

A Comparative Study on Dictionary Uses in Literary and Expository Reading

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1. Aim of this study

When reading a foreign language text, learners must consult a dictionary to comprehend it. Because they are in the process of learning a target language, they must compensate their lack of vocabulary with a dictionary when encountering an unknown word in a text. Considering the actual conditions, it seems plausible to say that dictionary use is embedded in the reading process when one reads in a foreign language.

As literary theorists have shown, there are various modes of reading a text. For example, reading for understanding a memo on a bulletin board differs from reading for comprehending a poem, even if the text length and layout of the messages are similar. This study examines reading of two types: literary reading mode and expository reading mode. They are defined later in the framework of a Transactional Model (Rosenblatt 1978). Suffice it to say that literary reading is a typical reading mode for understanding a literary work and that expository reading is a reading mode for an expository text.

Earlier studies in literary theory have revealed differences between reading of these two types (Pilkington 2000, Rosenblatt 1978, Schmidt 1982, Schram and Steen 1992). Considering that dictionary use is part of the reading process, it seems reasonable to expect that a mode of reading influences dictionary use. This study examines this issue.

This study examines the reasons or purposes for upper-intermediate Japanese language learners of English to use a dictionary under literary reading mode and expository reading mode. This report describes their differences of dictionary usage. The outline of this paper is the following: in Section 2, relevant previous studies are reviewed and some key concepts such as literary reading and expository reading are clarified; in Section 3, a Transaction Model is described; in Section 4, the research method is presented in detail and the outcome of the experiment is shown; in Section 5, the differences of dictionary usage under two reading modes are discussed. As explained later, the dictionary use varied between these two reading modes. Although participants used a dictionary for checking the meaning of a word under both reading modes, they focused on different types of meaning. Under the literary reading mode, they tended to use their dictionary to seek a new meaning of a known word for them. However, under the expository reading mode, they are inclined to consult a dictionary to check the meaning of an unknown word.

2. Background to this study

It is important to distinguish 'literary reading' from 'reading literature' and 'expository reading' from 'reading an expository text'. This study uses the former term of each pair, 'literary reading' and 'expository reading'¹. When reading a poem or an expository text, a reader can read them in various ways: scanning, skimming, or appreciating them. Consequently, a type of text cannot precisely reflect the type of reading that a reader actually performs.

Literary reading and expository reading are types of reading. However, they are not limited to the respective cases of reading a literary work and that of an expository text. They can be activated towards all kinds of text in principle, although there are typical and natural circumstances under which each type of reading is activated. This study examines and compares the characteristics of dictionary use observed under reading of these two types: literary reading and expository reading.

Current reading research is divisible into two groups: studies of reading in general and those of a specific type of reading. The background of this study comes from the latter group, which has studied 'literary reading' and compared its traits with those of 'expository reading'. The most important contributions about this type of study have been done by researchers in literary theory, where 'literariness,' namely the property which makes a string of text a literary work, is the target of research. In the early 20th century, Russian Formalists and Prague Structuralists attributed the essence of literature to the distinctive linguistic techniques displayed in a specific expression in literature such as deviation and repetition (Jakobson 1960, Shklovsky 1917/1965). However, as some literary theorists noticed, textual features cannot completely control the way a text is actually processed by a reader. In fact, readers have individual purposes to read a given text, and their readings vary. Some purposes might correspond to what the author of a text expected, but others might not. For instance, Charles Dickens wrote many stories. Today, many readers read his books for pleasure. In fact, this is likely to be what Dickens expected readers to do. However, literary critics and philologists analyze Dickens' stories to, say, obtain the knowledge about the social circumstances in the UK in the 19th century, which Dickens was unlikely to have expected.

Based on this argument, researchers in the United States (Reader-Response Theory) and Germany (Reception Theory and Empirical Studies of Literature) insisted on the importance of attributing the essence of literariness to the reader's attitude towards a text and the entailing reading processing. Although other trends are related to the issues of literariness such as Structuralism, Post-structuralism, or Marxism, this approach is pervasive. Innumerable studies have been published all over the world. The concepts 'literary reading' and 'expository reading' are outcomes of these studies.

Nishihara (2006) reviewed the relevant studies and argued that there are three characteristics which define literary reading. First, when readers practice literary reading, their normal information processing tends to be interrupted. This is what Prague School aestheticians call 'deautomatization' or 'defamiliarization'. It might result from the interactional effect of the writer's artful linguistic techniques in a text (i.e. foregrounding) and the readers' notice of them. In fact, Zwaan (1993) showed that readers in literary reading mode take a longer time to process a text than those in expository reading mode. Miall and Kuiken (1994) also observed slow reading in literary reading mode: when readers found singular expressions in the text, their automatized linguistic processing was disrupted, thereby further prolonging reading time.

Second, when their information processing is interrupted, readers must regard the 'reading trouble' as meaningful. When a text is ill-composed, their reading is also interrupted. In this case, they attribute the reading interruption to the writer's poor writing skill. In contrast, when they practice literary reading, they must consider that the interruption is worthwhile and that there is something important behind the linguistic expressions which interrupted their automatized linguistic processing. For example, poems which great poets left to us are full of ambiguous expressions and difficult (sometimes, even next to impossible) for readers to understand. However, normal readers do not complain about their writing skill. Rather, they applaud it and expect something meaningful behind it.

Third, readers try to understand why the author dares to write a text in such an obstructive way. To interpret an interruptive linguistic expression, they must refer to knowledge of various types: background information about the author and the text, their current understanding of the text, and so forth. Some readers can overcome the 'reading trouble' and understand the hidden meaning, but others fail to do so. Moreover, the hidden meaning that readers understand might differ among readers: that is to say, the outcome of this process is expected to differ among individuals. However, readers on literary reading mode engage in the same process: namely seeking out the hidden meaning beneath the interruptive expression.

Expository reading is defined in opposition to literary reading (Nishihara 2006). Consequently, their automatized information processing is seldom interrupted. When their information processing is interrupted, a reader tends to regard the text or the sentence as ill-formed. Regarding foreign language learners, they might attribute the reading problem to the lack of their relevant linguistic knowledge. Anyway, readers seldom regard the reading problem as meaningful or special. Readers will not expect or try to elicit the hidden meaning behind the interruption of their automatic information processing. Moreover, unlike literary reading mode, readers' understanding of a text is mutually similar². When readers practice expository reading, they presuppose tacitly that a text is composed in an unequivocal way.

Of course, literary reading and expository reading are not mutually independent. Rather, they are the two opposing poles of the same continuum. Actually, when reading a text, a reader always stands somewhere between these two poles. The extent to which their reading mode is literary or expository is dependent on the factors such as purposes of reading, text characteristics, and so forth. This study tries to make participants place in the situations which activate literary reading and expository reading to the greatest degree possible by controlling various relevant factors. Because these two readings have mutually distinguishable features, it is expected that dictionary use, which is embedded in the reading process, also shows a difference.³

3. Transaction Model

Although results of classic studies indicate that the type of reading that readers practice toward a given text hinges on textual features in the text, recent reports have described that various factors (not only textual features, but also reader traits and the immediate situation of reading) influence the activation of a type of reading (e.g., Hanauer 1995, Meutch 1987, 1988, Zwaan 1993). A Transaction Model, which describes why a specific type of reading is adopted by a reader for a text under certain circumstances, was proposed by Rosenblatt (1938, 1978) and developed further by Hunt and Vipond (1985). This model includes three variables: 'text', 'readers' traits', and 'situation.' When reading occurs, actual values are fixed for each variable (e.g., 'prose' for 'text,' 'less experienced literary reader' for 'readers' traits,' and 'scanning' for 'situation'). A reader's adoption of literary reading mode toward a specific text under certain circumstances is a solution or result of the transaction among the values of the three variables. Therefore, unlike classic studies, which have attributed literariness to one of three variables, a Transaction Model takes a holistic approach to reading.

This model, of course, explains reading of other types such as expository reading. Consequently, literary reading is just one option this model addresses. In this study, dictionary use in reading mode of two types is examined by arranging the environment in which literary reading and expository reading are likely to be activated. In what follows, three variables, 'text', 'readers' traits', and 'situation' are explained. The concept of 'transaction' is described.

3.1. *Text*

Russian Formalists attributed literariness to linguistic features in literature and sought to distinguish literary language from ordinary language (Shklovsky, 1917/1965). However, as recent stylistics has shown, what used to be called 'literary' linguistic features, such as metaphor, deviation, and repetition, can be found in nonliterary genres such as newspapers, conversations, and even academic articles. Today, most researchers regard it as impossible to distinguish literary language from ordinary language definitely and that literariness (or ordinariness) of language is a matter of degree (Carter and Nash, 1983).

Meanwhile, researchers also admit that the text in which 'literary' linguistic features are observed most typically (but not exclusively) is a literary work. The more they appear and the more conspicuous their existence is in the text, the more easily readers tend to regard the text as a piece of literature. Such text urges readers to read the text literarily: in other words, they tend to practice literary reading to process it. Similarly, when such literary traits are absent or their existence is not outstanding in the text, readers tend to consider the text nonliterary. Consequently, they are expected to adopt expository reading. For example, Hanauer (1998) has shown that graphic and phonetic features in poetry urge readers to categorize a given text as a piece of literature and to adopt literary reading. Similar results are reported by Miall and Kuiken (1994) and by van Peer et al. (2007), where the modest direct relation was observed between the existence of figurative language in the text and the relevant readers' responses.

3.2. *Reader's traits*

According to post-structuralism, the meaning of a text is unstable, never eternal as structuralists have claimed. One reason why the text meaning is changeable is that readers bring various traits such as experience, knowledge, and expectations when reading a text. It is not unusual to see a case in which two people read the same text, but have entirely different meanings or interpretations (e.g., the author has seen many Americans and Europeans debate the meaning of the *Da Vinci Code*).

Hanauer (1995) reported that readers with rich literary experience are inclined to regard texts as literary even if they are not originally produced as literary texts. These readers feel a literary 'touch' in various textual features in the text, by which they try to read between the lines in a great variety of texts. In contrast, readers with poor literary experience do not regard so many texts as literary works as those with rich literary experience do. In fact, they cannot interpret postmodern works appropriately (they only specifically examine features of their disguise, and cannot notice that these features are used for literary purposes in the text). They devote attention only to very outstanding tropes.

3.3. *Situation*

According to Hunt and Vipond (1985), 'Texts are read in immediate *physical and environmental settings*; in various *social situations*; in various *intellectual contexts*, with different *task demands*' (p. 25, emphasis in original). Reading always occurs under a certain circumstance. Readers must manage the type of reading they practice according to the situation of reading (in class, in a test, in a bookshop to choose a book for leisure time, and so on) and the purposes of reading (for collecting important information for the reader, for getting to know what is going on in the society the reader belongs to, for leisure, and so on). Quite a few studies show the influence of reading circumstances on text processing. For example, Zwaan (1993) found that readers take more time to read a text and recall more information after reading when they are told beforehand that the text

they read is literature than when told that it is a newspaper article (for relevant studies, see Hunt (1999), Meutsch (1988), Zwaan (1991), and so on). The reading circumstances strongly affect the activation of a specific type of reading.

3.4. Transaction

As Rosenblatt (1985) insists, none of the three variables (or their fixed values) in the model solely determines the type of reading that is actually activated toward the text. Rather, their transaction determines the type of reading. In this model, it is assumed that the fixed values are strongly and mutually influential; they even change or nullify the original value of the other variables in transaction. As a result of transactions among the fixed values of these three variables, a specific type of reading is activated. Consequently, even if two readers read the same poem, it might look different to each of them because of their different literary experiences: for a reader with rich literary experience, the text might appear to be full of tropes such as sound patterns and metaphors. For a reader with poor literary experience, the text might appear as no more than a sequence of unmarked sentences with no interesting linguistic elements. This is the case in which the value of ‘readers’ traits influences the original value of the ‘text’ in a transaction.

Transaction covers various reading cases comprehensively. For example, even if the text a reader works with is poetry, when the reader has poor literary experience and the purpose of the reading is to count the syllables included in the text, literary reading might not be activated. Conversely, even though a text is expository, a reader with rich literary experience tries to read between lines and specifically examines the subtle rendering of the text. Literary reading might be adopted toward the text.

A Transaction Model is schematized in Figure 1. The two-way arrows mean that the components in the model are mutually influential. The dotted lines mean that each variable is influential and sometimes changes the selected value in a transaction.

This study selects values for each variable that are likely to cause literary reading and expository reading respectively and examines how dictionary use differs between readings of these two types.

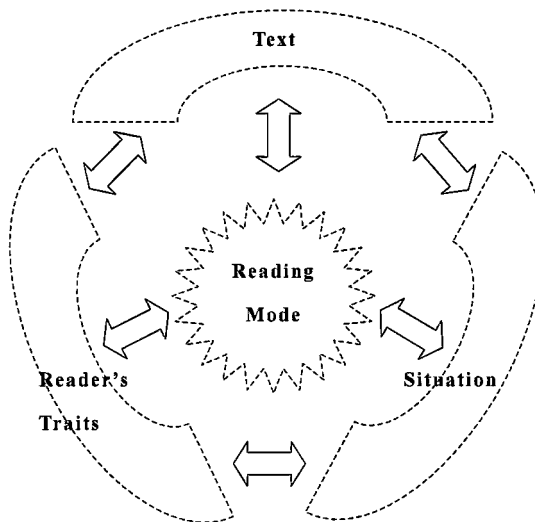


Figure 1. Transaction Model.

4. Method

The purpose of the following investigation is to examine how Japanese learners of English use a dictionary when practicing literary reading and expository reading in English, and what difference is observed between these reading modes.

4.1. *Preliminary Experiment*

A preliminary experiment examined how Japanese learners of English use a dictionary when reading an English text. As subjects, 22 students (including both undergraduate and postgraduate students) participated. All participants were studying for TEFL certification in Japan and their English proficiency was at the upper-intermediate level. Although they were used to reading expository texts, their poetry reading experience was quite poor. I asked them in Japanese when and for what purpose they use a dictionary when reading in English. They reflected upon their own dictionary use and answered in a free description. These data were classified into 23 categories. Because this framework worked satisfactorily in a pilot study, it was chosen for use in the experiment reported in the next section.

4.2. *Participants*

In this study, participants were 30 Japanese undergraduate learners of English, who studied for TEFL certification at a national university in Japan. They were almost the same as those who participated in the preliminary experiment with regard to English proficiency, expository reading experience, and poetry reading experience. Their dictionary use in literary reading mode and expository reading mode was compared.

4.3. *Control of two reading modes based on a Transaction Model*

To activate reading of two types, the environment in which reading occurs was modulated in the framework of a Transaction Model.

4.3.1. *Text.* The following is the procedure to select texts for this study. First, to select a poem, 50 pieces of poetry were elicited randomly from contemporary poetry anthologies (the anthologies used here were Brooks and Warren (eds.) (1976), Kennedy and Gioia (eds.) (2002), and Ramazani et al. (eds.) (2003)). Next, inappropriate poems were excluded from terms of the graphological character (texts with a prose-like layout were excluded), the theme (poems with difficult themes for participants such as religion and history were excluded, as were those with a sexual theme), the length of the text (texts longer than two pages were excluded, as were overly short texts), and the lexical difficulty (texts more than 2.0 vocabulary level texts using v8an.pl in JACET 8000⁴ were excluded). Finally, random sampling was conducted of texts which satisfied all the criteria described previously. W. S. Merwin's (2003) 'The Hydra' was selected for the literary reading mode (Appendix 1). This poem comprises 128 words, aside from proper nouns. The vocabulary level is 1.23⁵.

Based on the title of the poem 'The Hydra', an article on the monster the Hydra was elicited as the expository text for expository reading mode from *Encyclopedia Mythica* online at <http://www.pantheon.org/>. Then, the length and the vocabulary level of the article was adjusted by the author and one native speaker of English who teaches TEFL courses at a national university in Japan. As a result of this adaptation process, the number of the words in the article became 129. The lexical level was reduced to the level of 1.46, both of

which were quite close to Merwin's poem. The expository text is presented in Appendix 2.

Consequently, two texts used for this study was commensurate in terms of the length of the text, the difficulty of vocabulary included, and theme (both deal with the Hydra).

4.3.2. Readers' traits. As described later, each participant was invited to activate both reading modes. Therefore, 'readers' traits' were not manipulated and only two other elements, 'text' and 'situation', were modulated.

4.3.3. Situation. 'Situation' was also controlled. Under a literary reading condition, participants were notified explicitly that the text they were going to read was a poem. Furthermore, they were asked to understand what message the author of the poem tried to convey to readers, which is a common reading task when reading a piece of literature (Culler 1975, Hanauer 2010). Under the expository reading condition, they were instructed explicitly that the text they were going to read was an expository text. At the same time, they were asked to write a summary of the text after reading it.

4.4. Data elicitation

The data elicitation method was stimulus-recall. The researcher videotaped a participant's performance while the participant was reading a text and working on the assigned task. Subsequently, the researcher reproduced the video and watched it with the participant. When the participant used the dictionary in the video, the researcher stopped the videotape and asked why the dictionary had been used. The response was classified according to the framework developed in the preliminary study.

4.5. Procedure

Each participant took part in this study twice: one occasion for literary reading and the other for expository reading. The interval between the two participations was more than one day and less than a week. On each occasion, the participant came to the research room individually and the data about their dictionary use was elicited. The order of reading texts was assigned randomly for each participant. Consequently, half read the poem in the first participation. The other half read the expository text first. The participants' native language, Japanese, was used through the instruction.

The procedure for each occasion was as follows.

1. The participant and the researcher shared small talk to build up their mutual rapport.
2. The researcher explained the purpose of the study and asked the participant for permission to record their reading behavior and performance.
3. The researcher explained the procedure to the participant:
 - a. The participant is going to read an English poem or an English expository text.
 - b. The participant must always read the text underlining, with a red pen, the place that is being read at that moment.
 - c. The participant is allowed to consult a dictionary⁶ when desired: but must mark with a green pen the expression the participant checked.
 - d. The participant finish reading when sufficiently confident to work on the task the participant had been

- assigned: comprehending the message the author of the text tried to convey to the readers under the literary reading condition and summarizing the content of the text under an expository reading condition.
- e. The participant is asked to write an answer on the answer sheet without looking at the text.
 - f. The participant and the researcher are going to watch a recording of the participant's performance.
 - g. The participant is asked, while watching the video, why the dictionary was used each time.
 - h. The task is not timed.
 - i. The reading speed and finish time for the task are not checked.
 - j. The participant is relaxed because this is not an examination.
4. The participant checked the procedure using a prose text that was not used for this study.
 5. The researcher showed the participant the picture of the Hydra to activate the relevant schema.
 6. The participant read the text that the participant had been assigned.
 7. The participant answered the assigned task without looking at the text.
 8. The researcher played back the video which the researcher recorded and watched it together with the participant: The participant was asked the reason for using a dictionary. Responses were recorded with a voice recorder.
 9. The participant circled unknown words with a black pen in the text.

5. Results and Discussion

The participants in this study only used English-Japanese dictionaries installed in their pocket electronic dictionaries. After the interview, the participants' recorded responses about dictionary use in a voice recorder were classified according to the framework developed in the preliminary research (Table 1).

First, the number of dictionary uses was compared between literary reading condition and expository reading condition. A chi-square test showed no statistical difference between the two conditions ($\chi^2(1) = 0.25, p = .62$).

Although the total numbers of dictionary uses in each condition was almost identical, subcategories in Table 1 show their differences. Under a literary reading condition, participants used dictionaries mostly for the reason of Category 4 'Although I know the word itself, I thought it was used with other meaning which I actually did not know, and used my dictionary to check that meaning'. The total number of this category is 61, which accounts for 48.8% of the total number of the observed dictionary use conduct under this condition. Under an expository reading condition, however, a dictionary was used for the reason of Category 1 'I used my dictionary because I did not know the word'. The observed number of this category is 58, which accounts for 52.3% of all instances of dictionary use conducted under this condition. These results indicated the following three points: (1) participants used a dictionary to check the meanings of words irrespective of the type of reading (Tomaszczyk 1979, Tono 2001); (2) under literary reading conditions, they consulted a dictionary for new meanings of known words; and (3) under an expository reading condition, they used a dictionary to check the meanings of new words.

The difference observed here might be explained by characteristics of each reading mode. Under a literary reading mode, participants were invited to understand the hidden meaning beneath the text. Therefore, they might become sensitive to the diction or wording in the text, as a result of which they used a dictionary to look for the new meanings of known words. However, they had to examine the overt meaning of the text

specifically under the expository reading condition. Consequently, unlike the literary reading condition, they did not have to account for whether their known words have other meanings which they had not known⁷ and focused only on new words for them.

Category 7 revealed that participants used a dictionary for confirming the known meanings of known words equally between the two conditions. Therefore, irrespective of the type of reading, participants used a dictionary to confirm whether the meaning of a word they held in their mind was correct or not.

Finally, it is possible to point out that participants used a dictionary for limited purposes. Although the purposes of dictionary use were classified into 23 categories in the preliminary study, the categories for which more than ten observations were made were only three for each condition. In other words, irrespective of the type of reading, participants used a dictionary for only a few purposes.

Incidentally, the finding about the literary reading mode presents interesting implications to second language acquisition, especially the process called restructuring. Restructuring is an important phase in foreign language learning (McLaughlin, 1990). In this process, learners of English reconstruct their foreign language system in their mind. Dictionary use to investigate new meanings of known words under a literary reading condition might provide some hints for developing a useful task for facilitating restructuring phase of second language acquisition and developing or deepening foreign language learners' lexical knowledge for future use.

There were at least three important limitations noted for this study. First, it is difficult to evaluate the participants' dictionary use observed in this study. It is impossible to answer questions such as 'Was their dictionary use appropriate?', 'If not, how should it be improved?' These questions can be answered after several future studies about dictionary use in different reading modes are conducted. When these questions are answered, the findings are expected to be useful for pedagogical purposes: teaching how to use a dictionary in different reading conditions. Second, it is difficult to generalize the results of this study. More studies must be done using other texts with greater number of participants. Third, this study did not control the percentage of new words in each text. Consequently, some asymmetric dictionary use for the meaning of new words, especially in Category 1, might be influenced by the number of such words included in each text. In fact, the expository text used for this study contained more new words than the poem did. The average number of new words per person in the expository text was 2.8, and that of the poem was 0.7. ($t(29) = -8.38, p = .00$). However, as argued earlier, the overall figures of dictionary use observed here matched the theoretical background to this study.

Table 1. Categories of dictionary use and the results of this study.

| Category | LRC | ERC | Total |
|--|-----|-----|-------|
| 1. I did not know the meaning of the new word. | 17 | 58 | 75 |
| 2. I checked whether the meaning I inferred was right or not. | 3 | 12 | 15 |
| 3. I used my dictionary for a new word for reasons other than Categories 1 and 2. | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4. Although I know the word itself, I thought it was used with some other meaning which I actually did not know, and used my dictionary to check that meaning. | 61 | 5 | 66 |
| 5. Although I know the word itself, I thought it had a hidden meaning there; I used my dictionary to find a clue. | 4 | 0 | 4 |
| 6. I used my dictionary to seek the new meaning of a word that I have already learned for other reasons of Categories 4 and 5. | 2 | 1 | 3 |

| | | | |
|---|-----|-----|-----|
| 7. I checked the learned meaning of a word that I had already learned. | 28 | 26 | 54 |
| 8. I considered which meaning of an already learned word was the most suitable in the context. | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9. I used my dictionary for the learned meaning of a word that I had already learned for other reasons of Categories 7 and 8. | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| 10. I did not know the usage of a new word. | 2 | 0 | 2 |
| 11. I checked the new usage of a word that I have already learned. | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| 12. I confirmed the learned usage of a word that I have already learned. | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 13. I checked whether a learned word has a usage that I did not know. | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 14. I used my dictionary for the usage of a learned word for reasons other than those of Categories 11, 12, and 13. | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 15. I checked the pronunciation of a new word. | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 16. I checked the pronunciation of a learned word. | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 17. I checked the relevant words (homonyms and antonyms) of a new word. | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 18. I checked the relevant words (homonyms and antonyms) of a learned word. | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 19. I checked whether a new word was part of an idiomatic phrase in this context. | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 20. I checked whether a learned word was part of an idiomatic phrase in this context. | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 21. I used my dictionary for a new word for other reasons listed above. | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 22. I used my dictionary for a learned word for reasons other than those listed above. | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 23. I used my dictionary for reasons other than those listed above. | 3 | 4 | 7 |
| Total | 125 | 111 | 236 |

LRC, literary reading condition; ERC, expository reading condition

6. Conclusion

This study examined differences of dictionary use between two reading modes: the literary reading mode and expository reading mode. Results show that the dictionary use changes according to the type of reading in which the reader engages. Under a literary reading condition, participants become skeptical about their linguistic knowledge. They use a dictionary to check whether the words they know have other meanings. In contrast, under an expository reading condition, they devote attention to new words. They do not use dictionaries to check other meanings of known words. Because this study has limitations in terms of the numbers of texts and participants, it is difficult to generalize these findings. Future studies must be undertaken to expand and clarify these findings.

Notes

1. Although Rosenblatt (1978) used different terminologies for each reading mode ('aesthetic reading' and 'efferent reading' respectively), this study uses these words because they are easier to understand.
2. This is one reason why test-makers prefer to use expository texts as test materials for reading tests.
3. Although previous studies in lexicography have addressed dictionary use in reading in general (e.g., Atkins

and Varantola 1998, Bogaards 1998, Chen 2010, Nesi 2002, Summers 1998, Tono 2001), this study examines dictionary use in different types of reading: literary reading and expository reading.

4. JACET 8000 is an English vocabulary list which was produced by the Japan Association of College English Teachers in 2003. Common English words are classified into nine categories from most frequent to least frequent. V8an.pl is a program for checking how many words in each category are used in a given text.
5. This value means that most words in the poem belong to Category 1 (most frequent 1,000 words) and Category 2 (second most frequent 1,000 words) in the list, and the text is easy to understand in terms of the vocabulary frequency.
6. Participants were told to bring their own dictionary for the research room beforehand. Each brought a pocket electronic dictionary.
7. Linguists and literary theorists might explain these findings based on denotation and connotation (Barthes 1964/1967, Hjelmslev 1943/1953).

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Appendix 1. Poem used for this study: W. S. Merwin's 'The Hydra'

The Hydra

| | |
|--|----|
| No no the dead have no brothers | 1 |
| The Hydra calls me but I am used to it | 2 |
| It calls me Everybody | 3 |
| But I know my name and do not answer | 4 |
| The snow stirs in its wrappings | 5 |
| Every season comes from a new place | 6 |
| Like your voice with its resemblances | 7 |
| A long time ago the lightning was practising | 8 |
| Something I thought was easy | 9 |
| I was young and the dead were in other | 10 |
| Ages | 11 |
| As the grass had its own language | 12 |
| Now I forget where the difference falls | 13 |
| One thing about the living sometimes a piece of us | 14 |
| Can stop dying for a moment | 15 |
| But you the dead | 16 |
| But at moments you have just finished speaking | 17 |
| Once you go into those names you go on you never | 18 |
| Hesitate | 19 |
| You go on | 20 |

Appendix 2. Expository text in this study

The Hydra which lived in the swamps near to an ancient Greek city, was a terrifying monster which was said by some to be the offspring of one monster that was half-maiden and half-snake, and another monster with a hundred heads. The Hydra had the body of a large snake and many heads (the generally accepted number is nine), of which one could never be harmed by any weapon, and if any of the other heads were cut off, another would grow in its place. Some say that the terrible smell of the Hydra's breath was enough to kill man or beast. When it emerged from the swamp it would attack herds of cattle and local villagers, eating them with its numerous heads. It totally frightened people for many years.

Abstract**A Comparative Study on Dictionary Uses
in Literary and Expository Reading**

Takayuki NISHIHARA

This study is intended to examine differences of dictionary use between literary reading mode and expository reading mode in a foreign language. These two reading modes are defined based on a Transaction Model. This study, which examined 30 Japanese learners of English, yielded the following three points as main findings: (1) under a literary reading condition, they used a dictionary most to see whether known words had a different meaning that they did not know; (2) under an expository reading condition, they tended to use a dictionary for checking the meaning of new words and did not devote attention to the other meanings of known words; and (3) dictionaries were used for only limited purposes in both reading modes.