verified on September 13th. 2017.

- 6 The importance of making eye contact.
- 7 Being *consistent* helps people to like you.
- 8 The importance of being confident is highlighted.
- 9 The author advises to pursue a friendship you really want.
- 10 Some qualities you should have are considered.

Table DD3
Number of encounters with words in reading 1 – unit 8

WORD	No.	WHERE THE WORDS WERE FOUND	
1. Caring	05	Unit 8	a) Once in “previewing vocabulary”; b) Once in reading one; c) Once in “comprehension check”.
		Unit 5	a) Twice on reading 2.
2. Self-critical	02	Unit 8	a) Once in “previewing vocabulary”; b) Once in reading one;
3. Consistent	03	Unit 8	a) Once in “previewing vocabulary”; b) Once in reading one; c) Once in “comprehension check”.

4. Shy	04	Unit 8	a) Once in “previewing vocabulary”; b) Once on reading one; c) Once on reading three;
		Unit 10	a) Once in vocabulary study, to explain the meaning of the word <i>inhibitions</i> .
5. Generous	02	Unit 8	a) Once in “previewing vocabulary”; b) Once in reading one;
6. Supportive	03	Unit 8	a) Once in “previewing vocabulary”; b) Once in reading one; c) Once in “comprehension check”.
		Unit 8	a) Once in “previewing vocabulary”; b) Once in reading one; c) Once in “applying information from the text”.
7. Popular	22	Unit 2	a) Once on reading two; b) Once in “Identifying Main Ideas and Supporting Details”
		Unit 3	a) Once in the opening page of the unit; b) Six times on reading three; c) Once on the “comprehension check”
		Unit 7	a) Once in reading one; b) Once in reading two; c) Once on the “comprehension check”
		Unit 9	a) Once in “predicting” for reading three; b) Twice in reading three; c) Once on the “comprehension check”

			Unit 11	a) twice in the opening page of the unit;
8. Talkative	02		Unit 8	a) Once in “previewing vocabulary”; b) Once in reading one;
9. Observe	04		Unit 8	a) Once on reading one; b) Once in “vocabulary study”;
			Unit 5	a) Once in reading one; b) Once in reading three.
10. Strong point	02		Unit 8	a) Once in reading one; b) Once on vocabulary study.
11. Dominate	02		Unit 8	a) Once in reading one; b) Once on vocabulary study.
12. Pursue	02		Unit 8	a) Once in reading one; b) Once on vocabulary study.
13. Admire	03		Unit 8	a) Once in reading one; b) Once on vocabulary study.
			Unit 1	a) Once in “vocabulary study”
14. Loyal	04		Unit 8	a) Once in reading one; b) Once on vocabulary study; c) Once in “comprehension check”; d) Once on reading two;

APPENDIX EE – Results – Textbook two – Unit 8 - Reading 2

Table EE1

Word frequency of words/phrase – Unit 8 – Reading 2

ENTRY	NUMBER OF OCCURENCES ⁶⁰	1 st	2 nd
		100 0 list	100 0 list
1. Happiness	9599		
2. Variety	37626		
3. Safety	46775		
4. Encouragement	4327		
5. Behavior	67828		
6. Hesitation	2686		

Table EE2

Secondary ideas of reading 2 – Unit 8

Paragraph	Main idea of each paragraph = secondary ideas
1	This paragraph is an explanation of the role of the best friend.
2	The author explains that in his research he found that many people seem to agree on what the role of the best friend is.
3	Safety is a feeling a best friend is expected to provide.
4	Another key aspect a best friend is supposed to provide is loyalty and trustworthiness.
5	The fact that we choose who our best friend is.
6	An anecdote is used in the last paragraph.

⁶⁰ Verified on September 14th, 2017.

Table EE3 - Number of encounters with words in reading 2 – unit 8

WORD	No.	WHERE THE WORDS WERE FOUND			
1. Happiness	04	Unit 8	a) Once in reading two; b) Once in “vocabulary study”; c) Once in “identifying main ideas and supporting details”.		
		Unit 2	a) Once in “thinking about the topic”, on reading three.		
2. Variety	03	Unit 8	a) Once in reading two;		
		Unit 5	a) Once in “identifying main ideas and supporting details” for reading two.		
		Unit 6	a) Once in reading two.		
b) Safety	01	Unit 8	a) Once in reading two.		
c) Encouragement	02	Unit 8	a) Once in reading two.		
		Unit 3	a) Once in reading two.		
b) Behavior	14	Unit 8	a) Once in reading one. b) Once in reading two.		
		Unit 9	a) Once in the introductory page of the unit. b) Once in reading two;		
		Unit 12	a) Once on reading one. b) Once on reading two. c) Once on reading three.		
		Unit 1	a) Once on reading two.		
		Unit 2	a) Once on reading one.		
		Unit 5	a) Four times on reading three; b) Once on the vocabulary study of reading three.		
		c) Hesitation	01	Unit 8	a) Once on reading two.

APPENDIX FF – Results – Textbook two – Unit 8 – Reading 3

Table FF1

Word frequency of words/phrase – Unit 8 – Reading 3

ENTRY		NUMBER OF OCCURENCES ⁶¹	1 st 1000 list	2 nd 1000 list
1.	Virtual friends	09		
2.	Beneficial	7012		
3.	Face-to-face	2024		
4.	Deep relationships	32		
5.	Express	19272	X	
6.	Opinions	11382		X

Table FF2

Secondary ideas of reading 3 – Unit 8

Paragraph	Main idea of each paragraph = secondary ideas
1	The first paragraph introduces the topic of virtual friends.
2	The advantages of using the internet to make friends/having virtual friends.
3	The disadvantages of using the internet to make friends/having virtual friends.
4	Results of what a piece of research has revealed about the topic.
5	The closing paragraph states that opinions regarding virtual friends diverge.

⁶¹ Verified on September 16th. 2017.

Table FF3
Number of encounters with words in reading 3 – unit 8

WORD	No.	WHERE THE WORDS WERE FOUND	
1. Virtual friends	06	Unit 8	Three times along the text of reading three; Once in “vocabulary study”; Twice in “paraphrasing”.
2. Beneficial	02	Unit 8	Once on the text of reading three; Once in “vocabulary study”.
3. Face-to-face	14	Unit 8	Once in the introductory page of the unit. Twice in “thinking about the topic” of reading three; Five times along the text of reading three; Twice on the “comprehension check” of reading three; Once in “vocabulary study”; Twice in “relating reading to personal experience”.
		Unit 7	Once in “relating reading to personal experience” of reading one.
4. Deep relationships	02	Unit 8	Once on the text of reading three; Once in “vocabulary study”.
5. Express	17	Unit 8	Once in the text of reading three; Once in “vocabulary study”;
		Unit 10	Once in the text of reading one; Once in the text of reading two; Twice in the text of reading three; Once in “vocabulary study” of reading three;
		Unit 12	In the headline of the exercise named “thinking beyond the text” Once in the text of reading three;

	Unit 1	In the headline of the exercise named “thinking beyond the text” Once in the text of reading three.	
	Unit 5	In the introductory page of the unit.	
	Unit 6	Twice on the headline of the exercise named “recognizing point of view” of reading two; Once on the comprehension check of reading three; Twice on the headline of the exercise named “recognizing point of view” of reading three.	
	Unit 8	Once in “vocabulary study” of reading one; Once in the text of reading three; Once in “vocabulary study” of reading three;	
	Unit 9	Once in “comprehension check” of reading one.	
	Unit 12	Once in the text of reading three.	
	Unit 1	Once in the text of reading three.	
6. Opinions	17	Unit 2	Once in the “vocabulary study” of reading one.
		Unit 4	Once in the “vocabulary study” of reading two; Three times on the section named “distinguishing fact from opinion.”
		Unit 5	Once in the introductory page of the unit; Three times on the section named “distinguishing fact from opinion.”
		Unit 6	Once in the headline of the section named “recognizing point of view”.
		Unit 7	Once in the headline of the section named “recognizing point of view”.

APPENDIX GG – Results – Textbook three – Unit 4A

Table GG1 - Word frequency of the words/phrases of unit 4A

ENTRY	NUMBER OF OCCURENCES	1 st 1000 list	2 nd 1000 list
1. Launch	14746		
2. Piece	54897	X	
3. Frail	2227		
4. Vulnerable	14014		
5. Thesis	4487		
6. Scuba-diving	377		
7. Apparatus	3372		

Table GG2

Secondary ideas of the text of unit 6A

Paragraph	Main idea of each paragraph = secondary ideas
1	The first paragraph introduces the story of Dustin Webster.
2	An explanation of what cliff diving is.
3	The authors add that every time jumpers do it, the feeling is the same.
4	It is about the Colombian Orlando Duque, who has just beaten Dustin to become the latest cliff diving champion.
5	This paragraph is about the world champion Francisco Pipin' Ferreras meeting his wife, Audrey Mestre, also a diver.
6	It describes when Mestre moved to Mexico and started freediving, which is also explained in this paragraph.
7	It describes Mestre's records.
8	The fact that freediving is a dangerous sport, which cause Mestre's death while trying to beat a record.

Table GG3
Number of encounters with words of unit 4A

WORD	No.	WHERE THE WORDS WERE FOUND	
1. Launch	05	Unit 4	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary activity of section A.
		Unit 11	In a pre-reading activity of section B; In the text of section B.
		Unit 13	In the text of section B.
2. Piece	14	Unit 4	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary activity of section A.
		Unit 1	Three times in a post-reading activity of section B
		Unit 5	In the text of section B.
		Unit 8	Three times in the text of section B; Twice in the vocabulary exercise of section B.
		Unit 10	In a definition of a word in section A.
		Unit 12	Twice in definition of words in section B.
3. Frail	02	Unit 4	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary activity of section A.
4. Vulnerable	03	Unit 4	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary activity of section A.
		Unit 9	In the text of section A.
5. Thesis	03	Unit 4	Twice in the text of section A; In the vocabulary activity of section A.
6. Scuba-diving	02	Unit 4	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary activity of section A.
7. Apparatus	02	Unit 4	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary activity of section A.

APPENDIX HH – Results – Textbook three – Unit 6A

Table HH1 - Word frequency of the words/phrases of unit 6A

ENTRY	NUMBER OF OCCURENCES	1 st 1000 list	2 nd 1000 list
8. Foresee	1198		
9. Leading ⁶²	45815	X	
10. Mapping ⁶³	3433		X
11. Reconstructive	614		
12. Fanciful	1071		
13. Extinct	2274		
14. Shortcutting	16		

Table HH2

Secondary ideas of the text of unit 6A

Paragraph	Main idea of each paragraph = secondary ideas
1	A statement that was both right and wrong about the future.
2	Some predictions made by a fine doctor.
3	The doctor's predictions were all based on facts.
4	Some examples of how technology has been used in the medical field.
5	The author speculates that in the future, body parts will be grown out of nothing.
6	Due to global warming, the Earth will be an unbearable place to live.
7	How Mars can become a place to be lived in.
8	The scientist predicts that people will live in Mars in eighty years.

⁶² Instead of *leading*, the word *lead* was found.

⁶³ Instead of *mapping* the word *map* was found.

Table HH3
Number of encounters with words of unit 6A

WORD	No.	WHERE THE WORDS WERE FOUND	
1. Foresee	02	Unit 6	In the vocabulary exercise (pre-reading); On the text.
2. Leading	05	Unit 6	In the vocabulary exercise (pre-reading); On the text.
		Unit 7	On the pre-reading activity of section B;
		Unit 8	Twice in the text of section A.
3. Mapping	02	Unit 6	In the vocabulary exercise (pre-reading); On the text.
4. Reconstructive	02	Unit 6	In the vocabulary exercise (pre-reading); On the text.
5. Fanciful	02	Unit 6	In the vocabulary exercise (pre-reading); On the text.
6. Extinct	03	Unit 6	In the vocabulary exercise (pre-reading); On the text.
		Unit 3	In the vocabulary activity named “linking words and phrases” of section C.
7. Shortcutting	02	Unit 6	In the vocabulary exercise (pre-reading); On the text.

APPENDIX II – Results – Textbook three – Unit 8A

Table III - Word frequency of the words/phrases of unit 8A

ENTRY	NUMBER OF OCCURENCES	1 st 1000 list	2 nd 1000 list
1. Numerous	19905		
2. Risky	6552		
3. Consent	8684		
4. Urging	5539		
5. Objections	3016		
6. Substantiated	588		
7. Cultivate	2011		
8. Yield	11749		
9. Enhance	11099		
10. Millennia	1531		
11. Advocate	9050		

Table II2

Secondary ideas of the text of unit 8A

Paragraph	Main idea of each paragraph = secondary ideas
1	The first paragraph is an explanation of who a vegan person is.
2	The authors explain why people choose to be vegan.
3	Several examples of the harms of consuming animal fats and proteins.
4	The authors explain that genetic engineering of food is a <i>risky</i> business.
5	There has been some pressure to remove GE food from supermarkets.
6	Some arguments regarding the benefits of vegetarianism are given.
7	The authors explain the negative side of a diet that lacks animal products.
8	The fact that biotechnology and the genetic manipulation is nothing new.
9	Figures on the manipulation of food.
10	The promises biotechnology holds.

Table II3
Number of encounters with words of unit 8A

WORD	No.	WHERE THE WORDS WERE FOUND	
		Unit	
1. Numerous	02	Unit 8	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary exercise (after the text).
2. Risky	03	Unit 8	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary exercise (after the text).
		Unit 6	On the subtitle of the text of section A.
3. Consent	02	Unit 8	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary exercise (after the text).
4. Urging	02	Unit 8	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary exercise (after the text).
5. Objections	03	Unit 8	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary exercise (after the text).
		Unit 2	On the text of section 2B.
6. Substantiated	02	Unit 8	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary exercise (after the text).
7. Cultivate	02	Unit 8	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary exercise (after the text).
8. Yield	02	Unit 8	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary exercise (after the text).
9. Enhance	02	Unit 8	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary exercise (after the text).
10. Millennia	02	Unit 8	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary exercise (after the text).
11. Advocate	03	Unit 8	In the text of section A; In the vocabulary exercise (after the text). In the text of section B.

APPENDIX JJ – Interviews’ transcriptions

PROFESSOR 1

Researcher: Ok, thank you, professor, for taking part in this study... so, I'm gonna ask you some questions regarding your perceptions on vocabulary and reading, ok? (1) In your opinion, what is the importance of vocabulary knowledge for L2 reading comprehension?

Professor 1: I don't think that's an easy question to answer...but I should add to you that I find it very important... the more words you know, the better your comprehension, so this would be my answer to you, as well as my perception concerning your question... but I should also add to you that I find it so important that I decided to carry out my MA research also connecting vocabulary knowledge plus reading comprehension, and at that time I found something that I considered very relevant at that time, which was this idea of reciprocal causation, and that means that the more vocabulary knowledge you have, the better the comprehension, the better the reading, the more reading you have, the better the comprehension, the more vocabulary you develop, it's something like this. So, knowing vocabulary or knowing words or having a large vocabulary would allow you to better understand whatever text that you're reading... of course that, in that case, you should also consider general vocabulary and specific field vocabulary, so, it doesn't matter the more vocabulary you have and both, the better the comprehension... and the better you feel that you can understand the text, the more motivated you are to the reading task, meaning, the more you read in this foreign language, at the case, English, and the more vocabulary you develop. Right now, I'm trying to avoid the word acquire, so I'm using the word develop. Although, in that case, since we're talking about just reading for the sake of comprehension, for the sake of learning about the topic, learning about the contents of the text, so by reading any kind of texts that you're motivated to read because you like the topic, or because... and you read in English, also because you have access to the text in English, or alternatively because you're really reading in English because you *wanna* learn the language...ok? So, the more you read a text in English, the more motivated you are, the more you're exposed to the language, the more you acquire vocabulary in a very

implicit way, because you expose yourself to the language, you expose yourself...

R: as a matter of fact, this is the second question...I was *gonna* ask you... (2) What is your opinion regarding incidental vocabulary acquisition (or development as you like to call), that is, learning new words by reading large amounts of materials?

P1: Ok, this is also a very difficult question to answer... of course that based on my previous answer, I would say the more you read, the more you acquire vocabulary, but also, we're talking about implicit learning, but there are some factors that we have to take into consideration here, which is, as I mentioned before, general vocabulary tends to be repeated, and hopefully, repeated in a very optimal way. Field specific vocabulary would also be repeated in an optimal interval, and because it is repeated, and repeated in due time, in an optimal interval, it would enable or, it would at least facilitate the development of your vocabulary. As for in frequent words, or words that are not field related, or field specific, maybe you will not have this repeated exposure, and in a due interval, or in an optimal interval, so that might require a different approach to learning and it might also require a different approach to teaching the words. I would say that, in case you don't have the frequency, you'd have to have what I call saliency, which is, paying attention to the word, and doing some sort of rehearsal, or using whatever source of learning strategies that you might apply, but then, we come to another problem, or another question, which is, implicit learning would imply repeated exposure, ok? Now, when you do not have repeated exposure, does that mean that you have to change the approach? I would say that you would have to change the approach. But now, since we're talking about vocabulary and the number of words is immense, ok? Is it possible for you to teach in an explicit way all the words of a language? So, this is a topic for investigation, but I think that you'd be the role of the teacher, as well as of the learner interested in learning the language, you'd be the role of either one or both to try and assess which words in frequent and field unrelated are important to be learned, and in that case, change the approach to the teaching, and change the approach to learning... I don't know if I answered your question.

R: yes, you did!

P1: I guess, in some, I would say yes, in case you have frequency, you don't have to worry that much, in case you don't have

frequency, you have to adopt an approach which will either enable, or at least facilitate the development of vocabulary in a foreign language, and for me, I always stress that point, which is, we're talking about the learning of English as a foreign language, which per se, means that we do not have repeated exposure to the language, and this repeated exposure may not be in due time, or in an optimal interval.

R: Ok, and in your class, how do you deal with your students' lack of vocabulary knowledge in reading?

P1: Ok, it's a harder question to answer. So, what I have been doing is the following: as I have already mentioned, and it wasn't in the recording, the book that I have adopted is topic based, or theme based, or content based, whatever you *wanna* call it, so this is my first way of teaching vocabulary, so the words are field, or topic related, so most of the words (I'm not *gonna* say most of the words) some of words, or words that might be part of their vocabulary in development are the words related to the topic, which are to be same semantic field. So, since the units are all based on topics, so the words would naturally, or some of words, or the important words would naturally be repeated. So, this would be the first step of thinking of helping the students in their vocabulary development. The second is: if you look at all the activities that I have for each of the units, you're *gonna* notice a sequence. Ok, so you will have an average of seven forums that they have to participate and one assignment. Sometimes you have six, sometimes you have ten forums, and all the forums involve tasks which require both reading and writing, and if you follow the sequence from one to, let says eight, the sequence would be mostly incremental, meaning, the first forum would be like "take a look at this picture, take a look at this image in which there is a short text related to the topic, so what is your opinion about that?" and then you would have something very short to be read, and based on that you'd write also something short. The second would be something a little bigger, and the third would be like "now it is your turn to choose an image" and then I have several links for them to choose from, "so visit this link (repeating)", all of them, they either show an image or a quotation related to the topic, or a subtopic, so "choose one image" so "write the justification for the choice", so "why did you choose it?" so "what is your position or opinion about that?" so, in a way, all these tasks involved in all the forums are incremental, meaning, they go

from kind of easier and less demanding to a little bit more complex and more demanding.

R: when you say incremental, you mean, you want your students, for example, talking about vocabulary, the words they used first they kind of have to repeat them in order to achieve the tasks?

P1: well, I do not control for that. What I expect is that, because they're all related to the same topic, for example, one of the units has as its topic *pressure*, and then, I talk about, you know, pressure by friends, pressure by peers, pressure at school, and related topics, so they will be reading the text that I ask them to read, they are chosen by me, previously, and I link, so I ask them: for you to participate in this forum I want you to read, "take a look at this text", and I link the text. Ok, also, in case you *wanna* read a little bit more, take a look at this other text, ok? And then, what do you think? So, the first forums are usually, as I said, less complex, involving less demanding reading and writing tasks, and as they move on to the following forums, they would have to read more complex stuff and write more complex (stuff). Do they do that? I would say that, as I said, I do not control for that, that's not my purpose, my purpose is to get them involved in reading and writing about the topic and hope that, by exposing themselves, by exposing repeatedly to words, within the same semantic field, they would naturally, spontaneously, implicitly learn that. But then, the last, none of this is actually, I read that, I do not provide feedback directly in all these cases, but I read all the posts, and I see what is common, a common problem among all the students and then I create something based on what I see as a common problem, be that grammar problem or vocabulary problem. And then, the last activity is an assignment and this assignment is different from the forum because this is graded. So, the forums, the participation is graded, and I have a general assessment, and based on what is common, I generate a feedback, and show them, and ask them to do, but for the assignment, I give individual feedback, with all comments. I don't know if you're *gonna* have a question based on feedback (researchers nods in negation) for example, so in that case, I would like to add, if the students allow you might have access to all the feedbacks and I do my best to kind of provide affective feedback, like, "this is good"; "it's a good text". I don't write that much, concerning, you know, affective feedback, and then, I write more concerning linguistic feedback, so, "the text shows good command

of the language, however, it also shows problems with the use of *them*, *it*, or random sentences, or punctuation or whatever”, this is like general feedback, but I give specific feedbacks, like, “there is a word which is not properly used, so I highlight it, and I add a comment, and most of the times, I would say ninety percent of the times I try to do this: “check. Check the use of that word. Check the use of that punctuation”, and then, most of the time I link a website to that. So, I say “check”. So, preposition is also a word, ok? It’s not a content word, it’s a function word, but for example, *depends of* keeps on repeating, so I just highlight it and I “check this”, I link the dictionary with the word depend for the student, for the student won’t have, you know, all that excuse. So, you know, it takes a lot of time, I just do that. You have many links “check this”. Or what I try to do is not provide them with the answer, I tell them “there is something misused here” or “something that is causing comprehension problem here” so I highlight “there is one problem” and I point to a way for the student to go by him or by herself, and then “check” to solve the problem.

R: ok... one of the last questions, actually, I think you already answered in the previous question, but I have to ask...(4) When you prepare a reading lesson, how do you approach the vocabulary of the text?

P1: I guess I have already answered this, because the idea is that first, it is topic related, within the same semantic field, and hope that words, they repeat themselves, this is one thing. And of course that, they are repeated within that unit, if they’re actually learned or not, I don’t know. So, all of them are topic related, and the activities are incremental, meaning, you go from simpler to more complex. Could you read the question again? (Researcher repeats the question). Some of the texts are from the book, some of them I choose them myself, and the choice of the text is also important. I try my best to avoid texts that, you know, would, in a way or other, generate problem for their reading. Quite the opposite, I select the texts in a way that, texts will be easier for the reading task to be developed, not easy for the students, but easy for the reading task to be developed. Ok, so, this is exposure. When I ask the students to write, since the writing is based on the reading, so I expect that, by having the need to use the newly exposed word, they will have the need to use that word, and they will do their best to remember that word, and use that word. I don’t know if that was clear...

R: I see your point.

P1: the two tasks are linked. The reading exposure, the writing, they need to use those words in order for the student, for the learner, to express him or herself in writing. But in addition to that, I added, on the Moodle is considered an activity, although it's not a traditional activity, on the Moodle is under the category of activity, which is called *glossary*, so I added in all the units, and I have been asking the students to, so, since the units are topic related, what I want you to do, individually, you add to one to three words that you learned in this unit, within this unit, which are within the same semantic field as the topic we're dealing with. But you know what? So, the idea is, there are ten, eleven students because most of the students have been excused or dismissed from attending the class, because they took the test (*nivelamento*)...anyway. So, the whole group is over thirty students, and only ten are actually taking the course, so that gives me the opportunity to work with the students that were at the bottom level. So, I like this very much, because it would be kind of useless to work with students who have high level of proficiency in reading and writing and then you wouldn't have time to work with students at the bottom level. But anyways, so, it's like ten students, and if each one adds one, two, three words for each unit, that will add up to the general glossary of the course. So, it would add up to, I would say, four-hundred words, five-hundred words, that they themselves consider important related to that. To my disappointment, they're not doing that. Actually, it's not graded, it doesn't involve any grading, so they're not doing that. By the end of the course, I'm *gonna* ask them, and *gonna* give half a class to ask them to go back there and do that for all the units, so they're *gonna* have to go back to all the units, to all the topics...this is *gonna* help! At least, each one. An then they're *gonna* kind of, you know, "remember this word?", "oh, I've seen this word"...

R: professor, this is the last one... (5) if you were to select the types of activities to deal with the vocabulary of the text, which ones would you choose? And here I have the types of activities, you have to mark an X next to each of them...you can mark more than one, feel free to...and the figures for the ones are in the back sheet if you need to consult...

P1: you know what? I did this word map with them, it was one of the activities...you might take a look at the forum, "I want you to build a

word map”. So, they did this. I like this very much, so of course I’m gonna choose this one...

“I would pre-teach selected words that will appear in the text and ask students to contextualize them by using the taught words in sentences.”- Ok, so, this would be the pre-teaching... This is difficult for me, because you actually have two in one, so I would pre-teach them, and I would ask them to use them (the words) in context later on, maybe not as a pre-reading activity. And the way that I do this, I do this orally. And also, if you look at my first forum, forum number one of each unit, you’re gonna see that, since they’re gonna have to look at images with words...it’s not image, you know, abstract figures. They’re images involving some writing, or some text. You’re gonna see that, I meant to have them look at, anyway, but I usually do this pre-teaching in an oral way, not a written way, so every time I start a unit, all the units they have an image, so I kind of exploit that image by asking “so, what do you think that this image means?”, so we’re talking about, for example *pressure*, there’s a very interesting image and they actually talk a lot about the image, and I keep on going. Every time I start a unit it takes like 15-20 minutes of the class, so that an oral activity. So, I would say I do this and I do the second part, not as a pre-reading, but as a post-reading. All of them actually! (referring to the second set of alternatives). Unit one, for example, had a matching activity which was extra... I like the idea of having matching, I like the idea of using dictionary...this is not a pre-reading?

R: it’s not specified.

P1: ok, so, that’s what I usually do, as I said to you, when I write on the margins, based on their assignment...I would have students use a glossary, but not only use glossaries, but also build a glossary. I would tell students to infer, actually, I never did that, but I would assume that inference of word meaning occurs naturally as they’re reading, so as I said...

R: there isn’t any explicit instruction (don’t use dictionaries, infer their meanings, see if you can grasp the meaning) this is what I mean by the question...

P1: no, I’m not doing that. First, because this is level 3, it’s not level 1 anymore, they’re quite proficient already, of course they have to learn learning strategies, but I would assume that they know a lot about their learning strategies, because they’re already proficient in English. There is, this semester, one more reason why: since all the

classes are in the lab, I do kind of a warm up related to the topic, it's usually two or three classes for the same unit, I do that only on the very first class when starting the unit, and then if you look at my way of working with the students, by using the Moodle, you're *gonna* see that they have instructions on what they have to do for that class, and if you walk around, you're *gonna* see that they're working in very different ways, on different activities. So, they're the ones who decide their organization. So, I *wanna* spend more time doing this, either because this is *gonna* be graded, or because I like this better than the others, so I'm *gonna* spend fifteen minutes, and with the other forum I'm *gonna* spend five minutes. I love doing this! Because unlike the normal classroom, when you ask somebody to read a text, for example, reading is silent, we all know that, and reading aloud is not a reading activity, actually. But then, you ask the students, you would do like a pre-reading activity and then you would allow them ten minutes... some will finish in five. Some will not finish in fifteen. Then you have to be kind of be based on an average...so, the average will not meet the needs of the...fast readers will not meet the need of the slow reader...fast reader gets bored because has to wait...the slow reader didn't come to the end of the text...so you just adopt and average and then...I just don't know what to do with this average. To me, it's not right. So, I love using the lab because they dictate their pace, their rhythm of working...not only the rhythm, their interest...as I said, some of them will like, some of them will love doing this, ok? One student that I have, the only guy in the group, he doesn't deal ok with technology, so he asked me to skip this one, I gave him something different, ok? He doesn't even know how to post the basic things on technology. So, students will work differently, they will organize things in different ways based on what they...as I said, it is incremental, I ask them to do the first in a sequence, I ask them... are they doing it? I don't know. I have already provided the explanation as to why I do it incrementally... are they doing it? I don't know. And I don't *wanna* know. In case I *wanna* know, I know it has to do with their decision, so it's not up to me to interfere with that. (referring to the next alternative) Here, it would be one of the tasks. I would have them look up the words in a dictionary, remember: monolingual dictionary. No bilingual dictionary, this is important, I don't know if I can add...

R: sure.

P1: so, monolingual dictionary. (referring to the next alternative) yes, I would have students use a glossary. In a way, this is related to the dictionary, in a way build glossary, ok? Provided before the reading...no, it's not provided before the reading, so this is question mark. (next) "*I would ask student to infer*"... no, I do not do that, which doesn't mean that they don't do it! Ok...to fill in the gaps, as those activities, I haven't done that, because this is conditional, right? I would... (referring to the conditional tense used in the questionnaire). I would. Have I been doing it? No, I haven't.

R: I had to modalize, because I can't say you actually do that.

P1: because actually the idea for using fill-in-the-blanks is start the process of producing, because you see? This is no reception, this is already producing. Because you only fill in a word that you know, so this is already producing. So, what I do for production is kind of guided production instead, which does not mean I don't like this, I like this, and I would use it.

R: But it's not the most common, you mean...?

P1: I haven't used it.

R: it is not your main choice?

P1: No. so, your question is "I would tell...or I would use fill in the blanks", Yes! But I haven't. "*I would teach them on how to elaborate a semantic map*", oh, yes! I have done it. "*I would have students write sentences using the just-learned words*"...

R: for example, you taught ten words and "now write a paragraph or something using these words".

P1: yes!

R: more explicit, in this sense.

P1: "use this ten words"

R: yes, that is what the question means.

P1: ok, see if this is related to what you mean. In one of the texts, I noticed that there were expressions in English and it was a very good text in terms of, of course, comprehension, I use it for the topic, but many of the expressions, they're difficult for Brazilians to learn. Like *atingir a meta*, *satisfazer as necessidades dos alunos*, and many others. So, it was a coincidence that, I guess it was like a, actually, the first time I used it, I had selected twenty, and I cut down to about eight, nine...so, what I do is...what I did in this case was "identify in the text the expression, or the expressions that mean, number one: *atingir metas*, *satisfazer os desejos dos alunos*, *por fim*, *no final*, ok? Things that I identify as problems when you compare languages. I

don't know if this is...I would not say that I do what you asked here...ok, now I have a problem for you: "*I would organize projects*", yes! But then, you have many questions in the same question (P1 is referring to the question that said "*I would organize projects, class discussions about the topic of the text and tell them to try to use the new words*", so yes, for the first (referring to "*I would organize projects*") class discussion, this is a reading and writing course, I do not have to have class discussion, but as I said to you, I give a warm-up. Is it class discussion? Kind of. But then, they have the forum, which is discussion in writing, so it's not traditional class discussion, it's class discussion using the forum. And, since the topic of the last unit is argumentation, which I'm *gonna* ask them to write an essay, so, I'm preparing them to the last unit, which is essay, in one of the next forums, since an essay, an argumentative essay requires your instance on controversial matters, what I'm *gonna* do with them is...I have selected four or five controversial topics, one of them is euthanasia, one of them is gay marriage, one of them is compulsory education or home education, something like that...well, there are four or five controversial topics and since I usually tell them that in this course I'm not interested in your stance on the problem, whether you are pro or con or in favor or against, as long as you provide the argumentation for that, that's what I'm *gonna* look at... ok, I ask them to... there are four or five controversial topics, some will be in favor, some will be against, regardless of their personal instance on the matters, so they're *gonna* have to come up with the argumentation, because...when you have like, discussion, it's hard to ask the students to expose themselves...like "I am in favor of gay marriage", some people will say "yes", some people will say "no", so who cares? Right there, that's not what I should focus on. What I should focus on is that they provide argumentation in English, organized argumentation in English. So, in a way, yes, I have class discussion... in writing, they're developing digital stories as a project, they developed this. In this project, they have the script writing, I'm going to revise and of course that they're *gonna* have to read their revised script, meaning that they're *gonna* have to read...the words.

R: ok, that's it.

----- END OF THE INTERVIEW 1 -----

PROFESSOR 2

Researcher: Thank you, professor, again, for accepting my invitation. So, I'm going to interview you on your perceptions on vocabulary, as a professor, as a teacher... **(1)** I want to know your opinion on what is the importance of vocabulary knowledge for L2 reading comprehension?

Professor 2: vocabulary knowledge is crucial for language use, both language comprehension and language production, be it in one's L1 or L2. What I study more specifically or what I have studied more specifically is language production rather than comprehension and the model of language production which I really feel explains best, I believe, language production is lexically based, so vocabulary, in my opinion, it makes sense for me, so in my opinion, vocabulary is at the core of language as a whole, of course, you know that syntax will play a role, because you cannot simply use words whichever way you want, but without vocabulary, I could say that vocabulary precedes syntax, because without it, there's no way communication will take place, whatsoever, I guess.

R: What is your opinion regarding incidental vocabulary acquisition, that is, learning new words by reading large amounts of materials, for example those graded readers, what is your opinion about that?

P2: do you mean my opinion in terms of whether I think this can happen, or how often this can happen, or how much you can learn, this way...

R: as a professor, how do you believe, because there are some researchers that believe that only incidental, that only learn words by reading, incidentally, while others believe the opposite, and there are some that stand in between, that implicit and explicit are necessary. Where do you stand?

T2: I think you may learn both intentionally... words, more specifically, but I think you can learn many other things, both intentionally and/or incidentally. And I think vocabulary is one of the things that you can learn incidentally, and I noticed this with me, when I read, I feel that, when I read specially when I have the time for extensive reading, so reading books, I feel that I pick up vocabulary in those moments, but not only! I can feel that I also learn, somehow, but I think then perhaps with more intention, when you watch movies with closed caption, for example, at times. But I

think, those moments there is more awareness. But I think it is possible to have these moments of... I don't know if we could that is totally implicit, because I don't know whether there can be this totally implicit learning of vocabulary. But I think you can learn vocabulary somehow incidentally or with very little attention, or at least with no intention of learning vocabulary, it doesn't mean that you're not attending to language. You are attending to language, but your objective is not learning vocabulary. There might be things which you learn, 99% perhaps, incidentally, really. There might be things that you "oh, these words, so probably this means that", and you just move on. So there was that moment which you paid attention to the language but, indeed, it was not with the objective of learning those words, right? So, I think it does happen.

R: (3) Ok... and how do you deal with your students' lack of vocabulary knowledge, for example, when you're teaching a reading class?

P2: I do two things. From the beginning, I try to convince students, especially when they have lower levels of language proficiency; I try to convince them that we don't need to know every single word in a piece of reading to make sense of it, which sometimes is a struggle, and then, as the term progresses, I will often remind them of that, before each and every reading, I would go and say "remember? There will be words, or there is 99% chances that you find words that you don't understand in this piece of reading, you read now, but try to circumvent that lack of specific vocabulary and still try to make sense". But also, if I choose something to work with them and I know, I can see there will be vocabulary that may really hinder comprehension, then I have a moment of pre-emptive teaching of vocabulary, so that they can "you see? We're seeing these ten new words here, you will encounter them, besides these then, there will be other that you will also probably not know, but which I believe you don't need to know. If you know these ten plus the rest of the knowledge you already have, I think you can go through this piece of reading and do whatever you need with it". It does not always happen the way I plan. I have had learners who made formal complaints about me because I told them to try to guess the meaning of words, for example, in exams, they got upset because they thought it wasn't fair for a teacher to say such thing, such an absurd, even though this was something we were talking about throughout the

course and we were having classes for like two months. Some people got really upset, they wrote to the coordinator and all...

R: (4) When you prepare a reading lesson, how do you approach the vocabulary of the text? I think you already answered, or do you have any other...

T2: yes! If I feel there is...well, it depends on...for example, if I'm using reading from a book, and the book already has moments of pre-reading, moments in which will actually activate background knowledge, in which they will perhaps, I don't know, think about the words they know connected to crime, let's say, "ok, so let's see what words to be known, names for crimes" if the book doesn't bring that, or if it is not reading in a book, if it is a reading that I bring, I don't know, an article, or a text of whichever source, then, I will always have some sort of pre-reading activity, not always the pre-reading activity will be, as I said, sometimes I feel the need to have a moment to teach vocabulary, and this moment to pre-teach vocabulary, and it can happen in different ways. Sometimes, it's not exactly a moment to pre teach vocabulary but still, I would try somehow to activate what they already know about that semantic field, let's say, so that perhaps, they will manage to do the reading without feeling frustrated, or without having the need to turn to the dictionary every ten seconds.

R: here I have some examples... If you were to select the types of activities to deal with the vocabulary of the text, which ones would you choose? And here we have the options... just to remind you that you can choose more than one... chose whichever you find it useful...if you have any questions, feel free to ask them.

P2: (mumbling)... Usually, I would go for definitions, for paraphrases, for drawings, whatever, but at times, I do translate.

(Mumbling).

(Referring to the semantic map) it depends on what... I remember that I used it with a text that was about soccer, and then, there were things, for example, I remember... objects related to soccer...people, verbs... I remember I used with that, but it's not something I usually do, even though I like the idea.

(Mumbling).

(referring to...) emphasis on try...it's just like I make a suggestion, "try to use these new words", but if they're not using it, and they are still discussing it...

----- END OF THE INTERVIEW 2 -----

PROFESSOR 3

Researcher: (1) in your opinion, what is the importance of vocabulary knowledge for L2 reading comprehension?

Professor 3: Of course that vocabulary knowledge is very important in reading comprehension. The thing is that I think that people are completely different in the way they read, so people have different strategies, and there are people who are, for example, very more concerned about vocabulary, so maybe when they are reading they don't know they have to go on reading and so when they find a word that they don't understand and they are stuck there and that's a big problem, right? So, I think that really, the question of vocabulary has to do with the strategy, right? So it's not a question of teaching vocabulary. The thing is that sometimes working with vocabulary, but not just for reading, for all the abilities can be something that is fun, sometimes people like it, it's demanding, brainstorming vocabulary, trying to see if they have doubts about things they don't know, right? So, for me it's very difficult to think about, all these questions that you ask are kind of difficult because I tend to look at language learning from a holistic perspective, not from the perspective of just one skill, and this is exactly why this semester I decided to work with the people from the first year, the beginners, the first level students, with the four abilities. Because I believe the kinds of strategies that are important in reading are the same ones that are important in listening, for example, right? So, this idea of first trying to situate where these people are talking or from what point of view this person is saying in the text, what is saying, right? And what is the context, what is the area, right? And make this relationship with the person.

R: you would say vocabulary is part of language, not a separate entity...

P3: yeah, I believe that sometimes we can do interesting things with vocabulary, right? I believe that, for example, learning vocabulary is very important, but it will depend on each person, right? So, I don't emphasize much, right?

R: ok so, (2) what is your opinion regarding incidental vocabulary acquisition, for example, reading a lot of texts in order to...

P3: I guess that the more that you read, the more vocabulary you'll have, but that happens in the first language that you learn, the second, the third... but also today, I don't know, because people

don't read that much, but probably by watching films, right? There will be other ways, right? I don't know... connecting the hypertext, participating in any kind of activity, virtual or real...

R: and (3) how do you deal with your students' lack of vocabulary knowledge, for example, in your oral comprehension, or in your reading class?

P3: this is why, I believe that this is the problem that I see, I know that you're into reading specifically, I think that when the student lacks vocabulary, the problem is lack of contact with the language, in all aspects, right? So, I believe that, in reading, the person has to read more, that's the way! So, maybe, reading strategies connected with vocabulary, such as working with cognates, right? This idea that maybe "*you should try to get the meaning from the text*" right? Sometimes, not just cognates, but relate words, maybe you know the verb but you don't know the noun or the adjective and it's different... we can make students...but I don't know... I'm not a specialist in this either, even though sometimes more than just working with vocabulary, I think that sometimes we have this idea that we have to teach people chunks, not just isolated words, right? So that these things can work as special device to help in building... but I don't know, I think this is much more connected with speaking, than with reading, right, so...

R: and (4) how do you approach the vocabulary in your lessons... or you don't approach?

P3: I think the idea would be sometimes brainstorming, asking people to describe something, picture or tell a story, if there are words which are missing I try, if I'm teaching in the classroom, I try to see if other people can help and ok look, there seems to be a vocabulary item that most people don't know... sometimes, as I said, we have crossword, or other kind of fun activities with words, which sometimes could be interesting. But I am much more a teacher who believes that students have to develop strategies, it's not just what I do that's important.

R: Here I have some activities you might select, if you were to select. You can mark more than one, or just one, depending on what you would do, depending on the situation (*explaining the section of the questionnaire*).

P3: here we have a big problem! We are talking about our students here at *Letras-Ingês*, which is a specific kind of... this is not something I would do with them, specifically...without a context

(referring to providing a glossary with the translation of the words from the text). Maybe a glossary is something that...depending if the text is very difficult. I would pre-teach selected words... I would ask students to analyze semantic features of the words, maybe... this is what I said before... sometimes trying to highlight something. “*I would have students match the words in the text with their definitions*” - I think that’s an interesting thing... “*I would have students look up unknown words in the dictionary*” - definitely I would encourage using a dictionary...not as a first strategy, but it is a strategy that might be necessary just to be sure about certain things, but sometimes we include in the class an activity, as I said, for example, trying to see what is the definition in the dictionary, why it is important, or ask students to invent definitions for words, maybe in a more integrated way, not just the reading... do you know the dictionary game? It’s a game which is like this: you bring a dictionary so you open in a word and you have different groups, depending on the number of students you have in the class, you may decide to work in pairs or in groups. So, you find the word (the participant invents a word). Nobody knows the meaning, but one group will know the meaning, and the others don’t. So, the group that knows the meaning will write the real definition and the other groups invent. (s/he pronounces the made up word) a sound made by a group of Indians in the west part of the United States... a type of shoe used by Chinese people before going to bed... I don’t know, you invent things, and you put all the definitions together, and then you read them and then you say “number one is this... number two...” and then you give a clue, and then people have to vote which they think is the correct one. So, you see, in general, the kinds of things that I do, as I said, is not just for reading, I do things for language in general.

(Professor keeps on reading aloud the alternatives) “*I would tell students to infer the word meanings using the context*” - which I think it’s the first one, right? “*I would tell students to fill in the gaps with the appropriate words using the context as a clue*” - I think this can an interesting activity... “*I would teach them on how to elaborate a semantic map*” - I think that’s very important but, this is the point, I don’t think I would do that just for the sake of vocabulary, right? I would do that also to make students connect with the topic...well, maybe sometimes, just to see how words have similarities, are familiar, I think that sometimes working with

synonyms and antonyms and other types of semantic associations is good, right? But don't I think this (referring to the activity) is not something I would do every class...from time to time...

"I would have students write sentences using the just-learned words" – I think this can be an interesting exercise as well, or maybe give them three words and students have to write a text with the words. *"I would organize projects, class discussions about the topic of the text and tell them to try to use the new words"* – I don't think I would to this, maybe for beginners... but it's too controlled.

R: That's it. Thank you.

----- END OF THE INTERVIEW 3 -----

PROFESSOR 4

Researcher: Good morning and thank you, professor, for accepting my invitation. So, this research is about vocabulary and reading, so I want to know your opinion about the importance of vocabulary knowledge for reading comprehension.

Professor 4: I think it's very important, but because reading is a passive skill, in a sense, it is not as important as it is for speaking, because there you have the context set that could help you guess a few words, so it is important, but I think that the text itself helps you when you don't know much, so in that sense, I think that is less challenging for the student to deal with vocabulary than it is when they have to speak, for example, or when they have to write, because they have the support of the text.

R: (2) What is your opinion regarding incidental vocabulary acquisition, that is, learning new words by reading large amounts of materials?

P4: I think incidental vocabulary is good and that's why it's good reading as a support for vocabulary learning, but there is a risk of getting this imprecise knowledge and then you think you know the word and then you actually don't know all the different shades that the word has, semantic meanings, or slightly different usages in terms of whether you can use it in English and the kind of message that you are exactly communicating when you select certain words. So, it is good, incidental vocabulary learning is good, but it's not enough. I think it's a start, it's a good start for learning vocabulary in reading activities, but there's no guarantee that you actually get the

actual meaning of the word just by reading it, without focusing, without checking, without learning a little bit more about the word... how it is used, and the kinds of meanings that are exactly conveyed... because the best way to understand that is when you try to translate a text and then you figure out you don't really know the exact meaning of the word, you can guess with the help of the context, but you don't really know what it means... you don't feel confident to use it without double checking what it really means.

R: I see your point. (3) How do you deal with your students' lack of vocabulary knowledge, be it in a reading class or speaking?

P4: Like I said, for a reading class, it's not, I mean, when you select the text, you try to select something that wouldn't be overwhelming, right? For a speaking activity, though, you sometimes have to do some sort of warm-up to introduce core vocabulary for the activity. For the reading task, I think I'm more concerned about vocabulary when I do the text selection, so I choose something that is not just way too much for the student with lots of new words, in that sense, or if the text has a lot of new words, so maybe I would break it into some smaller pieces, so, depending, of course on the proficiency level of the group.

R: (4) When you prepare a reading lesson, how do you approach the vocabulary of the text?

P4: I think generally for a reading task I would start with a warm-up for reading for main ideas, like spotting the main ideas, then maybe some comprehension questions, then focus on vocabulary, that's generally the approach. Then, I like to, if I prepare the lesson myself, I highlight or use boldface in the words that I want to work with later, and then I have focused activities, too, help them actually understand the actual meaning of the words, double-check, make sure they understood with the help of the context... and the activity with vocabulary comes after comprehension.

R: (5) Here we have some types of activities that the literature brings, I see that you have already marked your answers...

P4: the types of activities I would say that, I use the most is "*I would have students match the words of the text with their definitions*", that's one activity I like... then, the second one would be to "*tell students to infer the word meanings using the context*", generally I design more than one (activity), especially if the text has a lot...so maybe, one type of activity for certain words, other type of activity for other words... I also "*would tell students to fill in the gaps with*

the appropriate words using the context as a clue”, especially for the next class, like giving them a second change to use the same words, revisiting the words... something that could also happen is the semantic map, “*I would teach them on how to elaborate a semantic map*” – I do work with that, but I think more for speaking than for reading...so I would design the activities in order to work with all these... another thing that I do is sometimes also “*organize projects, class discussions about the topic of the text and tell them to try to use the new words*” – I try to bring those words up, bring the topic again, so they would...

R: the words would pop up...

P4: yeah! But it’s like, you cannot really force them, I won’t give them a list of words to use, I try “remember that word that we saw”, so you would try to make this happen, right? But it is not as easy as when you design an activity task. Something that I don’t use much, but I could, and occasionally I use when there’s a text with cultural terms, that are very hard to grasp, so I would try to elicit to see if they have seen the word, but if the word is too... something that requires cultural knowledge, because maybe they don’t have, because generally here the students don’t have the experience abroad, but of course nowadays we can experience other cultures without going abroad, but it is not as common, right? I would use a glossary with the definitions of certain key words... but especially for cultural items, because they are harder to deal with.

R: ok, that’s it. Thank you, again.

----- END OF THE INTERVIEW 4 -----

PROFESSOR 5

Researcher: so, thank you, professor, for accepting my invitation and collaborating with my research...

Professor 5: I know how it feels, so...It's not easy to get participants...

R: Ok, so I'm gonna ask you... (1) In your opinion, what is the importance of vocabulary knowledge for L2 reading comprehension?

P5: Well, actually, my basis to create, prepare a class, in terms of reading, is based on a functional approach to language, so I think, in terms of knowing vocabulary and so on, I try to put my students to a contextualization, for example, there's a question that I was looking that you mentioned there, for instance, there's always a pre-reading task, right? I always, before the reading practice, before they get into the reading section itself, there's a previous activity or speaking activity is what I usually do is bring the students to the context of that topic that we're going to work with... in terms of your question, in terms of vocabulary acquisition, in terms of the importance of... there's something that I struggle with my students, especially the beginners, they really get attached to knowing every single word that is written there, so what I always try to do, to talk to them, especially in the beginning of the classes, in the beginning of the course, is to try to talk about these belief that they really have to understand every single word, the importance is to understand, to get the message within the context, and to not get attached to every single word because...and then I show them some structures, for example, "here is an example of phrasal verbs, so you see? It's really important to get to know the whole meaning, and not to focus on only one part of vocabulary...so, I would say that, to my students, I would try to focus on the meaning of the whole text and then if they have questions in terms of specific vocabulary or something, then I give them a key-word, or I translate, but that would be my last resource.

R: (2) What is your opinion regarding incidental vocabulary acquisition, that is, learning new words by reading large amounts of materials?

P5: I would say that this is a good strategy for extra activity, for example, I tell my students to keep in contact with any other kind of material that they have, because you know, English is out there, anywhere, I tell them it is a good strategy and I think it's really important, because they can go to the internet, they can listen to

music, they can read other texts, and I would say it helps students to improve, and to get more vocabulary, because there is a difference that I notice throughout these years that I've been teaching, is that, the student that, the more exposed they are, in terms of extra materials they have from the world, it gets easier for them to learn any sort of language, not only English, because I also teach French, and it's incredible. So, students get used to listening to music or to watch any kind of movies, or TV series, it feels that they get things easily than other students, right? I think this is really important... but as an extra help...

R: not like the main dish, for example, you don't teach vocabulary because you believe that they are going to learn incidentally...

P5: Yes! Yes, yes! It's something that it's outside the classroom...

R: Ok, I see. And (3) how do you deal with your students' lack of vocabulary knowledge in reading, specifically?

P5: In reading, as I said, what I do is, I usually do a pre-reading task and then they move to the reading section, and something that I tell them to do, while they read, to look up for vocabulary that they feel that they couldn't understand the whole message of that sentence, and so on. So, after the reading activity, I always ask them if there's any vocabulary that they don't know, or anything, and my resource is always to not translate, literally, not translate to Portuguese, and explain to them in examples, or in another context, or something... something that I usually them, and it's really interesting is to, for example, adjectives, look at the opposites, for example, "teacher, what is the meaning of this word?", I don't know "sad", and then I say, "the opposite of happy", or I put on the board, I tell them and they understand. Usually, it works.

R: (4) When you prepare a reading lesson, how do you approach the vocabulary of the text?

P5: What usually I do, is to introduce the topic, and then always brainstorming certain aspects that comes in their mind in terms of that topic we're talking about, and usually what I do is a map, for example, I start "the topic today is vacation" I don't know, "school break" and then "what do you usually do when you are on a school break?" and then people usually say actions, and then I put on the board, it's very important to put on the board, so then they could see, and then, usually what happens is, there comes vocabulary that they're going to need for the reading section.

R: here, we have some types of activities, for example, if you were to select the types of activities to deal with the vocabulary of the text, which ones would you choose? Just to remind you that you can mark more than one, or if you have anything to add...

P5: ok, I will read aloud and then I say why, why not... I think it would be interesting.

"I would provide a glossary with the translation of the key words of the text" – I usually don't do that, but a kind of activity that I do is, for example, for working with lyrics, but that's not a kind of resource that I usually do. I try to bring the words that they need in the context... or we talk about it, or another way to associate, there's this option I read before... but I wouldn't do that. I used to do that, but nowadays I don't do that anymore.

"I would provide a glossary with the definitions of the key words of the text" – yes! Sometimes, yes, especially people from the *Secretariado*, right? Especially when they work with specific texts that needs technical words, ok? So, yes, I use this sort of activity.

"I would pre-teach selected words that will appear in the text and ask students to contextualize them by using the taught words in sentences" – I wouldn't do this specifically, sentences out of the blue, without contextualization "now you have to use this word in a sentence", I wouldn't do that... I don't think... I don't know if that's what sentence is about... but that's what I got...

R: It's your perception...

P5: *"I would ask students to analyze the semantic features of the words"* – This is interesting! Honestly, I've never done that before, but that's an interesting way of...I guess I would explore this...Maybe I will copy this!

R: Of course! If you want, I can e-mail you the chapter with the...

P5: Because this is a way of exploring the meaning that vocabulary, and makes students ready to read the text... I would use that, so...

"I would have students match the words of the text with their definitions" – as I said, yes, I would do that, but not often, I would say that I would focus on this kind of activity more with... activities that ask students more technical words, for example, if you're working with business English, and then there's a section talking about "outsourcing" and what aspects we find in that context, and then I would use this sort of activity.

"I would have students look up unknown words in the dictionary" – No! No... what I usually do...well, this is a strategy, I'm not saying

this is correct or not, but I believe that if students get the vocabulary other ways, not like, directly get to Portuguese, sometimes it's important, it's not a resource that we cannot use, but they, for example, associate vocabulary with something that makes more meaning for them, I think they would get, at least this works for me, right? This is what I do to my students...

"I would have students use the glossary (provided before reading the text)" – Yes, I use that strategy, but I would say that not very often, as for example, as for example, the other ones, specifically for kind of text that have a heavy use of technical words.

"I would tell students to infer the word meanings using the context" – Yes, definitely! I believe that strongly!

"I would tell students to fill in the gaps with the appropriate words using the context as a clue" – I can't think of that...

R: you have a sentence, and there's a missing word, and you have to use the context of the sentence to use that word.

P5: wow, this is very difficult, because you can use anything.

R: you have, for example, ten words, and ten sentences. Now, fill in the sentences with the words in the box.

P5: oh, yes, all right.

R: your clue is the context.

P5: I see. Yes. Actually, Interchange does that... I think it's ok, it's not a bad strategy... I would use that...as I said, this is going to depend on the text...

"I would teach them on how to elaborate a semantic map" – Definitely! I would do that! I do that!

"I would have students write sentences using the just-learned words" – well, I'm not thinking in a reading class, like focus on reading, but I think this strategy would be interesting for a speaking activity... I don't know, I feel like reading... or then, I would use this, thinking about a genre, I don't know, they learn about writing a formal letter, for example, "so now, you write a formal letter" and then they have to use the vocabulary they just got...something like that, but not in sentences... I feel like it has to have a purpose...

"I would organize projects, class discussions about the topic of the text and tell them to try to use the new words" – Yes! I would organize other activities that would be meaningful for them to use the vocabulary.

R: Ok, that's it. Thank you very much, again.

----- END OF THE INTERVIEW 5 -----