The Effect of Narrativity on Foreign Language Abstract Vocabulary Retention

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Abstract
This study investigated the effect of narrativity on the immediate and delayed retention of abstract words by learners of English as a foreign language. Forty female EFL learners, who enjoyed acceptable homogeneity in the target area according to a test of reading and vocabulary, were randomly assigned to two groups - a control group and an experimental one with 20 members each. They participated in two sessions of instruction taught by one of the researchers. During the two sessions, the narrative group studied forty-seven abstract words in the context of two short stories, while the expository group studied the same words in two non-narrative passages which matched the stories in difficulty. Achievement tests, administered immediately after each session and after a one-week delay, showed that the narrative group outperformed those who had studied the target vocabulary in non-narrative texts both for immediate (means, 20.55 and 10.87, respectively) and delayed (means, 19.07 and 9.25, respectively) recall. Multiple t-tests showed that the narrative group maintained a significant advantage in recalling abstract words over control students on each occasion.

Keywords: Abstract Vocabulary; Narrativity; Stories; Vocabulary Retention; Presentation Mode

1. Introduction

The status of stories in the classroom is so established that they have frequently been called “the heart and soul of education” (Koki, 1998) and, no wonder the notion that stories are great educational tools is a truth generally acknowledged by the experienced teachers of the world. So, stories are educational resources which help advance educational agendas and instructional assets which enable teachers to meet challenges and reduce liabilities. The importance of vocabulary as an element in the linguistic and
ultimately communicative competence of language learners is also hard to exaggerate. Teaching abstract words seems to be a challenge for language teachers especially in foreign language teaching settings, in which they should also respond to other challenges. Presenting abstract vocabulary through narrative texts seems to be a very effective teaching strategy and may be more effective than presenting them through other types of texts. While a huge bulk of previous research offers strong support for the use of narrative mode in learning in general (e.g., Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Mello, 2001), and vocabulary learning in particular (e.g., Collins, 2005; Elly, 1987), with implications for abstract vocabulary learning, the present researchers focused on the effect of narrativity on immediate and delayed retention of abstract vocabulary in a quasi-experimental framework. On such account, the following questions were formulated:

1. Does studying abstract words in narrative passages result in better immediate recall than studying them in expository passages?
2. Does studying abstract words in narrative passages result in better delayed recall than studying them in expository passages?

2. Narratives in Education and Language Teaching

There is a huge amount of research that points to the positive effect of narrativity on academic study and language learning. In this section, selected findings and comments about this effect are presented. This is followed by a review of some research which offers explanations in more detail.

Some researchers emphasize the value of stories as a vehicle for passing on factual information and enhancing the intended meaning (e.g., Harter, Japp, & Beck, 2005; Tunks, 2012). According to Meyer (1995), story structure allows students to make sense of experience. In fact, stories have been found to be the best way of representing and understanding experience (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). It has been documented by empirical research that learners have less difficulty comprehending narrative texts than expository ones (Ambruster, Anderson, & Ostertag, 1987). This may be, at least partly, because abstract concepts are better understood when placed in binary opposition and in the context of stories, not in arguments or rote memorization (Egan, 1997).

Many studies endorse the time-honored idea that narrative material is memory-supported and remembered better. They present stories as effective tools that link literature to content and experience in order to increase memory and retention (Mello, 2001). Coles (1989) asserts that
stories enhance recall, retention, application of concepts into new situations, understanding, learner enthusiasm for the subject matter and virtually every measurable aspect of learning. According to Tannen (1999), narrative details create mental images, making possible both understanding and memory. It is no wonder that Holladay (1984) and Hirum, Sivo, and Pound (2012) conclude that effective teachers engage in narrative activity more often than less effective teachers.

Haven (2007) meta-analyzed the research that had validated the importance of story, story reading, and storytelling to the cognitive development and education of learners. He explored whether the form and structure of narrative presentation affected the reception of information and came to a very strong “yes”, based on the scrutiny of 300 qualitative and 100 quantitative studies, concluding that “research clearly shows that story structure provides superior retention (memory and recall), improves understanding, makes readers pay attention more, and enhances the creation of meaning” (p. 204).

As to why story structure is such a mighty architecture and powerful educational tool, many researchers refer to the fact that the brain is hardwired for stories. Bruner (1990) asserts that humans have an inherent readiness or predisposition to organize experience into story form: viewpoints, characters, intentions, sequential plot structures, and other narrative elements. Pinker (2000) agrees with the assertion about human’s innate disposition towards stories and comments that 100,000 years of evolutionary preference for, and reliance on, stories has built into the human genetic code instructions to wire the brain to think in story terms by birth. McAdams (1993) also believes that the human mind is in congruence with stories or narrative genre. According to him, it is because of the narrative nature of human mind at and before birth that we are impelled as adults to make sense of our lives in terms of narrative.

The predisposition of human mind and brain to think in story terms is continuously reinforced and strengthened as the brain and cognition develop through age 12 (Kotulak, 1999). The cognitive consequence of this developmental process, which is culturally supported in both oral and literate societies, is that we become dependent on interpreting experience and knowledge, abstract or concrete, through a specific story architecture. Similarly, Bransford and Brown (2000) emphasize the finding that the mind imposes a narrative structure on the temporal and human information available from experience and then interprets and creates meaning for experience through this structure. Clandinin and Connelly (2000) also
consider narrative structure an essential aspect of the human mind used to interpret information and to make meaning.

The consequence of stories being native to the mind/brain is the existence of external linguistic information and texts isomorphic to the mind and the educational imperative of having compatibility between the two because, in such a scenario, people make sense of the data they receive based on their story structures and previously formed mental maps. People understand the world in terms of stories that they have already understood. New events or information are understood by reference to old, previously understood, stories and explained to others by the use of stories (Schank, 2002). In fact, when human minds receive any type of data, they reorder them narratively. It does not make any difference what type of data in what form is received; the mind automatically performs an analysis on the data, chooses the main information, and by assigning each chunk of information the related story element, turns it into a story to make sense of it.

The bottom line is that the structure of a text is an important factor in comprehension and memory and narrativity as a text-structural feature is very instrumental in improving memory and retention (Ambruster et al., 1987), so much so that experience and information not framed into a story suffer loss in memory (Mandler, 1984). In fact, Howard (1991) suggests that academic writings should include elements of the narrative style in order to redress the limitations with which they encumber the learners.

Stories are also motivating and fun and, hence, can contribute to the development of a positive attitude toward a foreign language and its learning, and intensify the desire to continue learning. There is evidence that sharing ideas and concepts through stories is a powerful course of action for encouraging social relations and helping students better connect with what they are learning in school and what they know of the world. Martin (2000) explores the teachers’ use of narratives as an instructional strategy designed to convey abstract concepts through concrete experience. She believes that “the narratives engage students in critical thinking and personal reflection, and provide them with the opportunity to make connections between social and historical contexts” (p. 349). Based on her study and data analysis, she presents a model of teachers’ use of narrative as a strategy to pose critical questions, frame a context for discussion, encourage students to reflect on personal perspectives, and introduce ideas and concepts. Schoenbrodt and Gesell (2003) discuss the use of narrative language intervention in increasing communicative competence. Results of their study support the claim that
narrative language interventions increase language skills in children with limited language proficiency.

3. Abstract Vocabulary

Whereas concrete terms refer to objects or events that are available to the senses, abstract words refer to ideas or concepts and have no physical referents and cannot be seen or touched. Words with abstract meanings are more difficult to learn than words which refer to concrete entities because they are less imaginable and tend to be of lower frequency (Hunt & Beglar, 2005). Such words as admit, adept, capacity, entity, and co-opt present both the learner and the teacher with greater challenges than stomach, boil, and grizzly bear. Nevertheless, the ability to understand abstract words is of far-reaching consequence for academic learning and adaptation to academic life (Nation, 2001). According to Whettenmaker and Shoben (1987), abstract vocabulary can be made more memorable when it is placed in concrete contexts, such as in semantic maps that use more concrete words and phrases. The acquisition of abstract concepts can be enhanced by engaging learners in activities in which learners process associations and make connections between the abstract item and the concrete information that is already known. However, beyond the implied relevance of stories for abstract vocabulary teaching, there are few studies systematically exploring conceivable narrative strategies for teaching this important and potentially troublesome type of vocabulary to foreign language learners. This study focuses on this less researched application of a narrative approach, i.e., studying abstract words in a narrative context.

4. Methodology

The present study was carried out to test the effectiveness of narrative genre in the retention of abstract words. It was hypothesized that narrative writing offers a significant edge over expository writing. To determine the validity of the claim, two groups of intermediate students of English as a foreign language studied abstract words for two sessions. One group studied them in the context of stories, the other in expository texts.

4.1. Participants

There were 61 female English learners (aged 18-20) studying a general English course at Shariati University in Tehran at the beginning the
academic year in 2010. Having taken a written test based on the book they planned to study ($r = 0.94$), 40 learners who scored higher than 15 on this 25-item multiple-choice (MC) test were selected and randomly assigned to two groups, each including 20 students. The mean scores for the control or expository group and experimental or narrative group were 21 and 21.15 out of 25, respectively. The purpose of the screening procedure was to make sure that the intended treatment material was appropriate and learners likely to find it too difficult to connect to would be excluded from the study. Such learners were also assigned to classes but they were not considered participants in the study.

4.2. Materials

The purpose of this study was to compare the effectiveness of narrative and non-narrative modes in teaching vocabulary. So, many texts in these two genres were examined to find the right pairs of texts, each pair including one narrative and one expository text close to each other in terms of abstract lexis, length, readability, and the level of intended audience. The researchers used experts’ views, common sense, and the level which the producers assigned to the texts. Two short stories and two expository texts seemed to do the purpose well. A version of O. Henry’s “While the Wife is Away” (939 words) modified for language learners by Larson (1973), and the short story “The Magic Pool” (859 words) edited by Berry (1997) were paired with two general-interest nonnarrative academic passages, “Autism” (613; Whitney, 2002) and “Bumps and Personalities” (557; Mirhassani & Rahimi, 2003), respectively. The first pair included 25 common target words, and the second pair included 22 such words. This difference in size is inevitable since presenting information in story form requires more words than presenting the same content information otherwise (Haven, 2007). The texts were slightly modified by the researchers to maximize the number of abstract words in common. This modification included adding a few abstract words and making changes in some sentences to accommodate the addition. The 47 abstract words included 7 nouns, 18 verbs, 15 adjectives, and 7 adverbs (See Appendix A for text samples and Appendix B for the full list of the target words).

Apart from the 25-item screening test administered before the experiment, measurement material included four vocabulary achievement tests—an MC test for immediate recall and an MC cloze test for delayed recall. The tests targeted the meanings of the abstract words that were taught through the medium of narrative or non-narrative texts. They were all piloted
with similar students to make sure of their reliability, using split-half method, and removing weaknesses related to difficulty level and discrimination power.

4.3. Procedure

To check the effectiveness of abstract vocabulary teaching across the two types of verbal contexts, the opportunity of having two groups of learners at the beginning of a general English program was seized. The experimental treatment and the treatment given to the control group were not at loggerheads with the goals of the program and could be well received by the administrators and the learners of the institute. When the semester started, the screening test of reading and vocabulary was administered for the purpose of having more homogenous groups. Then, the learners were assigned to two groups with cooperation from the administrators. One week later, during the time specified in the attendance schedule of each group, one of the researchers, who was to teach the two groups, wrote the target abstract words on the board in small batches. After writing each batch, he asked the students to tell the meanings of the words they knew. No correct meanings were received from the learners in the two groups; so, it made sense to teach them those words. The on-target vocabulary choice could be attributed to the teacher’s familiarity with the learners and his awareness of their vocabulary knowledge.

The treatment and the evaluation thereof were done in the following three sessions, one session a week. The two groups had their classes in the morning of the same day, one after the other. In the first session, the experimental group was given “While the Wife is Away” and the control group “Autism”. The manner for the presentation and evaluation with both groups was the same. First, the texts, which presented the abstract words in boldface, were read aloud in 5 min. Then, the subjects were asked to recount what they had understood. Next, the target abstract words, the same 25 for both groups, were written on the board and learners were asked if they could guess their meanings. The texts were read aloud once more. This time, while reading, explanations and/or synonyms and Persian equivalents for each abstract word were given orally and on the board. Subjects listened, looked and jotted down the explanatory information the teacher provided. At the end of the second reading of the texts, subjects read the texts silently and reviewed the words and their meanings for 5 min. After the silent study, the texts were collected and the participants, who showed very positive reactions to “systematic vocabulary teaching”, were given an MC achievement test of
vocabulary for the words taught in that session. The vocabulary teaching period lasted about 30 min for the experimental group, and about 25 min for the control group and 25 min were allowed for the test.

In the second session, the students in each group were given the first cloze test to assess their retention of the abstract words taught in the previous session. Then, the text relevant to each group, "The Magic Pool" for the experimental group and "Bumps and Personalities" for the control group, was handed out to them. Among other things, the two texts included 22 of the target abstract words. The same instructional procedures described for the first session were followed in teaching the two texts and the abstract vocabulary therein. The second MC achievement test of vocabulary was administered to assess the immediate retention of the words that were taught that session.

In the third session, both groups were taught according to the plan of their course. Then, toward the end of the session, a cloze-test of vocabulary based on the abstract words taught in the previous session (second session) was given to them to assess their delayed retention.

5. Results

There were two treatment sessions of abstract vocabulary teaching for each group in which it was attempted to keep everything similar to the extent possible except the type of the passages. Four achievement tests were administered to compare the immediate and delayed recall of the target vocabulary by the two groups. Some descriptive and inferential statistics on the performance of the two groups in these tests are presented below.

Table 1 provides the means, standard deviations, the number of items, score ranges, and test-reliability statistics by Spearman-Brown prophecy formula for each test. According to this table, the narrative group scored 21.05 and 20.05 on average on the first and second immediate recall test, while the means obtained by the expository group are 11.55 and 10.20. As for delayed recall, the narrative group again outperformed the expository group by achieving means amounting to 19.05 and 19.10 versus 10.35 and 8.15 in the first and second delayed-recall tests, respectively.
Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for the Immediate and Delayed Abstract Vocabulary Achievement Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TESTS</th>
<th>NO. OF ITEMS</th>
<th>MEANS</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS</th>
<th>SCORE RANGES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nar.</td>
<td>expo</td>
<td>nar.</td>
<td>expo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21.05</td>
<td>11.55</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>immediate</td>
<td>recall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>second</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20.05</td>
<td>10.20</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>3.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>immediate</td>
<td>recall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>19.05</td>
<td>10.35</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delayed</td>
<td>recall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>second</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>19.10</td>
<td>8.15</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>4.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The striking differences which emerged for the test scores of the two groups were well beyond the expectations of the researchers and could be revealing enough without any further inspection. However, to provide statistical proof of their significance, independent samples t tests were run using SPSS with the criterion for rejection set at $p < 0.05$. To increase the clarity of presentation, the scores of the students in each group were pooled together, as if there had been one treatment session for each group with one immediate and one delayed-recall test. Table 2 below displays the results of these tests.

Table 2
The Results of the t Tests Run on the Pooled Scores Obtained by the Two Groups for the Immediate and Delayed Vocabulary Retention Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE of Mean</th>
<th>$t$ Value</th>
<th>$t$ Critical</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immediate recall tests</td>
<td>9.678</td>
<td>4.785</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td>12.789</td>
<td>2.021</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed recall tests</td>
<td>9.775</td>
<td>5.423</td>
<td>0.857</td>
<td>11.40</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 2, the $t$-observed value for the immediate-recall scores of the two groups was 12.789, which was greater than the critical value of 2.02 at 38 degrees of freedom. This proved the difference between the scores from the two groups statistically significant. The output of the $t$ test for the delayed-recall scores obtained by the two groups also included proof of the significance of the difference between the scores obtained by the two groups, with $t$-observed (11.40) being greater than $t$ critical (2.02) at 38 degrees of freedom. So, we can answer the two research questions in positive by saying that studying abstract words in narrative passages result in better retention than studying them in expository passages, both in intermediate and delayed recall conditions.

6. Discussion

The subjects in the experimental group, who studied abstract vocabulary in narrative texts, outperformed those in the control group in retaining the target abstract vocabulary both immediately following practice and after a one-week delay. The size of the differences between the mean scores of the two groups may cause surprise first. However, the results squarely fit the previous research and our practical intuition about the magical power of narrative and storied learning. A number of reasons are worth mentioning concerning this overwhelming superiority.

Considering the previous experience of these researchers and their observation of the participants' reactions during the experiment, a general interest in narrative writing on the part of learners seems to be a major factor which explains better learning gains including vocabulary attainments. Narrative writing holds much inherent charm and appeal prompting the students to read on to the end and quench their curiosity. It is true that we may have different degrees of appeal and suspense with different stories but remembering the level of enthusiasm and absorption of learners in the experimental group and the lukewarm reaction of those in the control group, we cannot help thinking of a strong general affective factor at work with the stories.

The cognitive basis of interest in narrative writing deserves in-depth study. However, based on our current knowledge, we can speculatively attribute this interest to the accord between the setup of the human mind and mental representations as well as the structure of narrative texts. The research of many researchers supports the presence of a story "cheat sheet", story grammar or neural map in human beings (e.g., Bruner, 1990; Pinker, 1997; Schank, 2002). Certainly, such mental structure has
significant consequences for interest, attention and processing, which in turn lead to enhanced memory for vocabulary, among other things.

Continuing the mind-text compatibility argument, mention should be made of the role of episodic memory, which deals with subjective experiences and facts that have personal connections for the individual. Stories bring about direct relevance and a framework for better retention. As Nath (2004) remarks, when we receive a story, we sympathize with the protagonist and emotionally engage in the story conflicts because we fantasize ourselves as the hero of the story. At the end of the story it feels as though we experienced and lived the events in the story personally; thus, we can retain and retrieve the story and the related detail for a long time.

Apart from the cognitive consequences of using narrative texts in language teaching, there is a linguistic side to narratives, in that, they provide rich and meaningful contexts with much circumstantial evidence and many clues which lead to more comprehensible input. It seems expository writings, which typically enjoy more lexical density, can hardly compete with their narrative counterparts.

Another likely source of help to memory for words embedded in narrative writings is their potential to arouse rich imagery in the receivers’ minds. Narratives present information in ways based on which human minds can easily create pictures. The narrative nature of the stories and the vivid descriptions they provide the readers or hearers with enable them to form mental pictures for the story scenes. Since the information stories convey is coded and stored in both verbal and non-verbal memory systems, according to Paivio’s dual coding theory (2006), it can be retained longer and recalled better. This can be another reason why the abstract words targeted in this experiment were learned and recalled better when embedded in narrative texts with the power to induce visual thinking.

In the same way that narratives induce images, they might induce imagined movements to different degrees, depending on how action-based they are. The imagined movements help learners form more memory connections and nodes for the information conveyed and therefore offer better chances of retention and recall. This argument is in line with the “trace theory” and the principle of psychomotor associations of learning in which it is claimed that memory is enhanced if stimulated, or “traced,” through association with motor activity. In fact, Asher’s (2003) main justification for TPR as a technique is that it stimulates right-brain motor skill activity. Moreover, there has been a long-standing recognition of the role of drama in the language classroom (Maley & Duff, 1982). It does not seem outlandish
to say that stories can serve as simulators of dramatic action. Nor can it be fortuitous that the pedagogical application of drama and narrative come together in Ray and Seely’s (2003) Total Physical Response Storytelling.

Finally, we should refer to the notion of depth of processing proposed by Craik and Lockhart (1972). In fact, all the afore-mentioned pieces of support narrative orientation, accessibility, image and movement induction. boil down to this umbrella idea, which determines the durability of memory traces, according to its exponents. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001), for example, refer to depth of processing as the chance of new information being stored into long-term memory and point out that retention of new information depends on the amount and the quality of attention that learners pay to various aspects of words.

7. Conclusion

The present study attempted to investigate the effect of narrativity on the immediate and delayed retention of abstract words. The subjects who attempted learning abstract words through short stories performed better in the immediate and delayed achievement tests of vocabulary than those who tried to learn them in expository writings. Based on these clear-cut findings, it can be concluded that using narrative language is an effective strategy in teaching abstract vocabulary and, by extrapolation, other elements of a foreign language and stories deserve a high place in language teaching programs. The findings of this study add to the results from cognitive scientists and psychologists who have confirmed that human minds are predisposed to stories and narrative structure. Narrative texts, particularly stories, because of their relationship to the thought processes of the human mind, hold a unique effectiveness and power and enjoy true pedagogical value.

Although this study deals with the relative instructional value of narrative texts in the explicit learning of abstract vocabulary, narrativity additionally promises to be a significant element in incidental/implicit vocabulary learning and extensive free reading, a point readily backed by experienced teachers but worth more systematic empirical verification. Moreover, the cognitive benefits of narratives can be supplemented by their practicality, availability, and flexibility offered by storied teaching. Yet, the many promises of narrativity call for empirical evidence. Even extolling the use of narrative texts in teaching abstract words may be judging without sufficient positive proof because this study was carried out with two small groups of all-female learners and only one repetition of the experiment. The study can
also be followed up with more specific studies of differential consequences of narrativity for retention of different types of abstract words, e.g., divisions based on parts of speech, or with a more fine-tuned and polished definitions of narrativity specifying types of narrative texts.

References


APPENDIX A

An excerpt from “The Magic Pool”, studied by the Narrative Group in the second session

He jumped into the water with self-confidence, and once again became the handsome young man he had once been. He gazed happily at his reflection in the small pool when the princess returned with food in her hands, the king signaled his presence smilingly by calling her name.

An excerpt from “Bumps and Personalities”, studied by the Non-Narrative Group in the second session

Some people believe in features as the shape of the head, the length and thickness of the neck, the color and thickness of the hair, and the shape of the nose, mouth, eyes, and chin. They believe that round-faced people are self-confident. Prominent cheekbones show strength of character, while a pointed nose shows curiosity. Heavy, arched eyebrows belong to a decisive individual, while thin, arched eyebrows signal a restless and active personality. Almond-shaped eyes reveal an artistic nature. Round, soft eyes belong to dreamers. Down-turned lips reveal a proud character, while a long, pointed chin indicates someone who likes to give orders.

APPENDIX B:
THE LIST OF THE ABSTRACT WORDS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WORDS STUDIED IN THE 1ST SESSION</th>
<th>WORDS STUDIED IN THE 2ND SESSION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Precisely (adv)</td>
<td>1 Fond (adj)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Reach (v)</td>
<td>2 Trait (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Argument (n)</td>
<td>3 Arrogant (adj)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Disorder (n)</td>
<td>4 Assert (v)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Exceptionally (adv)</td>
<td>5 Sternly (adv)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Separate (v)</td>
<td>6 Ridicule (v)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Deviate (v)</td>
<td>7 Decisive (adj)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Confused (adj)</td>
</tr>
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<td>---</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Queer (adj)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Requisite (adj)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Scarety (adv)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Secure (adj)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Uneventful (adj)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Upset (v)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Dull (v)</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Presence (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Persuade (v)</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Astonished (adj)</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>Neglect (v)</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Attract (v)</td>
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<td>Suggest (v)</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>Occur (v)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Exactly (adv)</td>
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