

UNIVERSITÉ DU QUÉBEC À MONTRÉAL

RECONNAISSANCE DES FAUX-AMIS EN RELATION À LA TAILLE DU VOCABULAIRE ET
EN RÉPONSE À UN FEEDBACK : UNE ÉTUDE EN SALLE DE CLASSE SECONDAIRE

MÉMOIRE
PRÉSENTÉ
COMME EXIGENCE PARTIELLE
DE LA MAÎTRISE EN LINGUISTIQUE

PAR
NATACHA BERGERON

JUILLET 2006

UNIVERSITÉ DU QUÉBEC À MONTRÉAL

FAUX-AMIS AWARENESS IN RELATION TO VOCABULARY SIZE AND IN
RESPONSE TO INTERACTIVE FEEDBACK: A SECONDARY CLASSROOM
INVESTIGATION

THESIS
PRESENTED
AS A PARTIAL REQUIREMENT
FOR THE MASTER IN LINGUISTICS

BY
NATACHA BERGERON

JULY 2006

UNIVERSITÉ DU QUÉBEC À MONTRÉAL

Service des bibliothèques

Avertissement

La diffusion de ce mémoire se fait dans le respect des droits de son auteur, qui a signé le formulaire *Autorisation de reproduire et de diffuser un travail de recherche de cycles supérieurs* (SDU-522 -Rév.01-2006). Cette autorisation stipule que «conformément à l'article **11** du Règlement no 8 des études de cycles supérieurs, [l'auteur] concède à l'Université du Québec à Montréal une licence non exclusive d'utilisation et de publication de la totalité ou d'une partie importante de [son] travail de recherche pour des fins pédagogiques et non commerciales. Plus précisément, [l'auteur] autorise l'Université du Québec à Montréal à reproduire, diffuser, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de [son] travail de recherche à des fins non commerciales sur quelque support que ce soit, y compris l'Internet. Cette licence et cette autorisation n'entraînent pas une renonciation de [la] part [de l'auteur] à [ses] droits moraux ni à [ses] droits de propriété intellectuelle. Sauf entente contraire, [l'auteur] conserve la liberté de diffuser et de commercialiser ou non ce travail dont [il] possède un exemplaire.»

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study might not have been possible without the help of a number of people who are dear to me. It is very important for me to thank them.

First and foremost the administration of the school where this study was conducted did not only allow me to test learners, but also helped me getting accurate details regarding the school. This allowed me to draw a clear picture of the learners who participated in this study and how they stand compared to other learners from the province.

In the course of my MA program, I went through two pregnancies which did not make things easy for me. The constant support of both my parents and my husband proved to a key element in pursuing my studies. Later, my daughters Marieke and Romane became my greatest motivation. As their mother, a great gift to them is to set an example by finishing what I had set to do. With this MA thesis, I feel I have.

Finally, without Mr Tom Cobb, my director, this MA thesis would never have been as it is presented in the following pages. I initially met him in a vocabulary acquisition class during one of my MA classes, and his thorough knowledge in the field of vocabulary acquisition led me to want to learn more and choose this particular topic. His undying support pushed me to constantly go beyond what I thought myself capable of doing, and this is something which was not only useful with this study, but will follow me through life. I sincerely thank him for the endless hours he so willingly spent in helping me conduct this study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES	vi
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	ix
ABSTRACT	x
RÉSUMÉ DE L'ÉTUDE	xi
INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER I	
THE QUESTIONS DIRECTING THE INVESTIGATION	5
1.1 The questions of the study	5
1.2 Elaboration of the questions	5
1.3 Summary of the questions of the study	7
CHAPTER II	
LITERATURE REVIEW	8
2.1 Role of the L1 in vocabulary development	8
2.2 Related languages	9
2.3 Definition of cognates and FA	10
2.4 Pedagogy and cognates	16
2.5 Cognates and FA within Quebec's specific situation	19
2.6 Evolution of cognate status within learners	19
2.7 Gender and ESL	20
2.8 Faux amis – a blind spot in the research	21
2.9 Chapter summary	22

CHAPTER III		
METHOD	24
3.1	Participants and context	24
3.1.1	The school	24
3.1.2	The participants	26
3.1.3	Learners' ESL background prior to attending the school of the study	26
3.1.4	The English program in the school of the study	27
3.1.5	Outside the second language classroom	28
3.1.6	The participants' first language	29
3.2	The tools used for the conduct of this study	29
3.2.1	Timeframe of evaluation for the study	29
3.2.2	Comparing the participants	30
3.2.3	The Vocabulary Levels Test	31
3.2.4	The first faux-amis test	32
3.2.5	The handling of interactive feedback regarding faux-amis	33
3.2.6	The second faux-amis test	35
3.2.7	Written production analysis	36
3.2.8	The VocabProfile Instrument	36
3.2.9	Modifications to participants' written productions	39
3.3	Chapter Summary	39
CHAPTER IV		
RESULTS	41
4.1	The Vocabulary Levels Test	42
4.2	The Faux Amis tests	43
4.3	Creating sub-sections within the FA results	44
4.4	The impact of interactive feedback on faux-amis awareness	47
4.4.1	The first faux-amis test	47
4.4.2	The second faux-amis test	48

4.4.3	FA results pre and post interactive feedback	49
4.5	The VocabProfile	50
4.6	Predicting success with faux-amis	53
4.6.1	Predicting with the Vocabulary Levels Test	53
4.6.2	Predicting with VocabProfile	54
4.7	Contextual variables in faux-amis awareness	55
4.7.1	Gender differences	56
4.7.2	Primary-school ESL instruction	56
4.8	Summary of the chapter	56
CHAPTER V		
DISCUSSION		58
5.1	Summary of the questions	58
5.2	The Vocabulary Levels Test	59
5.2.1	The Vocabulary Levels Test: a good predictor of faux-amis results?	61
5.2.2	Is there such a thing as a threshold?	62
5.3	The VocabProfile	63
5.3.1	Active vocabulary knowledge and cognates	64
5.4	Passive and active vocabulary knowledge	65
5.5	The impact of interactive feedback on FA recognition skills	67
5.5.1	Teacher feedback regarding faux-amis awareness	68
5.6	Does gender influence faux-amis awareness?	69
5.7	Does prior primary school instruction influence faux-amis awareness?	69
5.8	Chapter summary	70
CONCLUSION		71
APPENDIX A		
THE VOCABULARY LEVELS TEST		74
APPENDIX B		
FIRST FAUX-AMIS TEST		81

APPENDIX C	
SECOND FAUX-AMIS TEST	84
APPENDIX D	
WRITTEN PRODUCTION - ORIGINAL VERSION	86
APPENDIX E	
WRITTEN PRODUCTION - CORRECTED VERSION	87
REFERENCES	88

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
0.1	Sampling of a learner's written production	2
2.1	Venn diagram representation of an absolute FA using the word <i>lecture</i> as an example	14
2.2	Venn diagram representation of a partial FA using the word <i>professor</i> as an example	15
2.3	Venn diagram representation of a partial FA using the word <i>date</i> as an example	15
3.1	VocabProfile output screen	39

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
3.1	Distribution of the 104 participants	26
3.2	Distribution of the 104 participants regarding 6 th grade ESL education	27
3.3	Distribution of the participants who received interactive feedback on FA	35
4.1	Distribution of participants' results on the VLT	43
4.2	Mean of the FA Test from the 104 participants of the study	43
4.3	Basic Linear Correlation between VLT Frequency Levels and total of both FA tests	44
4.4	Distribution of the subsections from the FA tests	44
4.5	VLT mean of the weak participants from the FA tests	45
4.6	VLT mean of the average participants from the FA tests	45
4.7	VLT mean of the strong participants from the FA tests	46
4.8	ANOVA in regards to three groups from FA tests	47
4.9	Correlation of the two FA tests regarding interactive feedback . . .	48
4.10	Correlation of the two FA tests: cognates VS FA with weak participants	50

4.11	Correlation of the two FA tests: cognates VS FA with average participants	50
4.12	Correlation of the two FA tests: cognates VS FA with strong participants	50
4.13	Mean of the 104 participants on the VocabProfile	51
4.14	Mean of the 36 weak participants on the VocabProfile	52
4.15	Mean of the 36 average participants on the VocabProfile	52
4.16	Mean of the 32 strong participants on the VocabProfile	52
4.17	Writing profiles for weak, average and strong learners (as determined by FA test results)	53
4.18	Correlation of the prediction of recognizing FA according to the VLT results	54
4.19	Correlation of the prediction of recognizing FA according to the VocabProfile results	54
4.20	Distribution of the participants regarding gender and primary-school instruction in 6 th grade	55
4.21	Results of ANOVA for 100 participants testing gender & primary-school ESL instruction as predictors of FA awareness	56
5.1	Results of MEQ June 2003 Secondary IV English L2 examinations	61
5.2	Distance between the three groups in the mean of the frequency levels from the VLT	63

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AWL	Academic Word List
EFL	English Foreign Language
ESL	English Second Language
FA	Faux-ami
LFP	Lexical Frequency Profile
L1	First language
L2	Second language
MELS	Ministère de l'Éducation et des Loisirs
MEQ	Ministère de l'Éducation du Québec
VLT	Vocabulary Levels Test
UWL	University Word List
1K	First 1,000 words
2K	Second 1,000 words
3K	Third 1,000 words
5K	Fifth 1,000 words
10K	Tenth 1,000 words

RÉSUMÉ DE L'ÉTUDE

La présente étude a été effectuée à l'aide de 104 apprenants d'une école secondaire privée de la rive-nord de Montréal ayant tous le français comme L1 et l'anglais comme L2 et qui ont eu leur sensibilisation mise à l'épreuve à savoir s'ils sauraient faire la distinction entre un congénère (un transfert positif de leur L1) et un faux-amis (FA, un transfert négatif de leur L2). Le but de l'étude était de savoir si une telle sensibilisation pourrait être enseignée ou si une connaissance plus approfondie du vocabulaire aiderait un apprenant à être plus réceptif à la question des faux-amis et congénères.

Afin d'avoir une base de comparaison entre les apprenants, un examen de la taille du vocabulaire, le Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) a été utilisé ainsi qu'un examen de reconnaissance de FA. Le VLT permet d'évaluer la quantité de vocabulaire passif selon divers niveaux de fréquence. De plus, une production écrite de chaque participant a permis de tracer un autre profil lexical.

Ces résultats ont démontré une grande différenciation entre le vocabulaire passif, mais non à l'actif: tous les participants ont un vocabulaire actif comparable, et ce, peu importe leur degré de vocabulaire passif. De plus, ils utilisent un pourcentage de congénères comparable à un échantillon d'un texte littéraire anglophone. La trouvaille principale de l'étude est que les apprenants qui ont atteint une connaissance de 5000 familles de mots sont significativement plus réceptifs que ceux ayant un vocabulaire plus petit en ce qui a trait à la différenciation entre les congénères et FA.

Pour ce qui est de la sensibilisation à la question des FA par l'enseignant, les résultats de l'étude démontrent clairement que les apprenants n'ont pas bénéficié d'une approche telle que celle utilisée lors de l'étude; ils n'en ont été que mélangés, et ce, peu importe leur degré de connaissance. Le mieux serait donc d'enrichir leur vocabulaire passif.

ABSTRACT

The current study took place in a private school on the North-Shore of Montreal, where 104 learners from a private school, who all have French as an L1 and English as an L2, were tested for their awareness of the difference between useful cognates (a positive transfer from their L1) and *faux-amis* (FA a, negative transfer from their L1). The aim of the study was to investigate whether this awareness can be instructed, and whether learners with a larger vocabulary size would be naturally more aware of this distinction without instruction.

To set up a basis of comparison amongst the participants, the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) developed by Nation (1990) was administered as well as a test of FA awareness. The VLT measures passive vocabulary knowledge from various frequency levels. Also, a written sample was analysed to have an active vocabulary profile of each participant.

VLT results showed considerable variance in passive vocabulary size, but not in active; all participants had similar active vocabulary knowledge regardless of their passive knowledge, and furthermore they all used cognates to about the same degree as these are used in a sampled English literary text. The study's main finding is that learners with passive knowledge of 5000 words families were significantly more aware of distinctions between cognates and FA than learners with smaller vocabulary sizes.

As for interactive feedback by L2 teachers in FA awareness, the results from the study clearly showed that learners do not benefit from the particular form of instruction attempted in this study; it confused strong and weak learners alike. The best route to FA awareness appears to be through enrichment of learners' passive vocabulary knowledge.

INTRODUCTION

There may be many motivations to pursue a master's degree in applied linguistics, but mine is my experience as an English second language (ESL hereafter) teacher. A great number of ESL teachers have preceded me, some of them tackling scientific studies to try and better understand the problems ESL learners face. A lot has been gained by them, and yet, once we are in our own classroom, things are never quite the same; each study having a particular setting, duplication may not always be possible.

Though I believe in what I do as a teacher, I had the feeling that I was facing some problems in my students' language learning that I did not really understand and had not been prepared for. A good example of this is Figure 0.1. This is a text written by one of my students: no corrections or modifications have been made. This sample is not very different from others that I regularly receive. In bold are the words that triggered my major concerns.

Figure 0.1
Sampling of a learner's written production

Marilyse and Stéphanie are raise in Alexandra's basement. The three girls are watching a movie when Marilyse says that it's boring. She proposes to play Widjaa. Alexandra and Stéphanie, too easy fearfull, refuse systematically but Marilyse very convincing arrive to persuade her friends. They install the game and start to play. Marilyse decide to call her grandmother. Marilyse starts to ask some questions at her grandmother and she answers them. After the communication, Alexandra and Stéphanie take **assurance** and decide to call some unknowns ghosts. Some strange things begin to appear: the window open, the girls heard a crow and the rocket chair starts to swing. The lights flash and the suddently turn off. Marilyse **rests** calm but Stéphanie and Alexandra start to scream. Two second later, the lights brutally turn on and the two easy fearfull girls see that Marilyse is'nt in her normal state. Marilyse start to rock and sing a lullaby. Then Alexandra approaches Marilyse and pat her shoulder. Marilyse don't reacts so the girls think that Marilyse jokes them but they **realise** that is not a joke. The spirit in Marilyse decides to confess her true identity. She tell them that she is a good spirit but in reality she is the reincarnation of the pain. She tell them that it exists a spell to eject her from the body of her friend. They do that but it don't turn like they wanted. The bad spirit in Marilyse body reincarns some serial killers.

This particular learner is in her eighth year of ESL, yet still manages to make mistakes known as faux-amis (FA hereafter). Why is it that after many years of ESL class learners still have such basic problems with a language which, by then, should be familiar? I understood that my undertaking a study I would not solve all the problems I encountered on a daily basis in the classroom, but at least I would have done my share to make it easier for my students, and hopefully others.

I believed that vocabulary acquisition could be an interesting field of study. Instinct may not be everything, but I do believe it holds an important part of being a good L2 teacher. When spending ten months (a regular school year is 180 days of classes) with learners whom you not only teach but interact with on a daily basis, you develop an acute understanding of your learners' needs which is fundamental in pursuing the goal of better enabling them to

acquire the L2 they are seeking. For a majority of learners, learning an L2 is first and foremost about learning vocabulary (Germain, 1991).

It appears my instinct wasn't so off since many others had already taken on the task of investigating how important vocabulary in fact is in L2 acquisition. Some research has proven that one of the most significant handicaps for L2 readers is insufficient vocabulary in the target language (Haynes & Baker, 1993; Alderson, 1984; Nation & Coady, 1988). Furthermore, Laufer and Sim (1985) found that the participants of the study they conducted viewed vocabulary as the most important element helping them understand the texts they had to read. These participants simply discarded any lexical information they had not understood, which then hindered their ability to understand a text. It would then seem that vocabulary does hold a very important place in learners' needs in L2 education.

Vocabulary is a vast domain, my students' written compositions helped me to focus on a major problem within that domain: FA, which is briefly defined as confusable cognates (this matter will be discussed in length in Chapter 2). *I'm very deceived because left my agenda at home* is a typical sentence found in the writing of my L2 learners. To them, there is nothing wrong in this sentence, but to an ESL teacher, it's a very familiar inappropriate use of first language (L1 hereafter) words in an L2 context.

One of the challenges L2 teachers face is whether learners should be encouraged to resort to their L1 which seems to play a role as an aid in their L2 vocabulary acquisition. In the case of this study, the participants' L1 is French and their L2 is English. I thought it would only seem normal for learners of a second (or additional) language to resort to what is familiar and well known. In their study of cognate recognition, Holmes and Ramos (1993) state that hypotheses on both their collective experience over a few years of working with English Foreign Language (EFL hereafter) learners, as well as from language-learning theories. The question is how can we link theory and practice: the theory found in academic research papers is validated in empirical studies conducted in different settings than the one I live on a daily

basis. To name just a few, Holmes and Ramos (1993) worked with university learners in the «Brazilian English for Specific Purposes» project, and Banta (1981) discusses the use of cognates and loans words in teaching German vocabulary to English L1 learners. Though Lightbown and Libben (1984) did conduct a study on Québec ESL teenagers on cognate recognition, their study did not take into account FA, and rather referred to them as «cases where French words were incorrectly used as if they were acceptable cognates» (p. 393). And Tréville (1993) studied cognate awareness of French L2 learners in Ontario, but using university students as her subjects. This is the first study I know of investigating cognate awareness of adolescent Québec Francophone ESL learners.

This study will be an attempt at finding out whether these ESL learners should be instructed on how do deal with FA, and if so, learners not all being at the same level of vocabulary acquisition, which ones would benefit best from this type of help.

The contents of this paper will be presented in the following order. First, the questions guiding this study will be elaborated in Chapter 1. Following this, Chapter 2 will be an overview of the role of the L1 in L2 vocabulary acquisition and a spectrum of definitions on both cognates and FA. Chapter 3 will present the methodology, hence the participants to the study and the tools used for the conduct of it. Chapter 4 will present the results from the various tests, which will be discussed in Chapter 5. The conclusion will bring us full circle to our initial concern: should ESL learners be instructed in how do deal with FA? This time, however, an answer will be provided.

CHAPTER I

THE QUESTIONS DIRECTING THE INVESTIGATION

1.1 The questions of the study

The main question of the current secondary classroom oriented study is (1) whether learners who have a measurably greater vocabulary in their L2 will have an advantage over others with lesser measurable vocabulary at identifying problematic aspects resulting from the contact of two languages existing side by side. Subsidiary related questions concern (2) what can be taught to learners at different levels of experience, particularly lexical experience, about how to deal with the reality of a partially shared lexicon, and would interactive feedback from the L2 teacher have an impact on FA awareness; (3) is there a correlation between active and passive knowledge in FA awareness; and (4) is gender or previous education a factor in this awareness?

1.2 Elaboration of the questions

The first question concerns the extent to which L1-L2 awareness is a natural function of lexical growth. What is expected to be found is that participants who have acquired more vocabulary in the target L2 will be better at handling cognates and being aware of the potential for FA. Then, if this hypothesis is confirmed, the study will go on to investigate whether a threshold of vocabulary knowledge can be identified that participants need to attain in order to cope with FA.

A second and subordinate question deals with the effectiveness of feedback in matters of cognates and FA. Will a learner who received feedback by an L2 teacher in strategies for handling the L2 regarding FA, and understanding the limits in the relationship between the L1 and L2, be more successful in an FA awareness task than one who has never been told anything about this reality of L2 acquisition, and will this depend on the learners' relative degree of vocabulary knowledge?

The third question concerns the role of the L1 as it features in active vs. passive knowledge about the L2. Active vocabulary knowledge is that which the learner actually uses in speaking and writing, while passive vocabulary is what he or she would not use but can recognize in listening and reading. The third subordinate question then is as follows: if there is a significant relationship between the amount of vocabulary knowledge and the ability to handle cognates, is the relationship stronger for active or for passive knowledge?

Two final questions concern the contextual variables gender and type of pre-secondary language instruction. First, since the subject pool is gender balanced, it is possible to investigate who does best at handling FA: boys or girls? Not only is the data on gender research fairly old, as it will be presented in the following chapter, it doesn't pertain to specific aspects of L2 acquisition, such as cognates and FA. Although the basis of this study is not gender, there might be interesting findings in the investigation. Second, because the participants of the current study received a different type of language education prior to attending the school of the study, I.E., immersion vs. the regular primary ESL program, does the type of primary language instruction the learners have received play a role in FA recognition?

1.3 Summary of the questions of the study

With regards to FA awareness, the current study will try to answer the following questions: do learners with a measurably larger vocabulary size have an advantage over those having a smaller vocabulary size in FA recognition; is there a threshold of vocabulary knowledge beyond which learners can trust their L1 to help them with their L2; will feedback from the L2 teacher have an impact on recognition skills; will the success of this feedback depend on the learners' vocabulary level; is active or passive vocabulary knowledge a better predictor of FA awareness; and are gender and previous education factors in this awareness? These questions are elaborated more fully below after the concepts involved have been established through a review of relevant literature.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The focus of the study is to enable L2 teachers not only to be able to better help the learners who may need to be more language aware about FA, but also to try and determine whether all learners should be helped in this aspect of L2 vocabulary acquisition, and if not, which ones would benefit most from our help, that is, if help really is beneficial. This study will try to answer all of these questions. The selected studies chosen as references for this paper were selected for their relevance but also because of their accessibility to teachers.

The literature concerning vocabulary being vast, only the most pertinent information will be presented. Because it would be very difficult, if not impossible to address the topic of L2 vocabulary acquisition without first questioning the role of the L1, the first part of this chapter will present some studies supporting this resource. However, the bulk of this chapter will be about presenting both cognates and FA.

This study having been conducted in a classroom setting, pedagogy needs to be addressed. Many pedagogically oriented studies have focussed on the role of cognates, and some of them will be discussed as I will try and put them in perspective regarding my specific participants.

2.1 Role of the L1 in vocabulary development

The influence of the L1 on the development of a learner's L2 is a much researched topic within applied linguistics (e.g., Kellerman, 1984; Kellerman & Sharwood Smith, 1986;

Ringbom, 1987; Odlin, 1989; Perdue, 1993). This influence pertains mainly to lexis but can also pertain to syntax; Nagy, McClure and Mir (1995) found that L2 learners' natural instinct will lead them to resort to syntactic constructions from their L1 when trying to understand and produce those of the L2, while Schmitt and McCarthy (1997) note that a learner's L1 vocabulary is one of the most important factors in learning L2 vocabulary—when a concept has received an initial label, it is almost impossible to attach a second label without some reference to the first. The influence pertains mainly to beginners but can endure to the most advanced levels. It has been shown that even bilinguals rely on their L1, even when a high level of proficiency has been achieved (Nagy & al, 1995). And while learners will naturally rely on their L1s in many regards, the reliance will probably be strongest in the case of vocabulary recognition, where a learner is trying to work out the meaning of an unknown word.

2.2 Related languages

When an L1 and L2 are historically related, both languages often share a lot of cognate vocabulary (Swan, 1987). Learners of an L2 bearing a large number of cognates will then learn faster and not make as many mistakes in their production simply because the difficulty of learning the new language will not be as great as it would be if the L1 and L2 were unrelated: a related L1 provides support in more areas than unrelated languages do. When the L1 and L2 belong to the same language family, some vocabulary of the L2 requires less effort (Holmes & Ramos, 1993).

Languages are considered as being close to one another depending on their origin. In the case of this particular study, both languages are from two different origins: French is Romance (Granger, 1996) while English is Germanic (Granger, 1996; Gachelin, 1990). Most low frequency vocabulary comes to English from Latin and Greek, often through French. Roberts (1965) gives the following proportions: about 44% of the first 1,000 words of English

come from French, Latin or Greek; this rises to about 60% in the second 1,000 words; for the rest of the 10,000 words, it remains at about 66%.

In an article, Gachelin (1990) even wonders if English is not similar enough to French to be considered a Romance language. Following the Norman Conquest of England in 1066, Norman French became the language of the English upper classes which means that many thousands of French words infiltrated the English language. According to Algeo (1991), French is the language from which English has borrowed the most. To Lipka (1990), English is «a unique mixture of Germanic and Romance elements» (p. 106).

2.3 Definition of cognates and FA

The various authors (Anthony, 1953; Banta, 1981; Carroll, 1992; Gallegos, 1983; Granger, 1996; Hammer, 1975; Holmes, 1986; Holmes & Ramos, 1993; Kellerman, 1978; Lado, 1957; Laufer, 1997; Lightbown & Libben, 1984; Limper, 1932; Meara, 1993; Nakamura, 1986; Palmberg, 1985, 1987; Ringbom, 1983, 1987; Sheen, 1977; Tréville, 1990, 1993, 2000; Ulijn & al, 1981; West, 1935) of the numerous texts read for this study all seem to have a slightly different view on the subject matter: all of them have the general same idea, but have a slight twist of their own when it comes to finer details of the definition. If lexical resemblance was as easy as defining black and white, learners of an L2 would have a much easier time learning it, but the reality is that there are so many of what might be called «shades» that it makes it very difficult to clearly elaborate. All seem to agree on what cognates are, but once one language has an additional, or slightly different meaning, the labelling becomes varied amongst linguists who have defined several types of cognates and FA, and schemes for classifying them. The following section will present various definitions found amongst numerous texts.

Over the years, slight variations on the basic definition of cognate have emerged. To present just a few, Carroll (1992) defines them as lexical items from different languages which are identified by bilinguals as somehow being the same thing, and as any pair of words which are treated by the learner as belonging to distinct linguistic systems but are also treated as being identical within those systems. Anthony (1953) defines them as any pair of words with enough correlation of form and meaning to be identified as being the same word. The problem of course is that 'enough' was and remains unspecified. As for Trévillé (2000), her definition of cognates is words from L1 and L2 which have an either identical or very similar written form.

For some linguists (Gallegos, 1983; Holmes & Ramos, 1993; Sheen, 1997), definitions have not been adequate and instead whole classifications have seemed more appropriate to encompass this phenomenon. The most thorough classification for cognates was elaborated by Gallegos (1983). This linguist classified them into four categories: true cognates, deceptive cognates, false cognates and accidental cognates. The first type, true cognates, occurs when the overlap between the items in the two languages is either total, or almost total in both orthographic and semantic terms. Holmes and Ramos (1993), lead in the same direction when, defining cognates as words sharing the same root. These are guided by two principal properties: orthographic and semantic similarities in the languages compared. An example would be the word *cousin* which has the same meaning and spelling in both French and English. Even though French has two genders, which leads to the pair *un cousin / une cousine*, this example is nonetheless one of true cognates.

The second type, deceptive cognates, is when the overlap is partial. An example of this type of cognate would be the word *parents*: in English, the word *parents* refers strictly to an individual's mother and father, but in French, *parents* not only comprises the English meaning, but in addition includes various family members. In other words, the similarity is more orthographic than semantic.

The third type, false cognates, occurs in cases when there is some orthographic resemblance but little current semantic relationship between a pair of words. To Gallegos, false cognates have the distinction of having had, some time in the past, an overlap which over time, disappeared as both languages evolved, and the former cognates became distinct to the point where no overlap remains, although etymologically, these words still share a common heritage. (Carroll (1992) argues that since the average person does not have any notion of etymology, this explanation is not pedagogically relevant). An example of such a case is the word *fabric* (in English meaning a tissue, which among other uses, clothing is made from) and *fabrique* (in French meaning a place where items are made so they could be sold) given in Granger (1996). In the 13th century, French borrowed this word from Latin, and then English in its turn borrowed it from French in the 15th century. Granger's (1996) explanation for this is semantic evolution. Cognates become different in meaning over time simply because once a borrowed word has become integrated within a language, it continues to evolve independently in either orthographic or semantic terms or both within the source language as well as the new language which it has been integrated into.

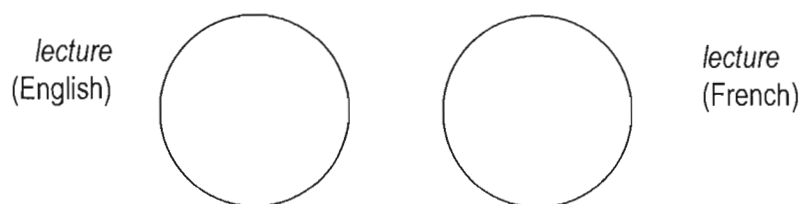
Finally, the last type, accidental cognates is when there is no etymological relationship between a pair of words, and where the only thing is a striking orthographic or phonological resemblance between the words. An example of such could be *library*: in French, it is where you buy books, as in English, it where you borrow them. This last type is what is closest to an FA, though Gallegos doesn't label it as so. Holmes and Ramos (1993) however do have definition of what they call *false cognates* or *false friends*: they are two words of the same origin which have changed in meaning, but are, at present, orthographically recognizable.

One way of getting past the confusion of definitions is to see cognates, at least as they appear to teachers and learners, as continua rather than categories. Palmberg (1987) and Trévillé (2000) view L1 vocabulary as the basis of the *continuum* between passive and active knowledge making cognates potentially recognizable L2 vocabulary. (Passive vocabulary knowledge in this study shall refer to what is *understood*, that is «reading» and «listening»,

while active vocabulary knowledge shall refer to what one *uses*, that is «speaking» and «writing».) Typically, an L2 learner's passive vocabulary knowledge will be roughly double that of his or her active vocabulary knowledge (Marton, 1977; Michael, 1972; Clark, 1993). Eringa (1974) estimates that after six years of French L2, high school learners' passive vocabulary knowledge is often almost triple the amount of active vocabulary knowledge. Banta (1981) suggests that when learning a new word, we usually associate it to one specific meaning and our understanding is passive, but as we encounter it in different contexts, this same word starts having various shades of meaning and some words may at that point go into full productive use.

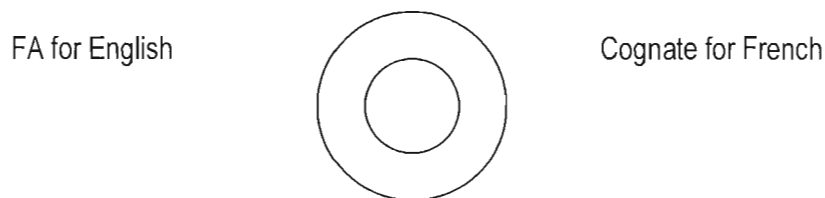
Sheen (1977) offers an interesting way to illustrate cognate relationships. He uses Venn diagrams in which overlapping circles represent the semantic fields of given pairs of words. In the case of absolute FA (or *false cognates*, as Gallegos (1983) labelled them), where there is no link between both words, the circles are side by side without touching each other, as for example *lecture* (suggested by both Sheen, 1977; and Laufer, 1997) which shares almost no element of meaning (*lecture* in French refers to either the verb *reading*, or *a reading*, and in English, *lecture* refers to *a conference*). Figure 2.1 illustrates this situation. Another such example would be the word *pain* as suggested by Laufer (1997): the French word *pain* refers to *bread* while its English counterpart refers to *douleur* (in French).

Figure 2.1
Venn diagram representation of an absolute FA using the word *lecture* as an example



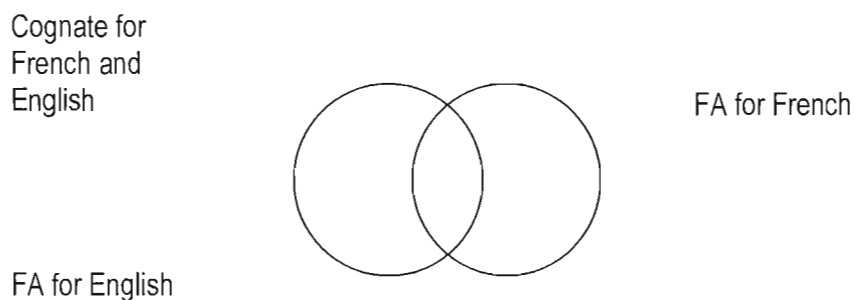
Sheen then makes a distinction between two types of FA which he labels partial FA either way (Gallegos (1983) labelled *partial FA* deceptive cognates). In the first case, the given word is an FA for one language, but not for the other, which makes it a cognate; the circle representing the cognate would totally be included in a larger circle, and what would not be part of the smaller circle would be the FA: for example, the word *professor* (in English, it is specifically a university teacher) and *professeur* (in French, it may be a teacher from any level) (note that people who are familiar with the education world do make a distinction between *enseignant* (any teacher below the rank of university) and *professeur* (strictly a university teacher), but to most, *professor* is the appropriate choice). A Francophone reading the sentence «*The professor corrected the dissertation*» will have no trouble understanding the word, because it is one of the meanings he or she already knows; but an Anglophone reading «*Le professeur a surveillé les élèves pendant la récréation*» will be confused because in English professors do not normally supervise children. This asymmetry is illustrated in Figure 2.2, where professor is cognate to the Francophone but FA to the Anglophone.

Figure 2.2
Venn diagram representation of a partial FA using the word *professor* as an example



The second case of partial FA is when two circles, each representing a language, intersect forming an ellipse; the shared area represents the common meaning (the cognate), while the two other parts represent the separate meanings (the FA); for example, the word *date*. Figure 2.3 represents the second type of partial FA. The cognate part of *date* is in regards to a day on a calendar. As for the FA part, in French, it may refer to something old, while in English, a *date* is a romantic *rendez-vous*.

Figure 2.3
Venn diagram representation of a partial FA using the word *date* as an example



While Banta (1981) describes cognates as «pairs of words that show sound-meaning correspondences indicating their historical relationship» (p. 129), he distinguishes them from

words considered *not cognates*: when two words sound the same, but have different meaning, he simply states that they are *not cognates*.

2.4 Pedagogy and cognates

There are a few pedagogically oriented studies on the use of cognates. What is interesting to note is that these studies span much of the twentieth century: Sheen (1979) strongly discourages uninstructed experimentation with cognates by L2 learners. On the other hand, some studies support the *judicious* use of cognates viewing them as a richness, that is, if the target language is related to the L1 (Banta, 1981; Anthony, 1953; West, 1935; Ulijn & al, 1981). Furthermore, Hammer (1975) and Limper (1932) emphasize that learners should be trained in recognizing cognates, as does Tréville (2000).

The oldest study found regarding L1 influence of L2 vocabulary acquisition (Lado, 1957) states that elements which are similar to a learner's L1 will seem simple and easy to recognize, while those which are different are difficult. However, contradicting studies have come forth since then. Banta (1981) finds some learners' inability to recognize cognates so *astonishing* that he questions whether this would not simply be mistrust. Lightbown and Libben (1984) have found evidence that cognates do not always help learners in L2 vocabulary acquisition. Holmes and Ramos (1993) found that even with beginning learners, cognates will make reading comprehension more accessible.

Holmes and Ramos (1993) have come up with many hypotheses on how learners deal with cognates. In their «Brazilian English for Specific Purposes» project which dealt with beginning learners, one of their predictions was that learners would approach cognates with suspicion due to previous language learning experience and *folk-linguistic* ideas about foreign language: cognate recognition would not be done systematically. What they found is that cognate recognition is a *natural* strategy: at this stage, English learners spontaneously sought

out cognate vocabulary in texts. And yet not all learners are the same in this regard. A study from Nakamura (1986) found that although learners may have a similar knowledge of English, some seemed more liberal than others in admitting a word as a cognate. This result was also duplicated in a pilot study from Holmes (1986). Yet Holmes and Ramos warn us teachers not to regard cognate recognition as a magic wand. Without much effort, learners will not use this *resource*. Rather, teachers must make learners aware of the importance of grammatical knowledge of English in order to identify cognates more accurately. Furthermore, they suggest caution in encouraging learners to seek cognates in texts, while not going to the other extreme where they would be warned about FA.

Holmes and Ramos' study, as previous ones (Kellerman, 1978; Hammer, 1975) suggests that one cannot assume that, without instruction, learners will recognize all the potential relationships between two languages. To Lightbown and Libben (1984), whose study dealt with teenage French L1 learners studying ESL, it seems plausible that learners will not accept or attempt to use cognates unless they have encountered them in a specific context in the target language. Palmberg (1987), Ringbom (1987) and Tréville (1990, 1993) believe that the existence of cognates doesn't seem to be automatically recognized and thus require some form of training.

However, Banta (1981) suggests encouraging intelligent guessing by providing a few examples to support a first encounter, which will allow the learner to familiarize themselves with this new word. Banta accuses teachers of having feelings of insecurities regarding the acknowledgment of cognates which he feels is robbing learners of a readily available tool for vocabulary building. Holmes and Ramos (1993) share the same feeling and explain it with an observation they have made: one of the great features of ESL/EFL methodology is that teachers are usually native speakers of English and thus cannot share the learners' knowledge of their L1, making it almost impossible to help learners be aware and take advantage of cognate vocabulary.

Sheen (1977) raises an interesting and original concept which may be helpful to L2 teachers who have learners with different L1s, but learning the same L2 (or in some cases, an L3 or more) in the fact that FA may not be the same across all pairs of languages. Cognates and FA are important for L2 teachers, but because every pair of languages leads to different cognates and FA, caution needs to be taken in handling them: when learners have various L1s, FA will be different for each pairing of languages. In fact, Sheen (1977) clearly states that any class time devoted to FA should be done to homogeneous groups sharing a common L1. However, he does believe that it would be possible to work with heterogeneous groups, but then once the initial introduction to the matter is done, the L2 teacher would need to work on individual basis with the learners. This could however only be possible when the teacher shares knowledge from the various learners' L1, as Holmes and Ramos (1993) pointed out in their observation about methodology regarding ESL/EFL studies.

While cognates and FA are a fascinating matter for linguists, who have invested time and energy on trying to define these terms in the abstract, on the concrete side there are learners who have to try and cope with the same phenomena from a rather different perspective. L2 teachers have the privilege of bridging the gap between theory and practice. As clear as it may seem in theory, cognates are not clear at all to learners; why should one set of identical words be acceptable, and not another? The needs of learners change as they get more experienced; the L2 teacher then needs to be highly sensitive to this and figure out when to guide and when to lead them. The border at which a cognate stops being one and becomes an FA is very difficult to define, so L2 teachers need to make learners secure enough to use cognates, but doubtful enough not to use FA. This study is investigating at which point this can be done.

2.5 Cognates and FA within Quebec's specific situation

Considering that the setting of this study is in affluent area on the North shore of Montreal, one must consider the specificity of the language situation. When two languages such as English and French, reside so closely together as they do in the province of Quebec, and have done so for three centuries, one may wonder how learners may see the difference between what is linguistically acceptable (a cognate) and what is not (an FA): some words have infiltrated the language and are now considered to be part of it. A good example is the word *parking*. It now appears in standard French dictionaries such as the French version of the online Wordreference.com (<http://www.wordreference.com/fren/parking>). Therefore, how can a new learner of English make the difference between what is acceptable and what is not? An amusing example of such is when, recently, a student asked me what the English word for *fermeture éclair* was: she was very surprised when I told her it was a *zipper*. This word is so common amongst French speakers that this learner seemed to have ignored that it was an English word. She herself told me that she thought it to be a familiar term in French.

2.6 Evolution of the cognate status within learners

Cognates are words which share a common meaning between two *connected* languages (Carroll, 1992), and linguists have spent much time and energy both defining them and evaluating their relevance in L2 vocabulary acquisition. The literature is mostly concerned with the linguist's perspective, and seems to forget that there is another one: the learners. Two perspectives should be taken into account: to an advanced learner, cognates are a helpful tool when new unknown vocabulary is encountered, but before this may become useful, new learners must learn about cognates.

In this article titled «Teaching German Vocabulary: The Use of English Cognates and Common Loan Words», Banta (1981) wrote: «Ears and eyes trained to recognize [...] cognates and common loans will help brains to build new passive vocabulary more rapidly in

the target language. As mentioned above, new vocabulary is at first passive (words that may be recognized, but not reproduced); by practice it becomes active. The method is a crutch [...] Students will not run as long as they are dependant on it, but they will learn to walk more steadily and swiftly.» (p.136) Learning an L2 is a gradual process and as Banta presents it, cognates are one out of many tools helping learners cope with vocabulary knowledge.

Palmberg (1987) and Tréville (2000) view L1 vocabulary as the basis of the *continuum* between passive and active knowledge making cognates possible help in recognizing some unknown vocabulary of the L2. While research tries to understand how cognates may be of help, when it comes to the learners themselves, they are faced with two fairly simple situations: words either look and mean the same, or look similar but have a different meaning.

Though much of the research states that most learners do not use cognates to their full potential right from the beginning. Meara (1993) and Palmberg (1985) added a specification to this when they found that lexical similarities are typically taken for equivalences by learners of L2s. However, over time and through experience, some learners, at some point, begin to realize that words which were thought as being equivalent in both their L1 and L2 may not be entirely so (Ringbom, 1983); other learners, however, may not reach this point, so that a lack of readjustment might lead to the fossilization of an FA in the learner's L2 lexicon.

2.7 Gender and ESL

Amongst other variables, gender too may have an influence on vocabulary acquisition, and possibly cognate recognition. The bulk of research on gender and language acquisition gives a clear advantage to girls (Vocolo, 1967; Westphal & al, 1969; Politzer & Weiss, 1969; PD. Smith, 1970; Burstall, 1975; Bogaards, 1982). Some studies, however, (e.g., Brega & Newell, 1967; Politzer & Weiss, 1969; Langouet, 1979) have found no distinction between the two groups; Cross (1983) even found teenager boys superior to girls (which is interesting in

that participants in the present study are teenagers). Cross' explanation for his finding was that these boys had been taught by a male L2 teacher. Similarly, Burstall (1975) discusses teacher rather than learner gender as a determining factor in language acquisition; in Germany, where boys outperform girls, there are more male L2 teachers; in the United States, where L2 teachers are more prone to be women, girls outperform boys. The contextual variable of gender then appears to be more complex than would seem to be.

2.8 Faux amis – a blind spot in the research and pedagogy

But little exists on FA from this concrete teacher-learner perspective. One of the books used to do this research is *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy* edited by Schmitt and McCarthy which was first printed in 1997 (3rd reprint in 2003). In this book which comprises 383 pages of research on second language acquisition, there is only half of one page that does deal with cognates, and both research studies it refers to date back to 1985 and 1993.

As for Nation's *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language* published in 2001, the only mention about cognates is through a research that suggests that etymological information on words may be helpful with certain learners, and this study, from Ilson, dates back to 1983.

Holmes and Ramos (1993) themselves state that there has been little research done on cognate vocabulary even though they consider this aspect of vocabulary acquisition to be *important*. They believe that one reason for this is that ESL and EFL (English foreign language) research focuses mainly on groups where the participants have various L1s.

And turning now to pedagogy and implementation, the MEQ (note that the MEQ has now been renamed MELS which stands for Ministère de l'Éducation et du Loisir et du Sport but since at the time this research was conducted, the MEQ was the leading office, the references

will all be to this agency, not its latter counterpart) has a list of pedagogical books accepted for a given program. The learners from this study were, during the academic year, going through the Secondary III and IV programs, as defined by the MEQ. The only two books which were accepted by the MEQ were «Take Action» (1987) (Secondary III) and «Take a Look» (1988) (Secondary IV). Both books are publications of ERPI (Éditions du renouveau pédagogique inc.), and in neither one of the teacher's guide is there any mention of how vocabulary should be taught. As for cognates, they don't even seem to exist.

And in all of these materials mentioned, there isn't even one mention of Faux-Amis.

2.9 Chapter summary

How cognates should be handled in second language acquisition is a complex matter. It is no wonder that both teachers and learners have problems working out a systematic way of dealing with them. So what should be done about cognates; should they be pointed out, or should learners be able to figure them out for themselves as they get more experienced? What about the teachers; should they alert learners to their uses, to their dangers, and if so, should all learners from various levels be treated the same? If cognates are so helpful because of the great similarity between the L1 and L2, what about FA: they are just as similar as cognates are. Are there any risks in presenting cognates to learners; if so, what should be done about FA?

A study may only be conducted with the help of participants. The following chapter will present both the participants to this study as well as the various tools which were used to evaluate them to then be able to answer the questions elaborated in the previous chapter.

This literature review has discussed cognates and faux-amis within vocabulary acquisition in a Quebec secondary context. Several other instruments, such as the Vocabulary Levels Test and the computer program VocabProfile will be presented in later chapters.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter will present both the participants to the study and the various tools which were used to evaluate their vocabulary skills in second language acquisition. The characteristics of the participants play a great role in the outcome of results: a different group of learners may yield another set of variables. It is therefore important to present them as accurately as possible. Following this, the various tools used to conduct this particular study will be detailed.

3.1 Participants and context

3.1.1 The school

The current study was conducted in a large francophone private school in a relatively affluent area on the North shore of Montreal. This school of 1400 students has a clientèle ranging from Secondary I (12 years old) up to Secondary V (16 years old). Because this is a private school, there is a selection process made to choose only those who performed outstandingly in an admission examination: according to the pedagogical director of the school (who wishes to remain nameless in this paper), statistically, only a quarter or the candidates are selected (personal communication). The admission exam consists of four exams: two testing French L1 comprehension skills and two testing mathematic skills through problem-solving. One French test and one math test come from a private firm and the two others were

constructed by math and French teachers of the school and are revised periodically, but usually with little to no modification.

Although the pedagogical director has been very open and supportive to the conduction of this study, she did not feel comfortable revealing the exact content of the admission exams: private schools need to keep a competitive edge, and part of this, is not revealing such secrets as admission exams. What she could disclose is that these tests consist in evaluating acquired skills from Grade 5 in primary school. The French exams test the learners' abilities at French skills such as grammar, basic sentence structure and reading comprehension while the math exams test logical skills. According to the pedagogical director, who is a former math teacher, with most questions from the math exam, understanding what is asked is sometimes more important than coming up with the right answer (personal communication).

The selection is natural in the sense that the school will not choose to have an identical number of boys and girls: according to the pedagogical director of this school (personal communication), it just happens that year after year, boys and girls are admitted in equal number.

Throughout their education in this particular private institution, the only time the participants are in contact with English L2 is during the English class itself. Because this is a Francophone school which is partly funded by the MEQ, it is impossible to have an immersion program. According to article 72 of Bill 101 (Charte de la langue française, 2002), French has to be the language used to teach academic disciplines from kindergarten through high school. Article 86 of the same Bill does allow an alternative to immersion, but only as long as it is not to teach academic disciplines. Had learners been allowed to go through immersion programs, they would have had more contact with their L2, English, and their problem regarding the difference between cognates and FA might not have been as great. However, it is not possible to investigate this possibility given the linguistic policies guiding the province of Quebec.

3.1.2 The participants

This study had 104 participants, divided in three class-groups (one group of 34 participants, and two groups of 35 participants in each), all aged 14 or 15 years old. There were, as detailed in Table 3.1, 55 boys and 49 girls. In addition to these participants, there were two class-groups (for a total of 69 learners) who served as pilot groups to validate the tests given for the conduct of this study.

Table 3.1
Distribution of the 104 participants

Gender	
Boys	Girls
55	49

3.1.3 Learners' ESL background prior to attending the school of the study

The participants of this study are all at the same class level, and have the same age, but have been through different ESL education programs. Unlike public high schools where many of the students come from the same neighbourhoods, and have been in just about the same classes since kindergarten, the participants of this study live in a radius of about 40 km from the school. It is therefore impossible to give precise details regarding their ESL experience in primary school, these being quite varied.

Briefly, some have gone to public primary schools where they started their ESL classes in 3rd grade. Some have gone to private schools where they were in immersion classes. Since the experiences were so varied amongst the participants, the only element that was taken into account for this study was the attendance in a 6th grade intensive English program. However, since there are many different programs («five months/five months», «four months/six months», «ten hours a week» and «eight hours a week» (Comité de travail sur

l'enseignement de l'anglais langue seconde: MEQ, 1996), knowing which participant came from which program would not greatly modify the results to this study. Rather, the mere attendance in one of these programs is sufficient information.

The basis of this study being whether participants who have a larger size of vocabulary will be better at recognizing FA, primary ESL education becomes a strong issue. One might assume that the stronger the emphasis was on learning an L2, the larger the vocabulary size will be. What has yet to be studied in depth is whether or not the attendance to a linguistic program in 6th grade will make a difference to a learner in the long run regarding FA awareness. Out of 104 participants, 82 have attended a linguistic program in 6th grade, and 22 did not, meaning they went through the regular ESL program. This distribution is shown in table 3.2.

Table 3.2
Distribution of the 104 participants regarding 6th grade ESL education

Grade 6 ESL education	
Regular ESL program	Linguistic program
22	82

3.1.4 The English program in the school of the study

The reality of private schools is that the only body that the school answers to is the MEQ, and since this school performs outstandingly (see 3.2.3 for explanation), the MEQ is pleased with what we do and will not normally intervene. Therefore, unlike public schools, there is no elaboration of documents supporting how programs are taught or handled. The English L2 program, just as the other pedagogical programs, has been developed by a number of L2 teachers, and continues to evolve as younger teachers join the faculty. Therefore, there is no possible reference for this section because it is based on observation not documents.

In the school of this study, starting in Secondary I, learners are separated in two sections: regular and advanced. The way this is done is through a classification exam that takes place in May, while they are still in primary school. There is unfortunately no reference for this test because it was informally constructed by a now retired English teacher from the school. Since all the learners come from a great number of school boards and schools, all must pass the exam. Statistically (according to the pedagogical director of this school), although most students having attended a linguistic intensive program in 6th grade do go to the advanced program of this school, some do not make it while others who went through the regular 6th grade program do make it (personal communication with pedagogical director of the school).

3.1.5 Outside the second language classroom

The schooling the learners went through may have an impact on their linguistic abilities, but education is not everything. The language(s) spoken at home may also have an impact on the learners' linguistic abilities. In the present study, all the learners but one came from French speaking families. In this particular case, the father is American, but the mother is a French speaking Canadian; in this home, both English and French are spoken. Some participants do use English sparingly at home, but just as occasional practice with their family. Four students lived in the United States for a period of one to two years. One of them only went to English daycare, but the three others did go to English school. All of this took place prior to the present study. These four participants were kept for this study: as with the other 100 participants, they did have French as an L1. They simply had a different experience with their L2.

3.1.6 The participants' first language

As Gallegos (1983) defines it, cognates are the result of an overlap between two languages. In this study, the two languages are French and English. Replication of this study would not be possible in any random school; the reason this study can take place in this very school is that all the participants have the same L1. In the case where the L1 would differ from participant to participant, the FA resulting from the overlap of two languages would be different with each pairing of L1 and L2 making very difficult to investigate (Sheen, 1977).

3.2 The tools used for the conduct of this study

There are two main types of data: quantitative and qualitative. While the first type draws answers with the help of statistics, the second type analyses a corpus or tries to draw conclusions from observation. The current study will be a quantitative one where participants will be evaluated through a series of tests described in the following section.

3.2.1 Timeframe of evaluation for the study

The testing was done at the end of the school-year, in late May, 2003. Here is the time frame of the various evaluations used with the participants. Details regarding these tools are in the following sections.

Three tests were given: the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1990) (VLT hereafter) and two tests (named FA tests) evaluating both cognates and FA recognition. The VLT and the first FA test were conducted on the same day. The two following weeks were devoted to an individual oral evaluation during which interactive feedback was given regarding FA to a target group. Then the second FA test was given.

From the beginning of the study to the end, between two and two and a half weeks went by, depending on the groups: not all groups were seen on the same day, which yields slightly different time frames, though each group had the same number of classes during the duration of the study (in this school, which works on a nine day schedule, each group is seen six days out of nine). About a week later, a written production sample was collected.

3.2.2 Comparing the participants

When performing a quantitative study, the most important thing is to set a reference basis to be able to compare participants in an equal manner. Because the basis of this study is vocabulary recognition, more specifically FA awareness, the most logical route is to use vocabulary as the comparison basis. The examination which was used in order to set it was the VLT. To Meara (1996), Nation's Vocabulary Levels Test is «the nearest thing we have to a standard test in vocabulary» (p. 36).

The VLT was created by Nation (1990); this tool brings an analytical approach to vocabulary research. It is based on corpus analysis and experimental research which led to ranking words in order of occurrences which paved the way to frequency lists. The basis to this is the General Service List which was developed from a corpus of 5 million words with the needs of ESL/EFL learners in mind. It contains the useful 2000 word families in English (West, 1953). The frequency list works in groups of 1,000, where the 1K list is the 1,000 most frequent words as defined by computer analysis of a large corpus (Leech, Rayson & Wilson, 2001). To evaluate one's passive vocabulary (vocabulary that is understood), there are standardized tests which sample words from the 2,000, 3,000, 5,000 and 10,000 (2K, 3K, 5K and 10K hereafter) word frequency levels and also from another list called the University Word List (UWL hereafter). The UWL (Xue & Nation, 1984 and Nation, 1990) is the result of the combination of four studies. Campion and Elley (1971) and Praninskas (1972) assumed that learners of an L2 who would want to seek academic studies would need to be trained to be

able to understand academic texts. Because of the lack of an academic word list, they decided to create one. To do so, they took academic texts and isolated academic words which were not found in the General Service List (GSL, West, 1953) — the most famous and useful list of high-frequency words — and came up with an academic word list of their own.

On the other hand, Lynn (1973) and Ghadessy (1979) went straight to the learners themselves, and tried to figure out what their main problems were, vocabulary wise, with reading academic texts. They compiled written translations learners had added on the academic texts they had read which led to two new lists. Xue and Nation (1984) realized there was great overlap in the four studies, so they combined them and the UWL was created. It consists of academic words not found in the General Service List (West 1953).

3.2.3 The Vocabulary Levels Test

There are different versions to this standardized test. Some are on paper while others can be administered from a computer. The one which was selected for the current study is a pen and paper version; the school where this study was conducted does have two computer laboratories, but since they are used at their maximum capacity for computer technology classes, it was not possible to have all the participants do it there. The pen and paper version then remained the only possible option in order to have an identical setting for all the participants. A copy from this test is found in Appendix A.

What is important to be noted is that this examination is meant to test recognition skills in vocabulary. The participants are asked to match one of the six words in one column to one of the three brief definitions from another column. To avoid any confusion, the test begins by presenting an example. Formally, only 18 words from each of the levels stated above is tested, but since the words chosen to make up the definitions to be matched up to the given words are themselves words from the target level, many more words are in fact tested. A great advantage

of this test is its design; its format reduces the risks of guessing an answer. The ratio is of 1:6. The VLT gives a vocabulary knowledge profile in each of the previously stated frequency levels. A weak score at any of these is considered as being able to recognize less than 15 words out of 18.

This test was not designed for a group age in particular, but since this study was conducted with teenagers, some concern was given to how these participants would handle such a test. One documented study is available on teenagers using this very test: it was used with a group of Secondary I boys from a comparable private Montreal French-learning high school (Zahar, Cobb & Spada, 2001). (These two schools are considered comparable having always remained in the top 10 of *Palmarès des écoles secondaires du Québec*, compiled by the Fraser Institute, and published yearly in the mid-November issue of *l'Actualité*.)

3.2.4 The first faux-amis test

The first test took place at the same time as the VLT. It consisted in a series of 25 sentences all in which one element was underlined. In order to avoid confusion on the learners' behalf, whenever it was necessary, a clear context was elaborated. Learners need a clear context to be able to make an educated guess; if it's too difficult, they will not be able to make it (Hu & Nation, 2000). An example of such, taken in the first FA test, is: «*Although my mom and dad won't be there this weekend, I will see my parents because my aunts, uncles, and cousins will be there*». Test items were validated by an Anglophone-learning bilingual instructor (who has an MA in linguistics and teaches English in Concordia University). The tests themselves were validated by the two control groups (69 participants) shortly before being used with the target groups.

The two tests were written for the sole purpose of this study. One of the great difficulties of conducting this study is that information regarding FA is scarce: whenever a

research seemed promising in bringing new information, it turned out that the framework was completely different and was of very little help. It would have been great to use a former test to see whether test results would have yielded similar results, but since no other such exam did exist, one had to be built. The way this was done is from experience from working with learners of this particular age. All the elements came from problems learners encountered during class time, in previous years. After the Anglophone-learning bilingual instructor had validated the first draft of the tests, it was tested on one control group. Any ambiguity was then corrected, before the second control group validated the test. Then the official participants to the study did the tests.

In some cases, the underlined word was a cognate and in other cases an FA. In the case of cognates, there were words which were English words but from a higher level on the frequency list of English words – for example, the words *help* and *aid* which are cognates. To a less experienced learner, *aid* may be considered as a mistake: *help* is part of the first 1,000 frequency list while *aid* is part of the UWL. An example of this case, which is also part of the first FA test, is: «*She didn't know what to do and needed me, so I came to her aid.* » The participants were asked to check one of two statements regarding the underlined word: it is either *acceptable* or *not acceptable*. The first FA test is found in Appendix B. Following this, some of the participants received interactive feedback regarding FA. This is explained in the following section.

3.2.5 The handling of interactive feedback regarding faux-amis

Shortly following the VLT and the first FA test, the participants had to go through an oral evaluation in the course of their regular English L2 class. Through an individual interview format, an evaluation was done of the oral skills of the participants.

Some participants were focused for interactive feedback (or individualized error correction; this feedback is described in greater detail below). Whenever a participant would make negative transfer (which is when some L1 knowledge is wrongly transferred as L2: the learner thought it to be equivalent) which involved an FA, the teacher would note it, and right after the evaluation was completed, some time was taken to point it out and explain it to the learner: in an informal manner, the learner was told that he/she had made a mistake in wrongly using a word. The concept of FA was briefly explained as being a word which sounds similar in both English and French, but in reality has a different meaning, making it a mistake. (FA are more complex than this, as defined in Chapter 2, but for learners, this is sufficient information). The participants were told that this is a common type of mistake, and that they should not be worried about it, while nonetheless trying to be cautious about it. This treatment was done individually because it was thought that immediate feedback to the use of an FA would make the learner more aware of it rather than having group feedback once all the oral evaluations were completed: in some cases, this would have been up to ten days after having completed the interview. The treatment was equal with all the participants who had made a mistake and needed interactive feedback: conducting a study in a similar setting, Nassaji (2003) states that having a single person giving instructions to the participants guarantees the equality of the procedure. As for the participants who had not made any mistakes, no interactive feedback was given, nor any explanation regarding the differences between cognates and FA.

One of the subordinate questions this current study is investigating is if the effectiveness of interactive feedback by the L2 teacher on the handling of FA would have a direct impact on learners by giving them an advantage when put in an evaluation situation regarding FA compared to learners who had received no such feedback. The aim was not to figure out who did pay attention to the teacher, but which group would be more successful in a subsequent FA test after having received some feedback on FA.

As previously stated, the participants from the study came from three different class groups, and one group (35 participants) was randomly targeted for interactive feedback. Out of

this group, 25 participants received interactive feedback. The reason ten participants from this group did not receive any is because they did not use any FA at the time of their oral evaluation. It does not mean they never use them or they would not have benefited from it: the criterion used to conduct this portion of the study was to instruct only those who used FA at the time of a specific oral evaluation. The other 69 participants coming from the two other groups did not receive any interactive feedback regarding FA whether they had used some or not. In total, 25 participants received interactive feedback, and 79 received none. A distribution of the participants regarding interactive feedback on FA is found on Table 3.3.

Table 3.3
Distribution of the participants who received interactive feedback on FA

	Received interactive feedback	Did not receive interactive feedback
Target group (35 participants)	25	10
Other two groups (69 participants)	0	69
Total	25	79

3.2.6 The second faux-amis test

The purpose of having two tests was to give some feedback regarding the use of FA. Only a portion of the participants had this feedback. The second test was built the same way as the first, with the exception that rather than having 25 questions as the first one did, this one had 15 questions. The smaller number of questions is explained by a shorter time availability, but in any case there was a sufficient number in each and the comparison is based on percentages. The task was the same, and so were the types of words underlined. The second FA test is found in Appendix C.

3.2.7 Written production analysis

The third subordinate question the current study investigates is if there is a significant relationship between active and passive vocabulary knowledge of the participants in the ability to handle cognates. The passive knowledge profile is measured through the VLT. An active vocabulary knowledge profile is obtained with the help of a written production.

Selecting a written production which would be a true reflection of learners' potential, the choice of a written production was carefully made. The written production that was selected for this study was at the end of the school year. This particular work was selected because the learners were not allowed to use a dictionary. The aim of this written production was to evaluate active knowledge of vocabulary. A dictionary would have been an outside tool which would have compromised the validity of the written production in the context of this study. The aim was to get an honest profile, not finding out which learners made better use of a dictionary.

Also, because this was a formal evaluation situation, there was no doubt that the participants would do their best and invest as much active vocabulary knowledge as they could. The participants had two choices of topics. This written production format was nothing new to them: in class, learners are often asked to write about specific topics.

Passive vocabulary knowledge is only half of a learner's vocabulary profile. Getting a complete profile may be helpful at drawing a picture of learner's awareness to FA. Active vocabulary knowledge may be evaluated with a special tool called VocabProfile (Cobb, online); this is defined in the following section.

3.2.8 The VocabProfile Instrument

In order to be able to answer the third subordinate question, which is whether there is a significant relationship between the amount of active vs. passive vocabulary knowledge in

the ability to handle cognates and which is stronger, a written production was elicited from the participants and subjected to analysis. While the tool used to evaluate passive vocabulary knowledge is the VLT, the one which quantifies active vocabulary knowledge is the VocabProfile, a computer based text analysis tool. Its theoretical bases are described in Laufer and Nation (1995) and Morris and Cobb (2004).

The starting point of the VocabProfile is the Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP hereafter) and was developed by Laufer and Nation (1995). It is used to measure the amount of vocabulary from different frequency levels in learners' written productions. However, the text must be corrected so that there are no spelling mistakes, and wrongly used lexical items and proper nouns must be omitted.

The LFP is a «reliable and valid measure» (Laufer & Nation, 1995) and can measure changes in language proficiency (Laufer, 1994). It is also used to evaluate vocabulary size and growth (Laufer, 1998). However, the LFP does not show how well vocabulary words are known, but it does show what use learners are making of words at particular frequency levels.

The results obtained from the LFP will show a learner's lexical frequency profile by indicating the percentages of words emanating from the 2,000 word family list, the UWL level, and those not in these levels for a total of 100%.

The VocabProfile used for the current study is a computer version of the LFP (Laufer & Nation, 1995) and was adapted and expanded by Cobb (on-line); it can be accessed on the web at the Compleat Lexical Tutor at <http://www.lexutor.ca>. It compares words from texts with word lists in the program. This version was expanded from the original LFP and gives more information about a learner's profile. In just a few seconds, a profile is drawn.

The VocabProfile, as its title states, give a vocabulary profile of learners. As in the LFP, percentages of words emanating from various frequency levels are calculated in

percentages. The various frequency lists from the VocabProfile are the 1K, 2K, the Academic Word List (AWL hereafter) and the Off-List words, which are those not appearing in the previously stated lists. It is also possible to obtain additional information in order to set a fuller vocabulary profile. For the needs of this study, the only additional information that was taken into account is the total percentage of cognate words from French found in a given written production. This number, however, is not tabulated in the learner's profile. It is simply additional information. Results are presented as in Figure 3.1.

The VocabProfile presents the break down of a given text and identifies the words from different frequency levels. In the case of Figure 3.1, the text submitted for analysis contains 74.33% words from the 1K frequency level, 6.42% from the 2K frequency level, 1.69% from the AWL, and 17.55% were words considered as being off-list. Furthermore, it gives details such as the number of word families, types, and tokens, but only for the 1K frequency level. Also, it can indicate the number of words that are of Anglo-Saxon origin, and not Greco-Latin.

One of the differences the LFP and the VocabProfile have is that both use a different type of list for academic words. Both the LFP and the VLT use the UWL, while the VocabProfile uses the AWL. The core of both lists is the same, but there are differences. The Academic Word List developed by Coxhead (1998) is based on a corpus of academic English and is divided into four groupings: arts, science, law and commerce, which themselves are divided in sub-groups. The AWL appears to provide slightly better coverage than the UWL.

Figure 3.1
VocabProfile output screen

	Families	Types	Tokens	Percent
K1 Words (1 to 1000):	194	241	614	74.33%
Function:	(385)	(46.61%)
Content:	(229)	(27.72%)
> Anglo-Sax	(123)	(14.89%)
=Not Greco-Lat/Fr Cog:		
K2 Words (1001 to 2000):	40	45	53	6.42%
> Anglo-Sax:	(31)	(3.75%)
AWL Words (academic):	13	13	14	1.69%
Off-List Words:	<u>?</u>	<u>117</u>	<u>145</u>	<u>17.55%</u>
	247+?	416	826	100%

3.2.9 Modifications to participants' written productions

The written productions used to this part of the study had to be modified according to the LFP guidelines, which are the same with the VocabProfile. The participants had written them in a classroom setting; they had handwritten them on paper with a pencil. To be analysed through the VocabProfile, they had to be typed. Just as the LFP requires corrections regarding spelling and wrongly used lexical items (except FA), these also had to be corrected. Proper names were also removed. A sample of a participant's written production is found in the appendix; Appendix D is the participant's original work while Appendix E is the corrected version to follow the VocabProfile requirements.

3.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter has shown the present participants to be a quite specific and even atypical group within Quebec ESL: unlike most public high schools, these participants had a wide range of previous ESL education. This study thus has clear limitations and boundaries. A different set of learners could lead to different results.

In order to be able to answer the questions this study is investigating, the participants' vocabulary knowledge had to be quantified. Their passive vocabulary knowledge was evaluated through the VLT, and their active vocabulary knowledge through the VocabProfile. Two FA tests were given, and between both, some participants received interactive feedback while the others did not.

The next chapter deals with the results from these various tools. The discussion regarding these results will be presented in the chapter following the results.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of any study is to answer questions. The ones the current study is investigating in regards to FA awareness are as follows: (1) do learners who have a measurably greater vocabulary in their L2 have an advantage over others with lesser measurable vocabulary at identifying problematic aspects resulting from the contact of two languages existing side by side. Subsidiary related questions concern (2) what can be taught to learners at different levels of experience, particularly lexical experience, about how to deal with the reality of a partially shared lexicon, and would interactive feedback from the L2 teacher have an impact on FA awareness; (3) is there a correlation between active and passive knowledge in FA awareness; and (4) is gender or previous education a factor in this awareness? As also previously stated, because this is a quantitative study, the answers will take the form of numbers unlike a qualitative study where a subjective observation would have been made.

In this chapter, the results of the various tests (VLT, FA and the VocabProfile) required to draw the participants' vocabulary knowledge profile will be presented. The discussion and interpretation of these results will be presented in the following section.

The first test that was conducted was the Vocabulary Levels Test by Nation (1990). This test was meant to set up a basis for comparison amongst the participants of the study.

4.1 The Vocabulary Levels Test

As stated in the methodology chapter, with the VLT, if a learner recognizes less than 15 items out of 18, the score is considered as being weak. Table 4.1 indicates that the frequency list in which the participants of this study did best in is the 3K list. The next best results were, from most successful to less, the 2K, the UWL, the 5K and finally, the 10K frequency level.

Details show that slightly more than half of the participants scored more than 83% on the 2K level which means they have mastered this frequency level. What is interesting is that 9 out of 10 participants have mastered the 3K frequency level, having had a result of 83% or more; some participants have mastered the 3K frequency level, but not the 2K. Logically, in order to have mastered a level, one would need to have mastered the previous ones, but not in this case. This finding deserves to be discussed and will be so in the following section of this paper.

The results from the following frequency lists seem more logical in the sense that one would assume that the frequency lists should be tested in order of difficulty. More participants have mastered the UWL than the 5K which might be explained by the fact that many of the UWL are from French, making it easier for Francophone users of the test to get good results. Finally, the frequency level that was mastered by the least amount of participants is the 10K level. All this information is presented in numbers on Table 4.1. This is however a personal interpretation which should be validated through further research.

Table 4.1
Distribution of participants' results on the VLT (n=104)

Frequency Level	Participants scoring less than 83%	Participants scoring 83% and more	Mean (%)	Standard Deviation (%)	Minimum Score (%)	Maximum Score (%)
2K	45	59	81.2	12.6	50	100
3K	13	91	89.4	7.8	66.6	100
5K	84	20	68.4	13.5	38.8	100
UWL	76	28	72.5	13.5	33.3	100
10K	100	4	54.3	15.8	11.1	88.8

4.2 The Faux Amis tests

For the purpose of this study, two FA tests were administered. However, in the following section, the results which will be presented deal with both FA tests, without distinction: the results are the average of both tests. A distinction between the two tests will be presented later in the chapter. The mean for the combination of both tests is 52.91 %, as in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2
Mean of the FA Test from the 104 participants of the study

Mean (%)	Standard Deviation (%)	Minimum Score (%)	Maximum Score (%)
52.91	9.53	31.25	82.08

Table 4.3
Basic Linear Correlation between VLT Frequency Levels and total of both FA tests

Frequency Level	r	p
2K	0.52	<.0001
3K	0.43	<.0001
5K	0.54	<.0001
UWL	0.32	0.0005
10K	0.37	<.0001
VLT Average Result	0.58	<.0001

4.3 Creating sub-sections within the FA results

The results of the FA tests from the 104 participants to the study were divided in the following manner. Three groups were created: the weak, the average and the strong. Since many participants scored the same, it was difficult to cut the percentiles at precisely 33 and 66.

Therefore, the first group comprises the 36 participants who scored 49.17% and less; the second group the 36 participants who scored higher than 49.17%, but lower than 57.09%; the last group of 32 participants comprises participants who scored more than 57.09%. For more details, see Table 4.3.

Table 4.4
Distribution of the subsections from the FA tests (n=104)

Group	Number of Participants	Mean (%)	Standard Deviation (%)	Minimum Score (%)	Maximum Score (%)
Weak	36	44.03	4.48	31.25	49.17
Average	36	54.25	2.52	49.58	57.08
Strong	32	64.65	6.29	57.5	82.08

The goal of separating the 104 participants in three distinct groups was to figure out if there might not be a threshold beyond which the recognition of FA might become predictable. To do so, the choice of an instrument which would measure a learner's vocabulary knowledge needed to be selected. Since there are two types of vocabulary knowledge, both had to be tested. On one hand, the passive vocabulary knowledge was tested through the VLT, and on the other hand, the active vocabulary knowledge was measured through the VocabProfile. Tables 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6 present the results of the participants in the three subsections of the FA tests.

Table 4.5
VLT mean of the weak participants from the FA tests (n=36)

Frequency Level	Mean (%)	Standard Deviation (%)	Minimum Score (%)	Maximum Score (%)
2K	74.2	11.5	50	94.4
3K	86.8	7.2	72.2	100
5K	61.8	11.4	38.8	83.3
UWL	68.6	12.8	38.8	94.4
10K	49.8	14	22.2	72.2

Table 4.6
VLT mean of the average participants from the FA tests (n=36)

Frequency Level	Mean (%)	Standard Deviation (%)	Minimum Score (%)	Maximum Score (%)
2K	81.6	11.7	50	94.4
3K	87.4	8.2	66.6	100
5K	66.2	11.9	38.8	88.8
UWL	70.6	13	33.3	94.4
10K	49	16.4	11.1	83.3

Table 4.7
VLT mean of the strong participants from the FA tests (n=32)

Frequency Level	Mean (%)	Standard Deviation (%)	Minimum Score (%)	Maximum Score (%)
2K	88.7	10.2	61.1	100
3K	94.6	5.2	83.3	100
5K	78.2	12.0	50	100
UWL	78.9	11.5	55.5	100
10K	65.4	11.0	38.8	88.8

Table 4.8 shows the ANOVA distribution of these results. The last column is of great interest because it shows the Tukey Pairwise; the three groups were labelled numbers 1, 2 and 3, and statistical differences are presented in the following manner: $1 < 2 < 3$ means all three are statistically significant while $(1, 2) < 3$ means that one and two are not different from each other, but they are both different from three.

What is interesting in that there is a clear distinction in the FA results between all three groups in the 2K section of the test: the average participants are clearly stronger than the weak ones, and yet, the average are also clearly weaker than the strong ones. As for the other frequency levels (3K, 5K, UWL and 10K), no clear distinction can be made between the weak and average group, but in all cases, there is a clear distinction between these two and the strong group: the strong participants are better at recognizing FA.

Table 4.8
ANOVA in regards to three groups from FA tests

Frequency Level	F (2, 101)	P-Value	Tukey Pairwise*
2K	14.20	<0.0001	1 < 2 < 3
3K	12.43	<0.0001	(1, 2) < 3
5K	17.51	<0.0001	(1, 2) < 3
UWL	6.36	0.00025	(1, 2) < 3
10K	14.36	<0.0001	(1, 2) < 3

* 1= weak, 2=average, 3=strong

4.4 The impact of interactive feedback on faux-amis awareness

4.4.1 The first faux-amis test

Two FA tests were administered; both are found in Appendix B and C. An example of the questions is: «Once our paper is done, we need to hand it in to the teacher, and attach it with a *trombone*»; the participants were asked to check one of two choices: is the underlined word considered «acceptable» or «not acceptable».

The first test was on the same day as the VLT. By the time the second FA test was given, some participants had received interactive feedback in FA awareness. Table 4.9 shows the results from both groups: the participants who had received interactive feedback, and those who did not receive any.

The results from Table 4.9 show that in the 2K and 5K frequency levels, the results from the first FA test are very similar; both groups did well and show correlation between the first FA test and their VLT profile results. For an unknown reason, the results from the 3K frequency level are, however, different: the participants from the interactive feedback group show no correlation whereas the other group does show a fairly strong correlation (0.48 on the first FA test, and 0.40 on the second one) There is no way to explain this since none of the

groups had yet received any feedback regarding the use of FA when this test was administered. In the case of the UWL and 10K frequency levels, the correlations are however different: the interactive feedback group shows a stronger correlation. A multiple regression correlation was executed to attain these results. The multiple regression analysis used to attain these results supports the previous ANOVA finding: there is a stronger correlation between 3K and FA than for any other level ($\beta=.33$), and the next strongest correlation is with the 5K and 10K levels with $\beta=.16$.

Table 4.9
Correlation of the two FA tests regarding interactive feedback (n=104)

Frequency list from VLT results	First FA test		Second FA test	
	Interactive feedback (n=25)	No interactive feedback (n=79)	Interactive feedback (n=25)	No interactive feedback (n=79)
2K	0.40**	0.44**	- 0.16	0.45**
3K	0.06	0.48**	- 0.06	0.40**
5K	0.54**	0.56**	- 0.05	0.33*
UWL	0.47**	0.23	- 0.30*	0.24
10K	0.43**	0.26	- 0.08	0.33*

= $p<.05$., ** = $p<.001$.

4.4.2 The second faux-amis test

The participants who did not receive any interactive feedback closely replicated the correlations from the first FA test with the second one. As for the participants who did receive interactive feedback, the results are completely different: not only is there a lack of correlation in their results, but it also became negative. The only correlation which is strong enough to be taken into consideration is the one regarding the UWL frequency level. These results need to be discussed and will be so in the discussion chapter. The measurement of Linear Correlation used in this study is the standard Pearson product-moment correlation. The

standard in educational research is that a correlation of $r=0.3$ is a medium correlation, while one of $r=0.5$ and more is a strong one (Cohen, 1988).

In this particular case, what is of interest is that the correlations for both the 2K and 3K frequency levels are strong with the participants who did not have any feedback, and while there is still some correlation in the 5K, it is not as strong. As for the participants who did get feedback, the strong correlations from the pre-feedback tests in all but the 3K frequency level, have completely disappeared once feedback was given.

4.4.3 FA results pre and post interactive feedback

To get a better grasp of who would benefit more from interactive feedback regarding FA, a correlation analysis was made, and to be even more precise, this was done with the distribution of the participants, as explained in section 4.3 of this chapter. The FA tests were broken down to better understand the results. Scores for cognates and FA were separated to see if one set did better than the other after treatment from interactive feedback.

What is observed from the results is that the weak participants benefited from the interactive feedback when it came to cognate recognition, whereas for the strong participants this came with FA recognition. The details regarding this are illustrated in tables 4.9, 4.10 and 4.11. Very few significant correlations were observed, maybe due to the small sampling of participants. The only correlations are with the weak participants who received feedback: they are more successful in cognate recognition; the strong participants who also got feedback were more successful at recognizing FA.

Table 4.10
Correlation of the two FA tests: cognates VS FA with weak participants

Weak group (n=36)		
	Interactive feedback (n=9)	No interactive feedback (n=27)
FA results	- 0.33	- 0.07
Cognate results	- 0.80**	- 0.18

* = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .001$.

Table 4.11
Correlation of the two FA tests: cognates VS FA with average participants

Average group (n=36)		
	Interactive feedback (n=7)	No interactive feedback (n=29)
FA results	- 0.11	- 0.18
Cognate results	- 0.27	- 0.25

* = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .001$.

Table 4.12
Correlation of the two FA tests: cognates VS FA with strong participants

Strong group (n=32)		
	Interactive feedback (n=9)	No interactive feedback (n=23)
FA results	- 0.79**	0.36
Cognate results	0.10	0.38

* = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .001$.

4.5 VocabProfile Results

A typical result for a native speaker (NS hereafter) is 70-10-10-10 (Cobb, on-line at www.lexutor.ca/vp/eng/) which would translate as a text comprising of 70% of the words coming from the first 1,000 (1K hereafter), 10% from the 2K list, 10% from the AWL and 10%

from the Off-List. According to Table 4.13, none of the participants of this study would fit the description of a NS, since not a single participant scored near 70% in the 1K list: if the first criterion has not been met, it then eliminates all of the participants for this labelling.

Table 4.13
Mean of the 104 participants on the VocabProfile

Frequency Level	Mean (%)	Standard Deviation (%)	Minimum Score (%)	Maximum Score (%)
1K	87.8	4.0	78.0	97.5
2K	4.7	2.8	0.0	13.7
AWL	1.3	1.5	0.0	7.5
Off-List	6.1	2.9	0.7	15.4
Cognates	15.5	4.3	6.1	24.7

A closer look at the details of the results from the VocabProfile (see Tables 4.14, 4.15 and 4.16) indicates that there are no clear distinctions between the three groups from the FA test: whether the participants were labelled as being weak, average or strong, there were almost no differences in their active vocabulary knowledge. Table 4.17 illustrates this more accurately: the average group serving as a basis, the largest variance (either stronger or weaker) is of 1%. Also, since the VocabProfile offers information regarding the use of cognates in their written production, there is no major difference in the average use of cognates between all three groups: less than 1% separates all three groups.

Table 4.14
Mean of the 36 weak participants on the VocabProfile

Frequency Level	Mean (%)	Standard Deviation (%)	Minimum Score (%)	Maximum Score (%)
1K	88.6	4.1	82.4	96.6
2K	4.6	2.9	0.8	13.7
AWL	1.1	1.3	0.0	4.4
Off-List	5.7	2.6	0.7	10.4
Cognates	15.8	3.8	9.6	23.0

Table 4.15
Mean of the 36 average participants on the VocabProfile

Frequency Level	Mean (%)	Standard Deviation (%)	Minimum Score (%)	Maximum Score (%)
1K	87.6	4.4	78.0	97.5
2K	5.3	3.0	0.0	11.7
AWL	1.2	1.3	0.0	4.4
Off-List	5.9	3.2	0.8	15.4
Cognates	14.9	5.4	6.1	24.7

Table 4.16
Mean of the 32 strong participants on the VocabProfile

Frequency Level	Mean (%)	Standard Deviation (%)	Minimum Score (%)	Maximum Score (%)
1K	87.3	3.5	80.2	92.5
2K	4.3	2.5	1.1	10.3
AWL	1.7	1.9	0.0	7.5
Off-List	6.9	3.0	1.4	13.3
Cognates	15.7	3.6	8.2	23.0

Table 4.17
Writing profiles for weak, average and strong learners (as determined by FA test results)

Frequency Level	Mean of the weak group compared to average group (%)	Mean of the average group (%)	Mean of the strong group compared to average group (%)
1K	+ 1.0	87.6	- 0.3
2K	- 0.7	5.3	- 1.0
AWL	- 0.1	1.2	+ 0.5
Off-List	- 0.2	5.9	+ 1.0
Cognates	+ 0.9	14.9	+ 0.6

4.6 Predicting success with faux-amis

4.6.1 Predicting with the Vocabulary Levels Test

One of the questions this study is investigating is whether there is any way to predict which learners will have an advantage at recognizing FA. Since there are two types of vocabulary knowledge, active and passive, both had to be tested. Table 4.18 represents the results from the FA tests regarding the results from the VLT, which tests passive vocabulary knowledge. According to these, the strongest correlation between FA awareness and vocabulary knowledge exists at the 5K level ($r=.54$, $p<.05$), and secondly at 2K ($r=.52$, $p<.05$). In the 3K level, the correlation becomes weaker but nonetheless remains significant. Finally, the weakest levels are the 10K followed by the UWL. Stronger learners at the 2K and the 5K level would be more aware of FA than strong learners in any of the other frequency levels. What this appears to show is the strong relationship between passive vocabulary size and FA awareness.

Table 4.18
Correlation of the prediction of recognizing FA according to the VLT results

	FA Mean	2K	3K	5K	UWL	10K
FA mean	1.00	0.52**	0.44**	0.54**	0.29*	0.37**
2K	0.52**	1.00	0.48	0.49	0.35	0.35
3K	0.44**	0.48	1.00	0.47	0.43	0.51
5K	0.54**	0.49	0.47	1.00	0.49	0.49
UWL	0.29*	0.35	0.43	0.49	1.00	0.53
10K	0.37**	0.35	0.51	0.49	0.53	1.00

* = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .001$.

4.6.2 Predicting with VocabProfile

Active vocabulary knowledge was tested through the VocabProfile: this tool distributed the participants' vocabulary use from a written production in different frequency levels and gave a profile of the vocabulary they are capable of using in a given situation. Table 4.19 represents the results from the FA tests in regards to the results from the VocabProfile, which tests active vocabulary. From all of the sections of the VocabProfile test, no strong correlations were found. In other words, a learner's active vocabulary will not predict better recognition skills in FA.

Table 4.19
Correlation of the prediction of recognizing FA according to the VocabProfile results

1K	2K	AWL	Off-List	Cognates
- 0.11	0.02	0.13	0.09	- 0.04

(there is no significant correlation to be noted)

4.7 Contextual variables in faux-amis awareness

Two contextual variables were considered in the investigation of this study; gender differences and prior education, that is, primary-school language instruction. Table 4.20 presents the distribution of the participants regarding gender and the Grade 6 primary-school instruction regarding ESL. The total number of participants does not equal 104, as in all the other sections of the study: four participants are not taken into account for this investigation; they had all lived for at least one year in the United States, and therefore did not fit the criterion for this subordinate question.

These four participants were only removed from this question of the study; as was presented in section 3.1.5, these participants were kept for the study because, just like the 100 other participants, they did have French as their L1. All they had had was a different experience with their L2 prior to attending this school. Furthermore, their results on both the VLT and VocabProfile were comparable to other strong participants: they did perform well, but did not systematically get the highest scores on some of the frequency levels whereas some of the strong participants (as defined in Table 4.7) did score higher than them.

Table 4.20
Distribution of the participants regarding gender and primary-school instruction in 6th grade

	Girls	Boys	Total
Regular ESL program	9	9	18
Linguistic program	38	44	82
Total	47	53	100

Note: 4 participants were not taken into account for this portion of the study because they had lived in the United States, and did not fit any of the two descriptions for this table.

4.7.1 Gender differences

Educators are constantly confronted by gender differences; who does best: boys or girls? This study investigated the matter, and as Table 4.21 indicates, through its complete lack of significant differences or interactions, FA awareness is not influenced by gender.

4.7.2 Primary-school ESL instruction

There was then the concern as to who would be more aware of FA once in Secondary III. Would either the type of prior primary-school instruction be a factor in FA awareness? An ANOVA was run comparing these two contextual variables against results on the two FA awareness tests. Table 4.21 shows these results, which were that neither factor is a significant predictor of FA awareness. A Chi-2 test for interactions found these to be also non-significant ($X=0.07$, $p=0.78$, no significant difference).

Table 4.21
Results of ANOVA for 100 participants testing gender & primary-school
ESL instruction as predictors of FA awareness

	F (1, 96)	p-value
Primary-school instruction	0.47	0.49
Gender	0.12	0.73
Instruction and gender	0.48	0.49

Note: p-values greater than 0.05 are considered to be statistically non-significant.

4.8 Summary of the chapter

Many questions were asked in the beginning of this study. In order to give valid answers to these questions, some tests had to be submitted to a group of participants. Gathering results is a very important step, but unless a thorough analysis, little benefits may

come from this study. Now that the results have been presented, these need to be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The aim of the present study was to determine quantitatively whether acquired experience in L2 vocabulary would play a key role in being able to identify FA. There were two possible answers: yes or no. If the answer had been *no*, then not much else could be said about the topic. On the other hand, a *yes* would spark a whole new set of questions, and could also pave the way to a future qualitative study which could, for example, investigate specific FAs learners use or have difficulties with. Now that an affirmative answer has been made clear, further action will be suggested in the areas of both pedagogical implications and further research. Each will be dealt with separately.

A problem this study faces is that there is a lack of classroom oriented studies to which it can be compared. First off, the learning issues involved in cognates and FA are not a frequent topic of research. If there were more studies to which this one could be compared, then possibly generalizations at this point could be made. Replicating the study described in this paper in different settings and with different types and levels of learners would be of great interest. Would the same or similar results be found? However, since this is a field which is not often studied in classroom and learner terms, the only outcome is to present the data and some tentative conclusions. These conclusions are aimed at helping the L2 teacher.

5.1 Summary of the questions

Before starting to explain any results, the first thing should be to look back at what is being investigated. The current study deals with FA and the general question is whether

learners who have a measurably greater vocabulary in their L2 will have an advantage over others with lesser measurable vocabulary at identifying problematic aspects resulting from having two languages living side by side. A subsidiary question concerns what can be taught to learners at different levels of experience, particularly lexical experience, about how to deal with the reality of a partially shared lexicon.

Three subordinate questions were elaborated: will learners who have acquired more vocabulary in the target L2 will be better at handling cognates and FA, and if so, is there a threshold of vocabulary knowledge which learners need to attain in order to cope with FA; will a learner who was formally instructed by an L2 teacher about FA, and understanding the limits in the relationship between the L1 and L2, be more successful in an FA awareness task than one who has never been told anything about this reality of L2 acquisition, and will this depend on the learners' relative degrees of vocabulary knowledge; is there a significant relationship between the amount of vocabulary knowledge and the ability to handle cognates, and is the relationship stronger for active or for passive knowledge; is one gender favoured over the other in FA awareness; and finally, does the type of primary-school instruction in regards to L2 have an impact on FA recognition once the learner is in secondary school?

Now that these questions have been stated once again, it is time to take a look at the results and try to make sense of them. The first element that was tested was the VLT. This will allow a reference basis to compare the 104 participants.

5.2 The Vocabulary Levels Test

It is understood that for a learner to have mastered a given level, a result of 83% (which equates to the «15 out of 18 requirement» as stated by Nation, 1990) or more is required. Logically, for a learner to have mastered a given level, the previous levels should have been mastered, but in the case of this study, this does not appear to be the case. The frequency level which the participants of this study did the best in is the 3K level. It would have

been interesting to also have results from the 1K level, but since at the time the experimentation for this study took place, the test did not seem pertinent to learners at a relatively advanced level, so it was not administered; would this study be duplicated, this frequency level should be tested.

It doesn't seem logical: one should need to master one level in order to be able to have a good performance in subsequent levels, but it is not the case with these participants. Similar results were seen in Cobb (2006), and Zahar, Cobb and Spada (2001). One of the possible explanations for the better results at the 3K level than at the 2K could be pedagogical. Since the participants of the study are attending a private school, more is expected of them which allows the L2 teachers to push them further by using books which go beyond the basic requirements of the MEQ, and also beyond most public secondary-school programs; the vocabulary found in the materials used by the participants of this study is much richer, varied and of higher frequency than that which is found in MEQ approved materials. Also, the results from the Secondary IV June 2003 exam of the MEQ (which these participants took a few weeks after the conduct of this study) found in table 5.1 will validate this: the learners from this school not only did better than those from the remainder of the province, but also better than the mean of the private sector. This exam was the same given across the province to learners of the Secondary IV program. Even though the participants of this study were in Secondary III, they were studying the English L2 Secondary IV program at the time of the study. One may wonder if the expectancies from the school's requirement in ESL being very demanding may yield to such bizarre results. Other than duplicating this study, there is no clear answer to be given to this question. The fact that teenagers used the VLT may explain the discrepancy. The only other source found to have used this test on a similar age group was on a group of boys two years younger than those of this study (Zahar, Cobb & Spada, 2001).

Table 5.1
Results of MEQ June 2003 Secondary IV English L2 examinations
(as presented to schools' administrations, not on-line)

	Mean of private + public sector (%)	Mean of the private sector (%)	Mean of the school of this study (%)
Production	78.0	85.3	86.1
Comprehension	77.9	88.0	92.0
Global	78.0	86.9	89.6

Note: the global grade comprises 40% of the production and 60% of the comprehension grade

As for the higher number of participants having mastered the UWL, the answer could come from the fact that the UWL comprises of academic words, many of which come from French. It would then appear easier for a French speaking learner of English L2 to obtain a good score in the UWL section of the VLT than it would be for an English L1 learner since a lot of words are cognates from French: with this frequency level, the French L2 learner has access to two languages unlike the English L1 learner who only has one.

5.2.1 The Vocabulary Levels Test: a good predictor of faux-amis results?

In the previous chapter, the FA results were presented in two different manners. Although there were two tests, the results which were first presented were of the average from both tests. The purpose of this was to try to figure out if there might not be a threshold beyond which learners would cope better with FA. To do so, the 104 participants were divided into three groups: the weak, the average and the strong. Then, the vocabulary knowledge profile of the three groups was analysed with the help of their results from the VLT. For details regarding the VLT results according to the separation of the participants in three subgroups, see Tables 4.5 to 4.7.

As the Tukey Pairwise results show (see table 4.8), there are clear distinctions between the groups. First, all three groups have just about the same distance in their mean. Although they are shy by 1.5% of attaining the passing grade of 83% to be considered as having mastered the frequency level of the 2K level, the average group nonetheless did do better than the weak group on the recognition tests on FA. What this might imply is that to have good recognition skills on FA, one would need to have mastered a given frequency level. The 3K level cannot be taken into account in this theory simply because all three groups did attain a passing grade. However, there is a clear distinction in the remainder of the frequency levels. In both the 5K and UWL frequency levels, even though they did not attain a passing grade of 15 recognized items out of 18 in the VLT, they did recognize 14 items, which is one item shy of having mastered that level. Their results in the FA tests were significantly better. In the case of the last frequency level, the 10K, they're not quite at 14 items recognized, but are closer to this by attaining the recognition of 13 items. Once again, they had better results on the FA tests than the two other groups.

5.2.2 Is there such a thing as a threshold?

The implication of this finding is that there does seem to be a threshold beyond which learners of an L2 will be better at recognizing FA: a passing score (83%) on a given level of the VLT is thus shown to be a good predictor of FA recognition skills. Table 5.2, highlights these results, emphasizing the distance between the three groups in the VLT, and it is clear that the strong group has a great advantage over the two other ones: they always outperform the average group by at least +7.1%, and this goes up to +16.4% on the 10K frequency list. As for the weak group, they had a -7.4% difference with the average group, but the other frequency levels are within a 5% difference.

Table 5.2
Distance between the three FA groups in the mean of the frequency levels from the VLT

Frequency Level	Mean of the weak group compared to average group (%)	Mean of the average group (%)	Mean of the strong group compared to average group (%)
2K	- 7.4	81.6	+ 7.1
3K	- 0.6	87.4	+ 7.2
5K	- 4.4	66.2	+ 12.0
UWL	- 2.0	70.6	+ 8.3
10K	+ 0.8	49.0	+ 16.4

The passive vocabulary having been tested through the VLT, the next step in answering the various questions to the study in examining the results which have yielded from the VocabProfile.

5.3 The VocabProfile

The reason the VocabProfile was used in this study was to help answer the following question: which type of knowledge would make the best prediction a learner's FA recognition skills: active or passive? The VLT measured passive knowledge, and the VocabProfile would measure active knowledge.

As stated before, an L2 learner's typical passive vocabulary knowledge will be roughly double that of his or her active vocabulary knowledge (Marton, 1977; Michael, 1972; Clark, 1993). Eringa (1974) estimates that after six years of French L2, high school learners' passive vocabulary knowledge is often almost triple the amount of active vocabulary knowledge.

The VocabProfile was used to find out which level of active vocabulary knowledge would best predict results in the FA awareness test. Three sub-groups were created from the

FA results: the weak, the average and the strong group. On the VLT, some distinctions could be made amongst the three groups. That same was expected from the VocabProfile, but it did not turn out this way. There is practically no difference in the means of the three groups for the active vocabulary they had used in their compositions. What this indicates is that although the learners are at different stages of their vocabulary acquisition, some having mastered higher and more levels than others, when it comes to active vocabulary knowledge, they are statistically at the same stage. The VocabProfile also shows the percentage of appropriate cognate words found in a given written production, and whether the learner is considered weak, average or strong, the results do not vary much. As explained in section 4.5, and Table 4.17, 1.5% is the maximum difference between the three groups: all groups have comparable writing profiles.

Unlike the VLT, there is no distinction amongst the groups; not one shows an advantage; in fact, there is no pattern whatsoever. As already mentioned, it is well known that vocabulary acquisition remains passive for a long time before it goes into active use, and clearly these results indicate learners' whose L2 lexical development is still in the passive phase, there are distinctions in what they know, but not in what they use. Therefore there is little point in looking to their production for signs of FA awareness

5.3.1 Active vocabulary knowledge and cognates

At the end of the literature review, there was concern regarding the needs of learners: losing sight of this would make teaching pointless. A very interesting finding emerged from the VocabProfile; the core of the study is FA awareness, but one cannot introduce FA and not cognates. It is assumed that learners will use cognates, but to which extent?

As previously mentioned, the VocabProfile, gives a learner's lexical profile from a written sample (percentages of 1K, 2K, AWL and Off-list words), but other information can be obtained (see figure 3.1). While the percentage of French cognates from each sample was

noted simply out of curiosity, it turned out to be a great discovery. Whether the participants had been ranked strong, average or weak, all of them use little over 15% of French cognate words in their texts (see table 4.13 to 4.16). The VocabProfile offers samples of texts from different sources; to see how the participants compared to a sample, a literary one was used. Although the results from the 1K, 2K, AWL and Off-list were completely different, whereas the literary text used vocabulary in the higher frequency levels than the participants did, the percentage of French cognates found in both the literary text and the participants' texts was identical. This finding then sheds new light on cognate teaching; learners with developed L2 lexicons do use cognates and do know how to.

Two independent studies have found similar surprising results as those from this study. The first study from Nakamura (1986) found that although learners had a similar knowledge of English, some seemed more liberal than others in admitting a word as a cognate. This result was also duplicated in a pilot study from Holmes (1986). To Holmes, cognate identification seemed personal with some subjects more incline to accept them as cognates, and the same type of result spread was found amongst more experienced learners. Cognate recognition would then be personal; finding out why could be interesting.

5.4 Passive and active vocabulary knowledge

Some learners have greater passive vocabulary knowledge than others. Then again, these learners cannot seem to be able to outperform the less experienced ones in the VocabProfile where active vocabulary knowledge was measured. There are two ways to see this: the reason some learners have larger passive vocabulary knowledge may simply be because they are better at recognizing words. Roberts (1965) stated that the proportion of French, Latin or Greek words in the first 1,000 words of English was around 44%, rose to 60% in the next 1,000 words, and then went up to 66%. All the learners from the study have French as an L1, so all of them benefit from the same linguistic background. It may simply mean that

more experienced learners might be more prone to making educated guesses based on their L1 than less experienced learners who might simply be more cautious.

An important clarification needs to be made at this point. Some concern may be given regarding the motivation factor in performing well in evaluation situations: some learners may be overly cautious and only use *safe* vocabulary. The participants in this study knew that this written production would be graded using the «MEQ Rating Scale» (found in «Document d'information – Cahier A : Épreuves uniques», MEQ, 1999). This scale was devised by the MEQ to insure that all ESL teachers from the province would evaluate the MEQ written productions in a uniform manner. The great distinction of this scale is that mistakes are not to be taken into account, unless they hinder the text's overall comprehension. The learners had been told about this different evaluating situation a few months ahead of time, and had undergone a few written productions using this very scale; this procedure is not unknown to them. In fact, they enjoy it, because rather than being afraid of making spelling mistakes, they may write *more freely* and dare using different vocabulary.

Theoretically, the reasoning that more experienced learners might be more prone to making educated guesses based on their L1 than less experienced learners who might simply be more cautious is interesting, but the VocabProfile throws it off; if some learners were more cautious than others, then some learners should have outperformed the others by being more daring and using higher level, lower frequency lexicon when writing a text. It did not turn out that way; when using active vocabulary knowledge, learners all have similar results on the VocabProfile: they seem cautious by using basic, lower frequency words which they are comfortable with. Because it is understood that all learners in the present study have a good basis in the high frequency words, they then need to increase their active vocabulary knowledge, and the way to do this is through practice. The pedagogical implication this leads to is that L2 teachers should present low frequency words as much as possible to allow learners to not only be able to recognize them, but also use them accurately.

To address this problem my suggestions are this. First, have learners write. The more they write, the more they will become comfortable with activating and using the knowledge they do have. Second, vary the types of writing: too much of the same topic will only lead to use the same words, when there are so many other words to be used. One way could be to give a list of words and require learners to select a portion of these and include them in their written production; this way, not only do the learners benefit from an opportunity to increase their active vocabulary knowledge, but the L2 teacher can validate whether the given words are clearly understood by the learners.

When entering an ESL classroom, learners bring in their acquired vocabulary. In the case of the participants of this study, and as the results have showed, they do have a good vocabulary basis. The question that then comes is what role should an ESL teacher play regarding the handling of FA: should they tell learners about them, or let them experience on their own?

5.5 The impact of interactive feedback on FA recognition skills

In total, there are four variables to be taken into account to be able to judge the value of interactive feedback for FA problems. Two groups had a first test on FA with no interactive feedback, and with the second test, one group still had no feedback on FA; for details regarding the distribution, see table 3.3. These three results were pretty much the same. The only completely different result was on the second FA test with the group of participants which had received interactive feedback regarding FA. These were not better. In fact, they were very bad: there was a total lack of correlation, and the infinite amount of correlation that was there, had turned to negative.

5.5.1 Teacher feedback regarding faux-amis awareness

One of the subordinate questions of the study investigated feedback regarding FA, and more specifically, an individualized approach. Just like Holmes and Ramos (1993) who had based their hypotheses on their collective experience over a few years of working with EFL learners, I too used my personal experience: this approach seemed the best choice because of the specificity of the participants: they are teenagers, and are prone to consider themselves as being incapable of making mistakes. This way, it was believed that the learners would have a better understanding of the type of mistake they had just produced if an example came directly from them.

Contrary to what was believed, the control group (which had received interactive feedback from the L2 teacher regarding FA) had disastrous results while the remainder of the participants had comparable results on both FA tests. One way to explain what might have happened is through an analogy: while being completely focused on watching a movie set in a different era, someone comments on a detail such as an extra wearing a watch when those had not been invented yet making it very difficult to concentrate on the movie from then on. This small detail is sufficient to shift one's attention on the background rather than the storyline itself. The same thing could have happened to the group of participants who received interactive feedback on FA and might be an explanation for the results on the second FA test. The group which did not receive any feedback at all did not change their strategies regarding FA: nothing had changed between the first and the second test. By pointing out FA to some learners, this may have made them over-sensitive to the issue and become suspicious over any word that remotely sounded French which led them to understand that any cognate word should be treated as an FA.

Although the results hoped for were not found, this does not mean that feedback on FA should be avoided. It just means that interactive feedback might not be the best route. As stated in a previous chapter, Sheen (1977) believes that FA awareness-raising can be done,

preferably with homogeneous groups, unless the teacher is willing to devote time to working with small subgroups or individuals with the same L1. However, he does note that to succeed in having learners become aware of FA, a series of activities and materials need to be planned so they see them frequently; the emphasis seems to be on exposure more than interactive feedback.

5.6 Does gender influence faux-amis awareness?

Most of the research on gender and language acquisition does show that girls have an advantage over boys (Vocolo, 1967; Westphal & al, 1969; Politzer & Weiss, 1969; PD. Smith, 1970; Burstall, 1975; Bogaards, 1982) unless the teacher is a man (Cross, 1983; Burstall, 1975). In the case of this study where no gender distinctions were found, this might be explained by the fact that the participants had a woman L2 teacher in Secondary I, a man L2 teacher in Secondary II, and finally a woman L2 teacher in Secondary III. More gender variety in the teachers might have produced a different finding.

As for FA awareness, since the study has shown no difference regarding gender, one possible explanation is that since there was a teacher-gender switch each school-year, the gender from the L2 teacher is not a possible explanation and this gave equal chances to both boys and girls in regards to FA awareness.

5.7 Does prior primary school instruction influence faux-amis awareness?

The participants from this study had wide variety of primary-school education. However, no differences were seen between those who had undergone the regular ESL program versus one of the 6th grade linguistic programs; all learners have an equal chance at becoming FA aware regardless language instruction in primary school. The reasoning for this may be that these learners have left primary school and been in secondary school for nearly

three years. Whatever gap there was may have been bridged by the English L2 program of the school.

5.8 Chapter summary

Many variables were taken into account in the investigation regarding FA awareness. The positive findings were as follows: good VLT results are an indicator of good FA awareness; as the VocabProfile results show, learners do not seem to use all the passive vocabulary knowledge they have (as measured by the VLT) when put in an active setting, but do know how to use cognates; in the context of this study, gender does not seem to influence FA awareness; prior primary-school instruction does not seem to make a difference once the learners are in Secondary III; and, finally, interactive feedback in FA awareness appears to have no effect other than to confuse learners.

CONCLUSION

Upon starting the preparation of this study, I felt that choosing a topic was not only a question of finding one that would be interesting to work with, but also one which would allow reading many interesting articles and in addition be useful for classroom practice. It was, however, disappointing to find that the topic of FA was not only lacking information, but also that classroom studies on this topic were practically non-existent; this came as a surprise, because FA is a daily reality of any L2 classroom. It was hoped that the present study would make up for this lack of practical investigations to some small extent. Future MA students might profitably further investigate certain new questions raised by this study, such as the effects of other types of interactive FA feedback, or the nature of the relationship between passive and active vocabulary knowledge, or might perform a replication of this study with another level of learner, or type of setting.

Although this study was conducted using only 104 participants, interesting results have come forth. The main question this secondary-classroom oriented study investigated was whether more experienced learners of an L2 will have an advantage over less experienced learners at identifying problematic aspects resulting from the contact of two languages existing side by side.

The first thing that was expected to be found was that learners who had acquired more vocabulary in the target L2 would be better at handling cognates and FA. What the investigation came up with is the fact that more experienced learners, considered so because of a higher VLT results, did outperform the less experienced learners, that is, those who scored lower than the more experienced learners. The findings regarding this matter are clear.

The next element which was expected to be found regarded the effectiveness of feedback in matters of cognates and FA; would a learner who was formally instructed by an L2 teacher in strategies for handling the L2 regarding FA understand the limits in the relationship between the L1 and L2 and be more successful in an FA awareness task than one who had never been told anything about this reality of L2 acquisition? It was decided to have interactive feedback with individual learners. The choice of feedback may have been the deciding factor in creating confusion amongst the learners who were part of the control group which did receive interactive feedback. In this case, the learners who were targeted with interactive feedback became confused once they had been instructed. Their first FA test results were comparable to the two FA tests the other group did. Had the type of feedback been different, results might have shed new light. This route does not merit further investigation.

Then came the fact that learners have two types of vocabulary knowledge: active and passive vocabulary knowledge. Knowing this, would there be a significant relationship between the amount of vocabulary knowledge and the ability to handle cognates, and would the relationship be stronger for active or for passive knowledge? Passive vocabulary knowledge led to distinct results: three groups were formed according to their FA test results. The results showed clearly that learners who have mastered the 3K frequency level will be more successful at identifying FA, but this advantage stopped there. Once put in an active state, differences disappeared; although the learners had a variety of results regarding the FA test, their active vocabulary knowledge profile showed little distinction from one learner to another.

And finally, contextual variables were considered. The first one was gender: would girls outperform boys, or would the opposite occur. As it turned out, neither did: no distinctions could be made between genders. The equation of the gender variable from the learners and the L2 teacher invalidated the results. Therefore, in the case of this study, more particularly this school, since the learners do not have an L2 teacher of the same gender two years in a row, gender plays no role in successful FA awareness. The other contextual variable was the type of primary language instruction the learners had received, and would this be a factor in FA

recognition? Again, the answer was no. It seems that if programs differ in primary school, the gap, if there was one, will be bridged over time. In the case of this study, almost three years were sufficient.

These findings, if not applied to classroom L2 instruction, will have been in vain. What pedagogical implications can be drawn from these results? L2 teachers need not to make learners aware of FA, since they naturally seem to become so once a good lexical basis has been acquired. Rather, L2 teachers need to increase learners' vocabulary knowledge, and enable learners to use this L2 knowledge in both active and passive states. Some learners might be more receptive which would allow them to retain more information allowing them to have greater passive vocabulary knowledge. However, even an experienced learner still needs to learn some more: a great majority of participants may have mastered the 3K level, but this number dramatically drops at the 5K with a slight increase at the UWL and drops once more with the 10K level. Therefore, L2 teachers should continue working on improving passive vocabulary knowledge with the concern of having learners transpose it to active vocabulary knowledge. The study clearly found that learners do not use their passive vocabulary knowledge to its full potential. Knowing this, L2 teachers should make learners write. The more learners write, the more they will need to refer to their passive vocabulary knowledge which then means that chances are they will improve their active vocabulary knowledge.

APPENDIX A

THE VOCABULARY LEVELS TEST

This is a vocabulary test. You must choose the right word to go with each meaning. Write the number of that word next to its meaning. Here is an example.

- | | | |
|-------------|-------|----------------------------|
| 1. business | | |
| 2. clock | _____ | part of a house |
| 3. horse | _____ | animals with four legs |
| 4. pencil | _____ | something used for writing |
| 5. shoe | | |
| 6. wall | | |

You answer it in the following way.

- | | | |
|-------------|--------------|----------------------------|
| 1. business | | |
| 2. clock | <u> 6 </u> | part of a house |
| 3. horse | <u> 3 </u> | animals with four legs |
| 4. pencil | <u> 4 </u> | something used for writing |
| 5. shoe | | |
| 6. wall | | |

Some words are in the test to make it more difficult. You do not have to find a meaning for those words. In the example above, these words are *business*, *clock*, *shoe*. Try to do every part of the test.

The 2,000-word level

- | | | |
|----------------|-------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. original | | |
| 2. private | _____ | complete |
| 3. royal | _____ | first |
| 4. slow | _____ | not public |
| 5. sorry | | |
| 6. total | | |
| | | |
| 1. apply | | |
| 2. elect | _____ | choose by voting |
| 3. jump | _____ | become like water |
| 4. manufacture | _____ | make |
| 5. melt | | |
| 6. threaten | | |
| | | |
| 1. blame | | |
| 2. hide | _____ | keep away from sight |
| 3. hit | _____ | have a bad effect on something |
| 4. invite | _____ | ask |
| 5. pour | | |
| 6. spoil | | |
| | | |
| 1. accident | | |
| 2. choice | _____ | having a high opinion of yourself |
| 3. debt | _____ | something you must pay |
| 4. fortune | _____ | loud, deep sound |
| 5. pride | | |
| 6. roar | | |
| | | |
| 1. basket | | |
| 2. crop | _____ | money paid regularly for doing a job |
| 3. flesh | _____ | heat |
| 4. salary | _____ | meat |
| 5. temperature | | |
| 6. thread | | |

- | | | |
|--------------|-------|------------|
| 1. birth | | |
| 2. dust | _____ | being born |
| 3. operation | _____ | game |
| 4. row | _____ | winning |
| 5. sport | | |
| 6. victory | | |

The 3,000-word level

- | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|
| 1. administration | | |
| 2. angel | _____ | managing business and affairs |
| 3. front | _____ | spirit who serves God |
| 4. herd | _____ | group of animals |
| 5. mate | | |
| 6. pond | | |

- | | | |
|-------------|-------|-------------------|
| 1. bench | | |
| 2. charity | _____ | part of a country |
| 3. fort | _____ | help to the poor |
| 4. jar | _____ | long seat |
| 5. mirror | | |
| 6. province | | |

- | | | |
|-------------|-------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. coach | | |
| 2. darling | _____ | a thin, flat piece cut from something |
| 3. echo | _____ | person who is loved very much |
| 4. interior | _____ | sound reflecting back to you |
| 5. opera | | |
| 6. slice | | |

- | | | |
|-----------|-------|----------------------------|
| 1. marble | | |
| 2. palm | _____ | inner surface of your hand |
| 3. ridge | _____ | excited feeling |
| 4. scheme | _____ | plan |
| 5. statue | | |
| 6. thrill | | |

- | | | |
|---------------|-------|--|
| 1. discharge | | |
| 2. encounter | _____ | use pictures or examples to show the meaning |
| 3. illustrate | _____ | meet |
| 4. knit | _____ | throw up in the air |
| 5. prevail | | |
| 6. toss | | |

- | | | |
|--------------|-------|-----------------------|
| 1. annual | | |
| 2. blank | _____ | happening once a year |
| 3. brilliant | _____ | certain |
| 4. concealed | _____ | wild |
| 5. definite | | |
| 6. savage | | |

The 5,000-word level

- | | | |
|------------|-------|--|
| 1. alcohol | | |
| 2. apron | _____ | cloth worn in front of you to protect your clothes |
| 3. lure | _____ | stage of development |
| 4. mess | _____ | state of untidiness or dirtiness |
| 5. phase | | |
| 6. plank | | |

- | | | |
|---------------|-------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. circus | | |
| 2. jungle | _____ | speech given by a priest in a church |
| 3. nomination | _____ | seat without a back or arms |
| 4. sermon | _____ | musical instrument |
| 5. stool | | |
| 6. trumpet | | |

- | | | |
|---------------|-------|----------------------------------|
| 1. apparatus | | |
| 2. compliment | _____ | set of instruments or machinery |
| 3. revenue | _____ | money received by the government |
| 4. scrap | _____ | expression of admiration |
| 5. tile | | |
| 6. ward | | |

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| 1. bruise | |
| 2. exile | _____ agreement using property as security for a debt |
| 3. ledge | _____ narrow shelf |
| 4. mortgage | _____ dark place on your body caused by hitting |
| 5. shovel | |
| 6. switch | |

- | | |
|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. blend | |
| 2. devise | _____ hold tightly in your arms |
| 3. embroider | _____ plan or invent |
| 4. hug | _____ mix |
| 5. imply | |
| 6. paste | |

- | | |
|--------------|----------------------------|
| 1. desolate | |
| 2. fragrant | _____ good for your health |
| 3. gloomy | _____ sweet-smelling |
| 4. profound | _____ dark or sad |
| 5. radical | |
| 6. wholesome | |

The University Word List level

- | | |
|---------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. affluence | |
| 2. axis | _____ introduction of a new thing |
| 3. episode | _____ one event in a series |
| 4. innovation | _____ wealth |
| 5. precision | |
| 6. tissue | |

- | | |
|------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. deficiency | |
| 2. magnitude | _____ swinging from side to side |
| 3. oscillation | _____ respect |
| 4. prestige | _____ lack |
| 5. sanction | |
| 6. specification | |

1. configuration
2. discourse
3. hypothesis
4. intersection
5. partisan
6. propensity

_____ shape
 _____ speech
 _____ theory

1. anonymous
2. indigenous
3. maternal
4. minimum
5. nutrient
6. modification

_____ without the writer's name
 _____ least possible amount
 _____ native

1. elementary
2. negative
3. static
4. random
5. reluctant
6. ultimate

_____ of the beginning stage
 _____ not moving or changing
 _____ final, furthest

1. coincide
2. coordinate
3. expel
4. frustrate
5. supplement
6. transfer

_____ prevent people from doing something they want to do
 _____ add to
 _____ sent out by force

The 10,000-word level

1. acquiesce
2. contaminate
3. crease
4. dabble
5. rape
6. squint

_____ work at something without serious intentions
 _____ accept without protest
 _____ make a fold on cloth or paper

1. blaspheme
2. endorse
3. nurture
4. overhaul
5. skid
6. straggle

_____ give care and food to
 _____ speak badly about God
 _____ slip or slide

1. auxiliary
2. candid
3. dubious
4. morose
5. pompous
6. temporal

_____ full of self-importance
 _____ helping, adding support
 _____ bad-tempered

1. anterior
2. concave
3. interminable
4. puny
5. volatile
6. wicker

_____ small and weak
 _____ easily changing
 _____ endless

1. dregs
2. flurry
3. hostage
4. jumble
5. saliva
6. truce

_____ worst and most useless parts of anything
 _____ natural liquid present in the mouth
 _____ confused mixture

1. auspices
2. casualty
3. froth
4. haunch
5. revelry
6. seclusion

_____ being away from other people
 _____ someone killed or injured
 _____ noisy and happy celebration

APPENDIX B

FIRST FAUX-AMIS TEST

1. Although my mom and dad won't be there this weekend, I will see my parents because my aunts, uncles, and cousins will be there.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
2. I thought I had done really well on my exam, so I couldn't wait to see my note.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
3. Young children love to draw with crayons.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
4. Just as you are, the students in the book Killing Mr Griffin were in a college except they were in their last year, while you still have two more years to complete.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
5. If I could change something about the school uniform, I would find a more appropriate fabric for warm weather.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
6. Once our paper is done, we need to hand it in to the teacher, and attach it with a trombone.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
7. It was very long, but this is the last chapter and I've finally achieved to write my paper.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
8. I just love Indian cuisine.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____

9. When Lucy wants something, she doesn't want anything else. She has a stubborn character.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
10. My cat was stuck in a corner, so I delivered it.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
11. I was very mad and demanded to speak with the manager of the store.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
12. Men and women don't have the same force. Women are considered to be weaker.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
13. Something strange arrived while I was on the phone: the line was cut.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
14. Susan and her fiancé will get here soon.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
15. My friend obliged me to go even if I didn't want to.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
16. She didn't know what to do and needed me, so I came to her aid.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
17. I quickly grabbed my camera and took a photo of my dog.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
18. People were divided in separate groups.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
19. I went shopping and I bought a cheap dress. I think I'll wear it to my cousin's wedding and try find myself a nice boy to date.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____

20. My sister's new boyfriend is very gentle. He even thought of buying me a present for my birthday.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
21. I just hated it and wanted to quit this place and go home.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
22. We went to Rona to buy wood, and we fixed it on the roof of the car to take it home.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
23. We couldn't believe this weird spectacle.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
24. Right now, I'm in Florida and it's beautiful. I hope you're having good temperature in Montréal.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
25. The University Professor gave a lecture about World War I.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____

APPENDIX C

SECOND FAUX-AMIS TEST

1. One of the most difficult things in gymnastics is having good balance.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
2. I assisted at a very interesting conference while I was in Toronto last week.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
3. The table could not fit in the doorway because it was too large.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
4. We had a big deception when we found out the trip was cancelled.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
5. I had an incredible party this weekend. As a result, I have a lot of fatigue.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
6. Once classes and exam are over, we will finally all have liberty.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
7. The public swimming pool is very profound near the diving boards.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
8. Because there are too many distractions over at my home, I will go study at the library.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
9. Lucy refuses to tell me what she wants to do. I think she has a hidden agenda.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____

10. I went shopping and found a dress made in a wonderful light tissue. It will be great to wear when it's very hot in July.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
11. My young nephew accidentally blessed himself while on his bicycle.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
12. For security reasons, students are defended to throw snowballs in the school yard.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
13. Because he has a limousine, my uncle becomes a chauffeur on weekends.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
14. My daughter's favorite thing to do at Christmas is to develop her presents.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____
15. A globe is a big sphere.
Acceptable _____ Not acceptable _____

APPENDIX D

WRITTEN PRODUCTION - ORIGINAL VERSION

Since sports exist they have been many good athletes that can be considered as legends. But I think one of them surpasses them all: the great Maurice Richard. In the following text, you'll find out his accomplishments, his qualities, well about everything that makes him a real legend. Maurice Richard was really poor when he was young. He had nothing but his skates. And that was enough. He loved hockey. So in his early twenties, he went and saw the hockey president he became a player of the Montreal's Canadiens. Since then, he was a star. The Rocket (people called him this way because he flew on the ice) scored, scored and scored. He won many prizes, and stars and made his team win the Stanley cup several times. Also, I consider him as a legend because he wasn't afraid of telling true things. For example, he had an article in the newspaper and he wrote many things against the important English businessmen and how it was unfair the way they treated French people (before the revolution tranquille). As a conclusion, I'll say that Richard was a legend, is a legend and will be a legend ever after.

APPENDIX E

WRITTEN PRODUCTION - CORRECTED VERSION

Since sports exist they have been many good athletes that can be considered as legends. But I think one of them surpasses them all: the great . In the following text you'll find out his accomplishments, his qualities, well about everything that makes him a real legend. was really poor when he was young. He had nothing but his skates. And that was enough. He loved hockey. So in his early twenties, he went and saw the hockey president he became a player of the . Since then, he was a star. The (people called him this way because he flew on the ice) scored, scored and scored. He won many prizes, and stars and maked his team win the cup several times. Also, I consider him as a legend because he wasn't afraid of telling *true* things. For example, he had an article in the newspaper and he wrote many things against the important businessmen and how it was unfair the way they treated people (before the revolution). As a conclusion, I'll say that was a legend, is a legend and will be a legend ever after.

REFERENCE

- Alderson, J. C. 1984. Reading in a foreign language: A meaning problem or a language problem? In J.C. Alderson & A.H. Urquhart (Eds.) *Reading in a foreign language*. (p. 1-27). New York: Longman.
- Algeo, J (Ed.). 1991. *Fifty Years among the New Words: A Dictionary of Neologisms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Anthony, E 1953. «The Teaching of Cognates». *Language Learning*, 4, 79-82.
- Banko, R., J. Barlow and F. Bonkowski. 1987. *Take Action*. Éditions du Renouveau Pédagogique (ERPI), Ottawa, Canada.
- Banko, R., J. Barlow and F. Bonkowski. 1988. *Take A Look*. Éditions du Renouveau Pédagogique (ERPI), Ottawa, Canada.
- Banta, F. 1981. «Teaching German Vocabulary: The Use of English Cognates and Common Loan Words». *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol 65, No 1, Spring 1981, p. 129-136.
- Bogaards, P. 1988. *Aptitude et affectivité dans l'apprentissage des langues étrangères*. Paris, Hatier, Coll. LAlp p. 117-121.
- Brega, E. and Newell (initials not available). 1967. In Bogaards, P. 1988. p.117-121.
- Burstall, C. 1975. In Bogaards, P. 1988. p.117-121.
- Campion, M.E and W.B. Elley. 1971. *An Academic Word List*. Wellington: NZCER.
- Carroll, S. 1992. «On Cognates». *Second Language Research*, 8, 2: 93-119.
- Clark, EV. 1993. *The Lexicon in Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cobb, T. *Web Vocabprofile* [accessed Feb 20 2006 from <http://www.lexutor.ca/vp/>], an adaptation of Heatley & Nation's (1994) *Range*.
- Cobb, T. (2006). The Old Vocabulary, the New Vocabulary, and The Arab Learner. In *Proceedings of TESOL Arabia Conference 2006*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL Inc.

- Cohen, J. 1988. *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences (2nd ed.)*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Coxhead, A. 1998. *An Academic Word List*. Occasional Publication Number 18, LALS, Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand.
- Cross, D. 1983. In Bogaards, P. 1988. p.117-121.
- Eringa, D. 1974. «Enseigner, c'est choisir: Vocabulaire-verwerving». *Levende Talen*, 306: 260-67.
- Gachelin, J.M.. 1990. «Is English a Romance Language?» *English Today*, 23: 8-14.
- Gallegos, A. 1983. «Design, Implementation, and Evaluation of an Individualized Learning Packet on Cognate Word Understanding for Adult Spanish Speakers at the University of New Mexico». Ph.D. dissertation, University of New Mexico, distributed by UMI Dissertation Information Service.
- Germain, C. 1991. *Le point sur l'approche communicative en didactique des langues*. Montréal: Centre Éducatif et Culturel.
- Ghadessy, M. 1979. «Frequency Counts, Word Lists, and Materials Preparation: A New Approach». *English Teaching Forum*, 17, 24-27.
- Gouvernement du Québec: Ministère de l'Éducation. 1996. *Document d'information sur l'enseignement intensif de l'anglais langue seconde au primaire*. Comité de travail sur l'enseignement de l'anglais langue seconde, Avril 1996.
- Granger, S. 1996. «Romance Words in English: From History to Pedagogy». *KVHAA Konferencer*, 36: 105-121. Stockholm.
- Hammer, P. 1975. The role of English-French cognates in listening and reading comprehension in the learning of French as a second language. M. Ed. Thesis. University of Alberta.
- Haynes, M. and I. Baker. 1993. American and Chinese readers learning from lexical familiarization in English texts. In T. Huckin, M. Haynes and J. Coady (Eds.) *Second Language Reading and Vocabulary acquisition*. Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Heatley, A. and Nation, P. (1994). *Range*. Victoria University of Wellington, NZ. [Computer program, available at <http://www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/>.]

- Holmes, J. 1986. «Snarks, quarks and cognates: An elusive fundamental particle in reading comprehension». *The ESPecialist*, 15, 13-40.
- Holmes, J. and R. Guerra Ramos. 1993. «False Friends and Reckless Guessers: Observing Cognates Recognition Strategies». In T. Huckin, M. Haynes and J. Coady (Eds.) *Second Language Reading and Vocabulary Reading* (pp. 86-108). Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Hu, M. and P. Nation. 2000. «Vocabulary Density and Reading Comprehension». *Reading in a Foreign Language*. (pages not available).
- Ilson, R. 1983. «Etymological information: can it help our students?», *ELT Journal*, 37, 76-82.
- Kellerman, E. 1978. «Giving Learners a Break: Native Language Intuition as a Source of Predictions about Transferability». *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 15: 59-92.
- , 1984. «The Empirical Evidence for the Influence of the L1 in Interlanguage». In A. Davies, C. Cripe and A. Howatt (Eds.), *Interlanguage*. (pages not available).
- Kellerman, E. and M. Sharwood Smith. 1986. «An Eye for an Eye: Crosslinguistic Constraints on the Development of the L2 Lexicon». Chap. in *Crosslinguistic Influence in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press. (pages not available).
- Lado, R. 1957. *Linguistics across Cultures*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Langouet, G. 1979. In Bogaards, P. 1988. p. 117-121.
- Laufer, B. 1994. «The Lexical Profile of Second Language Writing: Does it Change over Time?». *RECL Journal*, 25, 21-33.
- , 1997. The lexical plight in second language reading: words you don't know, words you think you know and words you can't guess. In J. Coady and T. Huckin (Eds), *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition: a Rationale for Pedagogy* (pp. 20-34). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- , 1998. «The Development of Passive and Active Vocabulary: Same or Different?». *Applied Linguistics*, 19, 255-271.
- Laufer B. and P. Nation. 1995. «Vocabulary Size and Use: Lexical Richness in L2 Written Production». *Applied Linguistic*, 16, 307-322.
- Laufer, Batia and D.D. Sim 1985. Measuring and explaining the threshold needed for English for Academic Purposes texts. *Foreign Language Annals*, 18, 405-413.

- Laufer, Batia and D.D. Sim 1985. Taking the easy way out: Nonuse and misuse of contextual clues in EFL reading comprehension. *English Teaching Forum*, 23 (2), 7-10, 22.
- Leech, G., P. Rayson and A. Wilson. 2001. *Word Frequencies in Written and Spoken English*. Pearson Education.
- Lightbown, P and G. Libben. 1984. The recognition of cognates by L2 learners. In R. W. Anderson (Ed.) *A cross-linguistic perspective for second language research* (pp. 393-417). Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.
- Limper, L. H. 1932. «Student knowledge of some French-English cognates». *The French Review* VI: 37-49.
- Lipka, L. 1990. *An Outline of English Lexicology*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer.
- Lynn, R. W. 1973. «Preparing Word Lists: A Suggested Method». *RELC Journal*, 4, 25-32.
- Marton, W. 1977. «Foreign Vocabulary Learning as Problem Number One of Foreign Language Teaching at the Advanced Level». *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin*, 2 (1): 33-47.
- Meara, P. 1993. «The Bilingual Lexicon and the Teaching of Vocabulary». In R, Schreuder and B. Weltens (Eds.) *The Bilingual Lexicon* (pp. 279-297). Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- , 1996. «The Dimensions of Lexical Competence». In G. Brown, K. Malmkjaer, & J. Williams (Eds.) *Performance and Competence in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 35-53). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Michael, J. 1972. «The Problem of Time: Some Techniques for Teaching Vocabulary». Eric Reports 27, New York. (pages not available).
- Ministère de l'Éducation du Québec. 1999. Document d'information – Cahier A : Épreuves uniques.
- Morris, L. and T. Cobb (2004). Vocabulary profiles as predictors of the academic performance of TESL trainees. *System* 32(1), 75-87.
- Nakamura, L. K. 1986. «Students identification of English/Portuguese cognates». *The ESPECIALIST*, 13, 19-25.

- Nagy, W., E.F. McClure and M. Mir. 1995. *Linguistic Transfer and the Use of Context by Spanish-English Bilinguals* (Tech. Rep. No. 616). Urbana: University of Illinois, Center for the Study of Reading.
- Nassaji, H. 2004. L2 Vocabulary Learning From Context : Strategies, Knowledge Sources, and Their Relationship With Success in L2 Lexical Inferencing. *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol 37, No 4, Winter 2003.
- Nation, P. 1990. *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*. New York: Newbury House.
- , 2001. *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, P. and J. Coady. 1988. Vocabulary and reading. In R. Carter & M. McCarthy (Eds.) *Vocabulary and language teaching* (p. 97-110). London: Longman.
- Nation, P. and R. Waring. 1997. «Vocabulary Size, Text Coverage and Word Lists». In Schmitt, N. and M. McCarthy (Eds.) *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Odlin, T. 1989. *Language Transfer*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Québec. 2002. *Charte de la langue française*. Bibliothèque nationale du Québec. Québec : Éditeur officiel du Québec.
- Palmberg, R. 1985. «How much English Vocabulary do Swedish-Speaking Primary-School Pupils Know before Starting to Learn English at School?» In H. Ringbom (Ed.) *Foreign Language Learning and Bilingualism* (pp. 88-98). Åbo: Publications of the Research Institute of the Åbo Åkademi Foundation.
- Palmberg, R. 1987. «On lexical inferencing and the young foreign-language learner». *System*, vol. 15, 69-76.
- Pedagogical Director of Collège Saint-Sacrement. 2005. Personal communication.
- Perdue, C. 1993. *Adult Language Acquisition: Cross-linguistic Perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Politzer (initials not available) and Weiss (initials not available). 1969. In Bogaards, P. 1988. p.117-121.
- Praninskas, J. 1972. *American University Word List*. London: Longman.

- , 1983. «On the Distinctions of Item Learning vs. System Learning and Receptive Competence vs. Productive Competence in Relation to the Role of L1 in Foreign Language Learning». In H. Ringbom (Ed.) *Psycholinguistics and Foreign Language Learning* (pp. 163-173). Åbo: Åbo Åkademi.
- Ringbom, H. 1983. «Borrowing and lexical transfer». *Applied Linguistics*, 4: 207-212.
- , 1987. *The Role of the First Language in Foreign Language Learning*. Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Roberts, P. 1965. «Towards a Lexical Syllabus». *IATEL Newsletter* 96: 38-39.
- Schmitt, N. and M. McCarthy. 1997. *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sheen, R. 1977. «"Faux amis" for Francophones Learning EFL». *Il SPEAQ Journal: Revue de la société pour la promotion de l'enseignement de l'anglais (langue seconde) au Québec* 3.1-2, p. 95-103. [Online at <http://www.wfi.fr/volterre/sheen.html>, accessed May 18, 2005.]
- , 1980. «The Importance of Negative Transfer in the Speech of Near-Bilinguals». In *Langues et linguistique* 6, 191-214; also in *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching* 18, 105-119.
- Smith, P.D. 1970. In Bogaards, P. 1988. p.117-121.
- Swan, M. 1997. «The Influence of the Mother Tongue on Second Language Acquisition and Use». In Schmitt, N. and M. McCarthy (Eds.) *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy* (pp. 156-180). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tréville, M.-C. 1990. *Good Friends; The Use of English Cognates for Learning French*. Québec : Éditions Varro.
- , 1993. *Rôle des congénères interlinguaux dans le développement du vocabulaire réceptif ; application du français langue seconde*. Québec : Université Laval.
- , 2000. *Vocabulaire et apprentissage d'une langue seconde; Recherches et théories*. Montréal: Les éditions logiques.
- Ulijn, J., S. Wolfe and A. Donn. 1981. «The lexical transfer effect of French knowledge in the acquisition of English by Vietnamese speakers». Report 6, Foreign Language Acquisition Research, The Eindhoven University of Technology.

Vocolo (initials not available). 1967. In Bogaards, P. 1988. p. 117-121.

West M. 1953. *A General Service List of English Words*. London: Longman, Green and Co.

Westphal (initials not available) and al (names not available). 1969. In Bogaards, P. 1988.

Xue G. and P. Nation. 1984. «A University Word List». *Language Learning and Communication*, 3, 215-229.

Zahar, R., Cobb, T., & Spada, N. (2001). «Acquiring vocabulary through reading: Effects of frequency and contextual richness». *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57(4), 541-572.

Note : Missing page references relate to course materials given out in MA course work without bibliographical details.