IMPACT OF DIFFERENT VOCABULARY TEACHING ON VOCABULARY GAIN

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INTEGRATED VOCABUARY TEACHING ON PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY USE

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ABSTRACT

INTEGRATED VOCABULARY TEACHING ON PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY USE

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The purpose of this study is to investigate if there is a significance between different vocabulary instruction types in terms of their effect on vocabulary gain at B1 level students at Foreign Language Preparatory Class in Izmir, Turkey. From this perspective, the main scope of the study is to find which group had more effective outcomes among three different instruction types: i) explicit, ii) implicit, and iii) traditional teaching. Sixty students participated in this study. The quantitative data were obtained through VKS and computed by Kurtis-Wallis Test. The findings of the study revealed that explicit teaching method proved to be more effective in terms of vocabulary gain. However, there were no significant differences observed among the groups regarding sentence production.
Keywords: Vocabulary, Vocabulary Teaching

ÖZ

ÇEŞİTLİ KELİME ÖĞRETİMİ YÖNTEMLERİ İLE ÜRETKEN KELİME KULLANIMI
AKSEL ALTINDAĞ, Zeynep

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Bu çalışmanın amacı çeşitli kelime öğretim yöntemleri ile kelime kazanımı arasındaki ilişkiyi değerlendirmektir. Bu çalışma, İzmir'de bulunan bir üniversitenin Yabancı Dil Hazırlık Sınıfının B1 kurunda okumakta olan öğrenciler ile yapılmıştır. Çalışma, temel olarak, açık, örtük ve geleneksel kelime öğretim yöntemlerini üç farklı grup olarak karşılaştırarak, hangi grubun daha etkili kelime edindiğini bulmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bunun yanı sıra, öğretilen kelimelerin cümle içinde nasıl kullanıldıklarını, VKS ve öğrenciler tarafından yazılan metinlere göre inceleyip, edinilen sonuçlara göre hangi grubun kelimeleri daha derinlemesine kullandığını analiz etmektedir. Bu çalışmaya atmış öğrenci katılmıştır. Nicel veriler, VKS'lere göre toplanıp, analiz edilmiştir.

Çalışmanın bulguları, açık kelime öğretim yönteminin daha etkili olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Fakat öğrenilen kelimeleri kullanım açısından gruplar arasında önemli farklılıklara rastlanılmamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kelime, Kelime Öğretimi

To My Husband and Family

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Introduction

1.1 Overview

Being one of the major aspects of second language learning, vocabulary learning has been a major issue concerning second language learning. To start with, a brief definition of what word is should be clarified. According to Cambridge International Dictionary of English, "word" is "a single unit of language which has meaning and can be spoken or written" (1995, 1678). A *word* is also defined as the basic unit of language use or "a single distinct meaningful element of speech or writing, used to form sentences with the others" (Concise Oxford Dictionary, 2008, 1660-1661). Secondly, since words are inseparable parts of vocabulary, we also need to define vocabulary; which is the total number of words a person or people know in a language. Vocabulary is defined as the "body of words used in particular language or in a particular sphere of activity" (Concise Oxford English Dictionary, 2008, 1617). Cambridge Dictionary defines vocabulary as "all the words used by a particular person or all the words which exist in a particular language or subject". There have been many definitions made what word or vocabulary is however, there is still a paradox related to the concepts of word and vocabulary, although the notion of what word is not new to the literature.

Vocabulary is a significant component of language and language learning. Without adequate vocabulary, having effective communication might not be possible. Learning vocabulary is a challenge for most of the L2 learners and learners need to acquire large amounts of vocabulary to be effective communicators (Zimmerman, 2009). Having limited vocabulary is also a barrier that hinders students from learning a foreign language (Zigong, 2000). Zimmerman (as cited in Eyraud, Giles, Koenig, & Stoller, 2000) annotates vocabulary is central to language and of critical importance to typical language learners. According to Gupta and MacWhinney (1997), learning new words is an essential process in human development and extensive recent research have paid attention to the importance of vocabulary acquisition in foreign languages. (e.g., Daulton, 1998; Gardner, 2004; Lawson & Hogben, 1996, 1998; Zahar, Cobb& Spada, 2001).

Learning any specific word is a cumulative process. It is cumulative since a high range of words are intensified with a series of other words. Immense research has been

conducted through the effectiveness of the strategies applied in vocabulary learning. However, how second language learners acquire new words has not been fully comprehended yet. Many researchers state that vocabulary learning is a vital part of students' lives and the importance of vocabulary acquisition in language has a major role in their academic achievement. Vocabulary learning is considered to be the initial stage of language learning. The significance of vocabulary cannot be over emphasized. Schneider, Healy and Bourne (2002) point out three aspects of vocabulary acquisition. The first one is a learner's ability to produce or write unknown words from L2. Secondly, a learner should be able to make a distinction between the unknown words of L2 and thirdly, a learner should be able to make new associations between L1 and L2 equivalents. According to Zimmerman (2009), vocabulary is crucial to language and it carries critical importance. Many notable researchers defined vocabulary and its importance in many studies. Wilkin (1972) emphasizes the importance of vocabulary as "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (p. 111). Since vocabulary learning is an indispensable part of language learning, understanding how vocabulary is learnt is a fundamental area of research. Thus, vocabulary learning has always created huge interest among researchers. Although vocabulary is known to be one of the most important subjects in language learning and teaching, it a surprising fact that the area of vocabulary teaching has been neglected.

Another important aspect of vocabulary learning is how vocabulary is taught. Since each learner is unique and everyone has a different learning style, it is not possible to set one way of vocabulary teaching. The huge importance of vocabulary instruction cannot be neglected. Therefore, vocabulary instruction should be enriched by various types of vocabulary instruction. The efficacy and use of vocabulary learning strategies are some of the factors that affect the success of vocabulary in acquisition in second language learning (Zhihong, 2000, cited by Subekti & Lawson, 2007:485). When teaching vocabulary, many aspects of a word (such as, meaning, form and use) should be taken into consideration. As posited by many researchers (Thu, 2009; Thornbury, 2006; Graves, August, & Mancilla-Martinez, 2012), there are numerous ways to teach vocabulary. Sentence completion, semantic analysis, completing lexical sets, writing word family tables, teaching collocations, translation and sentence production are amongst highly used strategies when teaching vocabulary. However, as stated before, there is still a gap in how to teach vocabulary effectively.

To date, the researchers have intended to express the importance of vocabulary acquisition for second language acquisition. Thus and so, how vocabulary is learnt attracts more and more attention of the educators that it has been the subject of great deal of research. Schmitt (2008) notes that vocabulary is a remarkable part for language mastery. Likewise, Knight (1994) argues that how words are acquired is considered to be the most significant aspect of second language acquisition. Previously, countless studies have been conducted regarding vocabulary learning (Keen, 1985; Wallace, 1982; Nation, 1990; Clark, 1993; Coady et. al., 1993; Schmitt, 2000). Still, acquisition of vocabulary draws huge attention of the scholars. Recent studies are conducted on various approaches of vocabulary acquisition, for instance, vocabulary acquisition through tasks (Nunan, 1989), vocabulary acquisition through reading activities (Gu & Johnson, 1996), vocabulary acquisition through teaching strategies (Krashen & Cho, 1994; Nation, 1990).

Even though the subject of vocabulary acquisition has long been among the interest of scholars, there is still little known about vocabulary acquisition in terms of different vocabulary strategies. Broadly defined, greater number of studies of vocabulary include the strategies to teach vocabulary, but there is not sufficient evidence on which strategy is the most effective among second language learners.

With the increase in number to the demand of learning English, many higher education institutions are opening new preparatory classes in Turkey. However, given that still there is not much research conducted in the area of second language learning in Turkey. Also, many developmental studies mentioned above proved that there is still a gap in how vocabulary is gained among second language learners. When literature is reviewed in terms of vocabulary gain, the importance of vocabulary instruction type has a major role. However, there is no definite conclusion to which instruction type is more effective. Therefore, the scope of this study is to investigate if there is a significant difference between vocabulary instructions in terms of their effect on student learning. By these means, the findings of this study may be signifying for other universities and language educators in understanding the differences among vocabulary instructions.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Learning vocabulary is a crucial part of second language learning. Zimmerman (2009) denotes that most of the L2 learners find learning vocabulary challenging and in order to be considered as an effective communicator, learners need to acquire large amounts of vocabulary. Therefore, vocabulary is paramount and of critical importance. However, there is limited number of studies that investigates the differences among vocabulary teaching instructions in Turkish context. As there is not sufficient research with regard to this field, there is a gap to conduct extensive research on vocabulary teaching strategies.

To that end, the study aims to investigate if there are any significant differences between vocabulary instructions in terms of their effect on student learning by using implicit, explicit and traditional teaching methods.

1.3 Purpose

The purpose of this study is to investigate if there is a significant difference between vocabulary instructions in terms of their effect on student learning at Foreign Language Preparatory Class in Izmir, Turkey. From this perspective, the main scope of the study is to find which group had more effective outcomes among three different instruction types: i) explicit, ii) implicit, and iii) traditional teaching.

1.4 Hypotheses/ Research questions

This thesis aims to find the relationship between vocabulary instruction type and vocabulary gain in second language learning among B1 level students. There are not many research that explores under which instruction type second language learners gain vocabulary more effectively. More specifically stated, few studies have focused on the effect of the instruction type in terms of vocabulary gain. More importantly, in the Turkish context there is little research conducted into exploring the impact of instruction types and vocabulary gain. As a result, this thesis not only underlines the importance of the type of instruction type in vocabulary teaching but also provides deeper understanding of vocabulary with regard to sentence production among B1 level students at a foundation university. To this end, two research questions addressed for this study. Moreover, for each research question, the researcher has identified some hypothesis.

1.4.1 Research question 1. *Is there a significant relationship between vocabulary instruction type and vocabulary gain?*

The first research question addresses the vocabulary instruction type and its notable connection to the vocabulary gain. The vocabulary instruction intended are explicit and implicit instruction and traditional teaching. The main scope is to find how students gain vocabulary more effectively with the use of three different types of instructions. However, it always seems to me that the most productive way of teaching vocabulary is teaching explicitly. As a result of this, the following is hypothesized in connection with the first research question:

1) At the end of the study, the students who had explicit instruction in vocabulary learning will have better vocabulary gain.

1.4.2 Research question 2. *Are there significant differences between students' vocabulary gains in the experimental groups and those in the control group?*

RQ 2 explores the distinctions among the control and experimental groups regarding overall vocabulary gain at the end of the study. This question might give insight into the result of the study by comparing the groups and their instruction types. Therefore, the results of this study will be hypothesized as follows:

1. The experimental group 1 will have greater vocabulary gains
2. The experimental group 1 will perform better in the post-test.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The study contributes to the existing literature in various dimensions since it evaluates the significant differences between vocabulary instructions in terms of their effect on student learning. First, the conclusions drawn from the study will be meaningful not only to the language teachers also, it might give insight to learners in understanding how Turkish learners gain vocabulary on the grounds that three different types of instruction are used. Second, the study will contribute to my teaching practices to gain new insights into how to teach vocabulary effectively. Third, it will provide perceptive knowledge about how language educators may benefit from such instructions. Finally, there is not satisfactory research on differences among vocabulary teaching instructions and vocabulary gain in Turkish context. Therefore, this study may contribute to the existing literature of ELT.

1.6 Overview of Methodology

This part provides an outline of methodology giving brief information on research design, participants, setting, data collection instruments, and data analysis.

1.6.1 Research design. The research design of the study is quantitative research design since the analysis is based on both quantitative data to investigate if there is a significant difference between vocabulary instructions in terms of their effect on student learning at Foreign Language Preparatory Class in Izmir, Turkey. The primary design of the research is quantitative as it analyzes the findings based on Kruskall-Wallis Test.

1.6.2 Participants. Each group has participants, so the total number of the participants is 60.

1.6.3 Setting. The study was conducted at the Foreign Language Preparatory Class, a foundation (non-profit private) university in Izmir, Turkey.

1.6.4 Data collection instruments. This thesis is quantitative in nature. The main method used for quantitative data was analyzing the findings gathered from Vocabulary Knowledge Scale Test (VKS) through Kruskall- Wallis Test.

1.6.5 Data analysis. The present study has its grounds on two research questions. For the first research question, the data were gathered through VKS, involving pretest and posttest and analyzed in Kruskall-Wallis Test. For the second question investigates the distinctions among the control and experimental groups regarding overall vocabulary gain at the end of the study, data were collected through the categories defined in VKS.

1.6 Operational definitions of terms

In this part, the terms used throughout the study is briefly defined in order to ensure consistency.

Kruskall- Wallis Test: It is a statistical procedure used to determine whether there are any significant differences among the means

Explicit: Explicit learning is conscious and active learning process where the learners are taught directly.

Implicit: "Implicit learning is acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operations "(Ellis, 1994, p.148).

L1: The primary language of a person that is spoken at home (Clark, 2009)

L2: The secondary language of a person (Paradis, 2005). In the case of this study, L2 is English.

Method: "A method is theoretically related to an approach, is organizationally determined by a design, and is practically realized in procedure" (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p .16).

Targeted Words: The words which are subjected to a gloss during an investigation. Targeted words are generally tested at the end of an experiment to assess lexical knowledge (Yoshii, 2006).

Teaching vocabulary: It is to provide multiple exposures towards a word's meaning.

Vocabulary knowledge: "Vocabulary knowledge is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world" (Stahl, 2005).

Traditional Teaching: For this study, the term traditional teaching is used as the combination of implicit and explicit instruction through the sole use of course book.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The literature review of this study provides background information on the importance of vocabulary knowledge and different perspectives on vocabulary teaching. The relation between reading comprehension and vocabulary learning and the relation between sentence writing and vocabulary learning are touched upon. Also, approaches on vocabulary teaching strategies: implicit and explicit instruction are reviewed. Finally, the terms breadth and depth of knowledge in terms of lexical knowledge are addressed.

2.2 The Importance of Vocabulary Knowledge

Numerous studies have been conducted to prove the importance of vocabulary in second language acquisition since vocabulary knowledge stands as a major aspect of language learning (Nation, 2001; Laufer, 1991; Lewis, 2002, Read, 1993). During the past decades, researchers have advocated the significance of vocabulary acquisition for language learners (Laufer, 1986; Nation, 2013; Richards, 1976). In one of his studies Meara (1982) noted that after learners went through the initial stages of acquiring their second language, acquisition of vocabulary stands as a remarkable problem for the majority of learners. Thus, vocabulary knowledge concludes the degree to which the learner has commands over a language. Krashen (1989) states that high consideration should be given to vocabulary for several reasons. First of all, according to Krashen vocabulary is an indicator of language ability and secondly, in order to be competent in a foreign language, abundance of words is required. The level of language is highly dependent on vocabulary knowledge. Moreover, Nation (1998) remarks learning vocabulary as an essential process of processing learner's knowledge. Lewis (2002) argued that acquiring a sufficient large vocabulary is the most significant task that language learners face. Learning vocabulary is not instantaneous, it is an ongoing process which requires time and practice. Vocabulary acquisition cannot result in solely by memorizing. Nakata (2006) points that efficient vocabulary learning involves continuous repetition. Therefore, it is possible to say that vocabulary acquisition depends upon continuous efforts so that the learners can retain high frequency words. According to Nation (2005) learning vocabulary has two foci: low frequency and high frequency words. He designates high frequency words as

words that appear highly in the language, such as a, the, man and it etc. However, low frequency words as defined by Nation (2005), are words that occur more in academic studies not frequent in daily speech, such as perpetuity, pastoral, aired. Learning high frequency words helps to provide coverage of the majority of the given text (Nation, 1993). According to Nation (1993), teaching 1,000 high frequency words result in coverage of nearly 75% of the words on a page. However, teaching 1,000 low frequency words only covers .30% of the words on a page. Therefore, teaching or learning high frequency words might bring more effective outcomes in terms comprehension and acquisition. Also supported by Laufer (1989, 1992), learners with 95% coverage of the words in a text have better comprehension than those with a limited size of vocabulary knowledge.

Another important aspect of vocabulary is due to communicative purposes. Without vocabulary knowledge it is impossible to communicate. Also, if a learners does not understand the vocabulary of what he is reading, they may not be able comprehend the text fully. According to Nation (1993), good vocabulary knowledge leads to good comprehension. As a result, vocabulary learning has been one of the top priorities of language learners.

Given that vocabulary learning might enable good comprehension, learning vocabulary might not be solely beneficial for reading. Along with meaning, knowing the pronunciation of words is crucial. According to Rosenthal (2008), teachers should involve pronunciation of words so that the leaners can entice the words and not having to consider decoding closely. Learners with larger knowledge of vocabulary might perform better in various skills such as listening and reading.

The general assumption regarding vocabulary is that vocabulary acquisition is incremental and it is not possible gain mastery of word knowledge at once. Mokhtar, Rawain, Yahaya, Monsar and Mohammed (2010) notes that "vocabulary knowledge is not something that can be fully mastered; it is something that expands and deepens over the course of a lifetime "(p.72). In learning a foreign language, vocabulary is considered to be the most vital part. To master a language, vocabulary learning is among the first steps. The importance of vocabulary cannot be overemphasized. For the students who have found learning English challenging, vocabulary has been a major obstacle. Some students have difficulty in learning the meanings and some are not capable of using the words in written or oral production regardless of the fact that they know the meaning of the word. As Nation (2001) pointed out, many aspects are

involved in knowing a word. Knowing the definition of word may suffice for reading yet it may not be adequate for providing authentic sentences.

In summary, people have been learning second languages for two thousand years, hence various approaches on vocabulary have been formed (Zhang, 2011). According to Schmitt (2000), vocabulary has been given high importance in teaching methodologies and sometimes it has been neglected for all the reasons mentioned above.

2.3 Different Perspectives on Vocabulary Teaching: What to Teach?

How vocabulary is learned has never been fully discovered by the researchers. As a result, it might be possible to state that learning vocabulary has never been easy for the second language learners. There are many teaching techniques applied in the classroom to teach vocabulary. However, it is not probable to state that one technique or teaching style supersedes the other. Since an important area as vocabulary teaching has never fully been investigated, this area has always drawn the attention of researchers. Seal (1991) mentions the reasons for growing interest in vocabulary as(a) the notion that second language learners develop their own internal grammar deemphasized the traditional teaching of structure; (b) changes toward communicative methodologies; and (c) the perceived needs of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) students' elevating the importance of vocabulary learning.

What vocabulary to teach has been a major concern of many teachers. Determining a course book and relevant syllabus are among these concerns. Without certain objectives, it becomes difficult to select target vocabulary to be taught and explain learners why they must learn some specific words (McCarthy, 1990). One of the aspects agreed in the literature is to teach vocabulary according to their frequency. Since frequency affects usefulness of the learned language, it might be more sensible to teach high-frequency words. Nation (2013) indicates that while teaching vocabulary if encountered with a low frequency word, and the word is not useful for the learners, it should be handled as quickly as possible. However, what defines frequency has become a controversial issue and several researchers have different views with regard to teaching in parallel to frequency. Richards and Schmidt (2013) and Sinclair and Renouf (1991) point out that the most frequent words might not be necessary to teach since they might not project usefulness. Research also indicated that rather than frequency, range should be considered while teaching vocabulary.

Another important factor in defining what vocabulary to teach is specific needs of the learners. Due to motivational factors, learners tend to show more interest in their fields. Therefore, this might create a challenge for the teacher and for the students, especially, in finding a common area of interest while teaching and learning. In many foundation classes in Turkey, it is not possible to separate students in Preparatory Class according to their departments for their future education. As a result, drawing attention of the students to the diverse topics and words integrated in the course book has become a challenge. Furthermore, Nation (2001) mentions that "we may know vocabulary, but, because the opportunity and wish to use a particular word does not arise, that word remains as part of our unmotivated vocabulary" (p.182). His words might suggest a sensible approach why some students develop their knowledge of vocabulary rapidly than others. According to Nation (2013), effective vocabulary teaching is related to deciding what word requires to be taught and he further names it the learning burden of a word. He concludes that the learning burden is considered what is involved in knowing a word. What aspects a learner might find difficult to learn while learning vocabulary can give insight to the teacher to what and how to teach when introducing new vocabulary. As stated in the introduction part before, meaning, form and use are the major aspects to be handled while teaching vocabulary.

In short, choosing the vocabulary to be taught may seem to remain as a challenge for language educators. According to Maiguashca (1993), the lexical aspect in language teaching and learning has gone through noticeable shift in terms of importance. What kind of vocabulary to teach and how to teach it still remains a controversial issue.

2.4 The Relation between Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary Learning

For many years, the role and significance of reading in L2 vocabulary learning have been a critical topic by many researchers due to the richness and variety of vocabulary in written texts opposed to oral discourse (Horst, 2005; Nation, 2001). The general consensus in second language vocabulary learning is through reading. In many studies, vocabulary knowledge is seen as the predictor of reading ability (Moghadam, Zainal & Ghaderpour, 2012; Nation, 2001; Read, 2000). Vocabulary knowledge is crucial to reading comprehension as it acts as a background knowledge in reading comprehension. A student's vocabulary knowledge affects reading comprehension directly. Some researchers support this idea by stating that in reading, the amount of known and unknown words have a significant impact (Hseoh- Chao & Nation, 2000;

Schmitt, 2000). Inadequate vocabulary size of word meanings affect comprehension by hindering learners' comprehension of a text. According to Krashen (1989), reading is comprehensible input and it provides the learner with opportunity to comprehend the language and develop more vocabulary. Therefore, it is significant to explore how reading facilitates L2 learners in terms of vocabulary learning. Acquiring word meaning through reading is an interesting issue since reading is a common procedure for vocabulary acquisition, mostly due to the necessity in the everyday life of all students (Subekti & Lawson, 2007). Even though there has been limited research on the vocabulary acquisition strategies used by L2 learners during reading, research on the extent of vocabulary acquisition during reading is immense (Warring & Takaki, 2003). Many theorists and researchers have stated that vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension are closely interrelated, and various studies have shown the relation between the two (Ehri, Nunes, Willows, Schuster, Yaghoub-Zadeh, & Shanahan, 2001; Nash & Snowling, 2006; O'Connor, 2007; Padak, 2006; Tam, Heward & Heng, 2006). Moreover, the difficulty that L2 learners encounter regarding comprehension while reading might be related to the lack of vocabulary knowledge. The connection between vocabulary and comprehension has been supported in numerous studies. It was almost three decades ago that the researchers emphasized the gap in L2 learners' comprehension might be related to vocabulary development (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Carlo, August, McLaughlin, Snow, Dressler & Lippman, et al., 2004; Nash, & Snowling, 2006; Tam, Heward & Heng, 2006). Therefore, one might assume that the learners may not have full apprehension of comprehension, and this led many researchers to investigate if this issue was related to vocabulary difficulties. According to Nash and Snowling (2006), the gap between comprehension and vocabulary resulted from lack of vocabulary knowledge. A vast majority of researchers agree upon the fact that vocabulary knowledge is an influential factor of reading comprehension and academic success (Baumann & Kame'enui, 2004; Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Rasinski, Padak, Newton, &Newton, 2008; O'Connor, 2007; Share, 2004). Baumann (2002, p. 155), mentions that the relation between reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge is referred to as "*instrumentalist hypothesis*, which claims that vocabulary knowledge is directly and importantly in the causal chain resulting in text comprehension." Therefore, vocabulary knowledge is the key component of reading comprehension. Comprehension serves as a purpose of reading and one of the most fundamental scope of comprehension is vocabulary

development. O'Connor (2007) argues that reading comprehension depends not only on the reading ability but also understanding of the meanings of words.

Also, while reading a text, the students are also seeing the words in a context. Biemiller and Boote (2006) note that giving the word meaning in a context is more effective compared to presenting words without a context. Giving the words in a context could create a deeper understanding of the vocabulary. When presenting vocabulary for the first time, one of the priorities given should be on contextualization. According to Graves (2006), one of the strategies used whilst teaching vocabulary is utilizing context. Krashen (1989) and Sternberg (1987) conclude that as much as reading has a remarkable value on vocabulary acquisition, the importance of context should not be disregarded. Carter (1987) supported this notion by noting that especially advanced learners can benefit more from learning words in context. Seen as one of the highly recognized strategies by researchers, use of context, might assist language learners acquire vocabulary. Although supported by many scholars, there are contradictory commentators regarding the use of context for vocabulary acquisition (Nation & Coady, 1988).

Other studies also suggested that reading proficiency in L2 could result in increased proficiency in vocabulary (Coady, Magoto, Hubbard, Graney and Mokhtari, 1993). Therefore, there is a strong connection between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension.

2.5 The Relation Between Sentence Writing and Vocabulary Learning

One can assume that writing has been a remarkable part of education since ancient times. However, since the beginning of 1970s, writing was used majorly to show that students had learned and was not considered completely as a learning tool in education. In 1970s, researchers began to examine the impact of writing on learning (Britton, 1972; Emig, 1977). Since 1970s, other developmental studies have been conducted on the relation between writing and learning. In the mid-1970s, researchers began to consider writing as an effective area of content learning such as James Britton and Janet Emig. The studies upon writing has been conducted almost recently, since the 1980s (Polio, 2003). However, back then the studies on writing mostly concentrated on the production of comprehensible products rather than language learning.

It is a well-known fact that the effect of writing in vocabulary learning is a complex process. However, there have been some studies that show that even writing

might produce positive learning results in terms of vocabulary learning (Tynjala, 2001). Vocabulary is a fundamental component of language and writing in a second language is laborious without sufficient vocabulary. Thus, most of the second language learners are attentive towards developing their scope of vocabulary in order to be better writers and users of the language. This advocates a bi-directional relationship between vocabulary and writing (Dikilitaş & Bush, 2014). Writing is a multi-faceted activity that helps in the development of cognitive abilities as well as the understanding and memorization of content knowledge (Bazeman, Simon, & Pieng, 2014). Notable number of studies have mentioned the positive impact of compositional writing on vocabulary learning. Muncie (2002) asserted that L2 writing in certain contexts can be seen as a tool for general language improvement, and it could be especially gainful for vocabulary development. The reasons for this might be due to the time allocated to writing since while writing students have more time to produce compared to speaking. According to Hulstijn and Laufer (2001), since writing requires deeper processing than other forms of practice, it might help vocabulary acquisition. Furthermore, during writing, learners can make use of resources such as the Internet, dictionaries and peer reviews. Corson (1997) states that this might assist students to activate less frequent but more relevant words which might be in their passive vocabulary but not yet fully part of their active vocabulary. By contrasting active and passive vocabulary, Corson (1997) further mentions that full vocabulary learning has not taken place until the words are available for active use and if students are not capable of experimenting with low-frequency, academic words in writing, they will not be able to learn the rules for proper use of such words. Coomber et al. (1986) identified three factors which may be reasons for positive impact of writing on vocabulary learning; a) the use of words in meaningful contexts, b) the students' utilization of their higher level cognitive functions, and c) slow nature of writing that increases time for elaboration on lexical knowledge. Research on writing in a second language focuses mostly on the development of the ability to produce acceptable written output, not necessarily on the impact of writing on language learning in general. However, research related to the impact of writing in other linguistic competencies, such as vocabulary, is expanding (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Frodesen & Holten, 2003).

Recent studies agree that deeper engagement with new vocabulary is necessary. Therefore, writing might be considered as one of the key elements of vocabulary learning since it allows more engagement at a deeper level in terms of production.

Since writing requires long term engagement, it might be possible for learners to store new words in their long term memories. While writing, learners may create semantic networks and store the words by making associations and connections between novice inputs and combine the new input with their former knowledge thus this leads to store new vocabulary or information in their long-term memory (Schneider, Healy & Bourne, 2002).

Also, sentence production is an integral part of the writing process. In relation with the studies mentioned, by producing sentences, the learners might be able to improve their vocabulary. Coomber, Ramstad and Sheets (1986) note that there are factors that affect the efficacy of writing in vocabulary learning. The first factor is using the words in meaningful contexts. The second is related to the higher level cognitive functions of students' utilization and the last one is in relevance with the slow process of writing which allows more elaboration on the lexicality of the production of sentences. Producing sentences is seen amongst the most efficient ways of learning target vocabulary since it increases vocabulary learning and learners are able to memorize target words while constructing sentences. Thus, sentence production leads to elaboration and elaboration might result in better retention.

Writing a new word in a sentence requires semantic elaboration as well as output. According to Barcroft (2004), since learners need to retrieve the meaning of a word so as to use it in a sentence, it includes semantic elaboration. He further states that as writing a sentence is naturally a production process, it involves output. Barcroft (2004) points out that semantic elaboration facilitates learning while Laufer (1997) outlines that the type of output facilitate learning. However, there is no firm conclusion regarding elaboration or output affect learning positively or negatively. Barcroft (2004) defines semantic elaboration as a situation where a learner's processing resources are directed semantically. Familiar words which are already acquired and unfamiliar words which are not acquired, yet have access to their meanings can be given as examples of semantic elaboration. Since a learner needs to figure out semantic properties of the word to write it appropriately in a sentence, sentence production involves semantic elaboration. One of the other positive aspects of elaboration is its contribution to the memory. Previous studies posit that semantic elaboration positively affects memory for known words (Hyde & Jenkins, 1969; Bower & Reitman, 1972; Ross, 1981). As sentence production involves semantic elaboration and elaboration involves deeper processing, it might not be wrong to say that deeper processing leads

to better memory and retention of words. Therefore, it may affect vocabulary learning.

In one of his studies Barcroft (2005) makes two clear distinctions of output with access and output without access. Activation of lexical items and grammatical forms required to express specific meanings refers to the output with access (Van Patten, 2003). To the contrary, output without access includes language production where this kind of activation is not needed which is when a learner has no intention to convey a meaning by simply repeating something. Hence, learning vocabulary by writing sentences involve output with access. To write sentences, learners need to convey meanings. As stated before, conveying meanings involves output. In addition, they write sentences by processing syntax. Previous studies has resulted conclusions about the impacts of sentence writing. Laufer (1997) found out that writing target words in sentences was more efficient than alternative techniques. On the other hand, Barcroft (2000; 2002) results that sentence writing to produce has no effect since it can decrease the learner's ability to learn and this might be a depleting process. Taking these considerations into account, the comprehensive findings advocate that writing sentences to produce has complex results.

However, using new words while writing simple sentences requires prior skills. First of all, by reflecting on their past experiences, students need to create meaningful contexts. Secondly, use of target words in sentences means deeper level of processing. While writing a sentence with a new word, they need to retain more than the meaning of the word which involves cognitive process. As a result, the depth of the knowledge might also lead to acquisition of the words in to long-term memory. This would indicate that writing sentences could be highly beneficial for students as well as learning to use new vocabulary elaborately. A substantial body of research have confirmed the positive impact of writing in context in terms of vocabulary gain (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Sugawara, 1992)**.** According to Sugawara (1992), writing new words in context at least once can improve recalling those words receptively and productively. In addition, writing target words in sentences or in essays was proved to be more efficient than other techniques (Coomber, Ramstad & Sheets, 1986; Laufer, 1997). Laufer noted that since sentence production involves output, it could facilitate lexical learning. Similarly, Maftoon (2006) also reported that writing vocabulary in a sentence and using them in a context has more influential outcomes for language learners. Muncie (2002) supports the idea by adding that writing target words in context can enhance vocabulary development. Hence, writing might be seen as a more

efficient tool for vocabulary learning since it includes a production process. Baicheng (2009) denotes that when students write their own authentic sentences it creates more impact when compared to providing sentences by the teacher alone. From his words, one can suggest that writing sentences to learn new words has effect on vocabulary learning. Hall (1991) found out that using a newly learnt vocabulary in a personally created context leads to more efficient learning than sole repetition of the given word. Therefore, practicing vocabulary by creating sentences could result in greater learning since written production could also provide a chance to produce effective vocabulary use.

Furthermore, some developmental research resulted in affirmative relation between writing and vocabulary learning. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) stated that sentence writing and composition writing enhanced learning and retention of new words. However, Barcroft (2006) found that writing for vocabulary acquisition could have negative impacts on learners since it might have inhibitory effect on them.

In conclusion, even though writing has been recognized to function as a tool for learning vocabulary, one should note that vocabulary skills stand as a key point in constructing a text (Leki & Carson, 1994). Nonetheless, the link between writing and vocabulary acquisition is yet to be discovered and the impact of sentence writing regarding target words has limited research.

2.6 Approaches on Vocabulary Teaching and Strategies

Great number of studies have shown that various teaching techniques and classroom activities have an impact on the vocabulary learning. Nagy, Herman and Anderson (1985) state the significance of context in vocabulary learning from two different perspectives; a) what a word means in different occasions can be guessed from the context in which it is used and b) these contexts provide input of large amount of vocabulary that learners can pick up. Incidental learning has also been another important focus of learning vocabulary from the reading context. (e.g., Brown, Waring, & Donkaewbua, 2008; Webb, 2008). Nation and Meara (2002) define meaning- focused input as learning incidentally through listening and reading and further state that it refers to first language vocabulary learning. However, there needs to be a low unknown vocabulary load and large amount of input required for L2 learners to make such learning effective. Oxford (2003) states that L2 learning strategies are specific behaviors or thought processes that students use to enhance their own L2 learning. Processes might involve motivational, cognitive, metacognitive or

social activity. In one of their studies, Lawson and Hogben (1996) reported taxonomies of vocabulary learning strategies. They noted that the majority of the strategies used by foreign language learners involved repetition of the new words, consulting a dictionary and adding the new words to a personal word list. Ehrman and Oxford (1990) defined learners' strategies as cognitive, meta-cognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social. Since reading comprehension is a major part of language learning, in order to facilitate comprehension, vocabulary development is crucial and with effective instruction, L2 learners might be able to improve their vocabulary knowledge. Existing research related to vocabulary instruction comply with direct effect of reading comprehension of the text. Baumann (2004) also state that vocabulary instruction and reading comprehension are interrelated by adding "decades of research has consistently found a significant connection between vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension, and academic success" (p.8). However, the educational ramification of vocabulary instruction is still subjected to discovery and backed by research.

According to Shostak (2001), effective vocabulary instruction should involve three principles: i) the definition and concept, ii) deep processing of the words, and, iii) multiple exposures to the new vocabulary. One should know that giving relevant vocabulary instruction is not suffice without several exposures. Therefore, when teaching new words, it is important to create a learning environment where a learner may be exposed to the new words. Spada (2001) argues that word learning is incremental and it is difficult to measure the number of encounters new vocabulary necessitates, so while just one encounter with a word might provide learning to some extent, many encounters may still not lead to a native speaker's complex knowledge of the word. It might be possible to say that even multiple exposures to new words may not be enough to learn the new vocabulary. Nagy, Herman and Anderson (1985) advocated that vocabulary learning to be incremental. The fact that vocabulary learning is incremental could make vocabulary growth more challenging since single encounter with a word may not end up in learning. According to Ehri (2005) "if readers attempt to decode words, to analogize, or to predict words, their attention is shifted from the text to the words itself to identify it, and this disrupts comprehension, at least momentarily" (p.170). Therefore, unknown words in the text might greatly affect the learners' comprehension. Moreover, given the correct instruction, it might be possible for learners to store new vocabulary in their long term memories.

Creating a context together with the words and definitions might help learners understand new vocabulary. Since language learning includes the acquisition of abundance of words, how vocabulary learning fostered has created a huge interest among teachers, students and researchers. It is highly known that students learn vocabulary in various ways which means that each learner might have different approaches towards learning. Thus, learners might need diverse instructions and materials. According to Nation (1990; 2001), the most effective way to learn vocabulary is learners' use of vocabulary learning strategies independently from the teacher. While teaching, just simply giving the meaning of the unfamiliar word might suffice for reading yet it might not be conducive to produce sentences.

Although considerable amount of research on vocabulary acquisition is increasing, consensus is lacking on which strategy proves more efficient. General assumption of vocabulary teaching strategies has been a continuum for many researchers and the mechanics of how vocabulary is learnt remains a mystery. However, one assuring notion is that words are not acquired promptly by second language learners. It requires a period of time from numerous exposures (Schmitt, 2000). As to which strategy is more influent than the other is an unanswered question yet since each teaching strategy has proved their own efficacies. However, when relevant literature is reviewed, explicit and implicit teaching instruction are among the most common and effective strategies employed in vocabulary teaching.

2.6.1. Explicit vocabulary instruction. Research indicated that one of the most controversial issues related to L2 vocabulary learning is between implicit and explicit vocabulary instruction. The need for explicit instruction came into being in the beginning of the twentieth century. With the use of explicit instruction, learners may have the chance to learn new words directly and they may have opportunities to interact with the new words. Another aspect of explicit instruction in vocabulary teaching is its link to reading instruction. Swanborn and Glopper (2006) conclude that if the students are not taught vocabulary explicitly, they do not learn the new words simply by encountering in reading. If the learners are not given explicit instruction, they might face novice challenges during comprehension. Therefore, it is essential to teach vocabulary explicitly as students may not learn words incidentally. Several research reveal that there are some students who struggle to learn new words without being directly or explicitly taught (Baumann & Kame'enui, 2004; Beck & McKeown, 2007; Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Brett, Rothlein, & Hurley, 1996; Carlo, August,

McLaughlin, Snow, Dressler, & Lippman, et. al., 2004; Daniels, 2009; Ehri, & Rosenthal, 2008; Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, & Rivera, 2006; Graves, 2006). The fact that they encounter difficulty might hinder their comprehension process while reading since unknown words can inhibit them. However, by explicit instruction, it could be possible to overcome challenges that might be faced during reading. By teaching vocabulary explicitly, students can both improve their vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. Therefore, it might be possible to state that explicit instruction may not only affect vocabulary development but also influences reading competency. Furthermore, it is found that when received explicit vocabulary instruction, some learners improved their oral reading rate (Tam, Howard, & Heng, 2006).

The approach of explicit instruction has not been new to the literature. Along with explicit instruction, implicit instruction has also draw the attention of many educators. How both instructions affect students' knowledge has been investigated for a long time. Also, the process of transferring implicit knowledge into explicit knowledge has been studied by several researchers (e.g. Bialystok, 1994; Ellis, 1993). One of the main assumptions of these researchers is that L2 knowledge can be transferred to explicit knowledge. However, in one of his studies Ellis (1993) stated that explicit and implicit knowledge are both interchangeably transferable. According to Ellis (1993), explicit knowledge can transfer into implicit knowledge unless the learner is not ready to acquire linguistic forms of the language. Secondly, he further noted that explicit knowledge promotes an indirect process in which acquisition takes place implicitly. Finally, he suggested that explicit knowledge results in output production which enhances implicit learning as well. The assumption that explicit knowledge affects output production might have influence on performance. According to Krashen (1977), the learners can monitor themselves better as a result of explicit knowledge. From his point of view, it might be possible to say that by means of explicit instruction, learners may perform better in written production since in written output, they can transfer the knowledge they have acquired. This might also lead us to the assumption that L2 learners can use the vocabulary they learned explicitly better while they are producing sentences. Bialystok (1982) supports this idea by concluding that in writing tasks, learners are induced to make use of their analyzed knowledge of L2 when compared to tasks that require oral communication. By having awareness of the L2, explicit instruction can prove to be more effective.

According to Ellis (2015), language acquisition can be improved by explicit instruction and he further mentions the importance of explicit instruction by referring to the previous empirical research (Hulstijn, 1997; Lightbown et al., 1993) which concluded that focused L2 instruction resulted in target-oriented gains and explicit learning is more durable as opposed to implicit learning. However, Schmidt (1992) noted that to the degree that language processing is dependent on frequency and probabilistic knowledge, language learning can be considered implicit learning. Furthermore, form-focused instruction leads to conscious processing and thus learners might construct new L2 constructions. From this perspective, acquisition of L2 can be implicit from communicative contexts and this can be limited to some extent thus, it might be better to support L2 learning with additional explicit learning. On the other hand, according to Ellis (1993), explicit knowledge requires controlled processing where the learners should be aware of the extent of their linguistic knowledge.

Apart from the impact of explicit instruction on knowledge and written output, explicit instruction is considered to have major effect on vocabulary knowledge. Nation (1993) suggests that direct teaching of unknown vocabulary is necessary for word recognition and it is an important part of reading and vocabulary growth. In his study, he underlines that teaching vocabulary explicitly should depend on the frequency and usefulness of the chosen words. He also denotes that guessing from context, using vocabulary cards, and keyword technique can be used for explicit vocabulary learning strategies.

To conclude, explicit instruction has influence on vocabulary gain, knowledge and output. The direct teaching of unknown words might be efficient for students. However, to what extent learners construct their vocabulary knowledge is still under investigation.

2.6.2 Implicit vocabulary instruction. The term implicit learning is defined as acquisition of knowledge by a process which is without conscious and natural (Ellis, 1994). Other researchers define implicit learning as the process of acquiring unconscious knowledge which is a significant component of human cognition (Cleeremans, Destrebecqz, & Boyer, 1998; Dienes, 2012; Reber, 1993). The term implicit learning was first defined by Arthur Reber (1967) to outline a process where subjects acquire a knowledge without intention and unconsciously of the acquisition. There have diversified outcomes on the features of implicit learning with regard to how the knowledge is acquired (Berry & Dienes, 1993; Cleeremans et al., 1998). From

these outcomes, it was stated that the learners generally know that they have acquired knowledge yet unaware of what that knowledge is (e.g., Dienes & Scott, 2005; Rebuschat & Williams, 2006). A body of research has denoted that implicit knowledge may also be recalled more readily and longer as opposed to explicit knowledge (Allen & Reber, 1980). Regarding the results of the studies mentioned, one might state that implicit learning depends highly on the use of artificial systems where learners are exposed to stimuli produced by an artificial system and tested on what they have learned. Supported by Krashen (1977, 1979, and 1981) as well, language acquisition can be an incidental process which creates tacit knowledge. The reasoning behind his theory might be that learners tend to rely on acquired (implicit) knowledge in oral comprehension and production. Thus, Krashen mentioned that the pedagogy of language should concentrate on generating the circumstances for language acquisition to take place rather than language learning. As noted by Ellis (2005) "there is broad consensus that the acquisition of an L2 entails the development of implicit knowledge". Also, this language acquisition can be regarded as learner's long-term knowledge of lexical continuum. Considering the role of consciousness, Ellis (2015) noted that when a learner speaks, or reads, the message is not transferred consciously, there is an underlying unconscious stimuli in the mind. Hence, language learning can be considered as implicit learning. "The unconscious stimuli therefore might refer to the phonology, phonotactics, reading, spelling language comprehension and sentence production. However, there is no consensus on how this is achieved" (Ellis, 2005, p. 143). Also, he further mentions that the language processed in implicit learning is found to have impacts on lexical choices, phonology and syntax. (Ellis, 2015).

Krashen (1985) and Ellis (2015) posited that unconscious acquisition is important since it promotes natural use of the language. The fact that L1 acquisition largely depends on implicit learning makes implicit learning in L2 more agreeable. Some linguists also support this idea as well. As taken directly from (de Saussure, 1916) "any (linguistic) creation must be preceded by an unconscious comparison of the material deposited in the storehouse of language, where productive forms are arranged according to their relations "(p. 164). From his sentences, one can assume that L2 language is stored and used productively based on their relations with each other and how these relations are connected is still not answered thoroughly.

However, there are some mentioned limitations of implicit learning. The first of which is inadequate level of intake. A study conducted by Perdue (1993) concluded

that among one-third of the L2 learners participated in the study learned more vocabulary implicitly yet they could not complexified their discourses in terms of morphology or syntax and encountered fossilization. Therefore, it may be possible to say that even though the level input is high, the language or the features of the language may not be picked up by the L2 learners naturalistically. Although surrounded by language (L2), the learning may not result in intake. The second limitation might be the impact of L1. L1 learners are generally automized in their recognition (Ellis, 2015) yet this not the case for L2 learners. L1 learners know the functors and how to process them. On the other hand, it might be difficult for L2 learners to figure these functors and analyze them. Thus, this might make natural acquisition of L2 more challenging as implicit knowledge requires automatic processing.

All learning experiences have an impact on the memory store whether they are facilitating or inhibiting the learning of a new language. (Ellis, 2015). However, the issue of explicit learning can develop implicit learning is still under debate. Furthermore, stated by bulk of researchers, implicit acquisition of L2 language learning is limited in its success (Schmidt, 1990; Long, 1991; Lightbown, Spada & White, 1993).

2.7 Lexical Knowledge

2.7.1 Productive vs. Receptive. A quite number of studies have contributed to the literature regarding the distinction between productive and receptive vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary refers to the words understood during reading or listening. Productive vocabulary, on the other hand, refers to the words used while speaking or writing. In other words, receptive knowledge is obtained through the language input that is received from others through listening and reading. On the other hand, productive knowledge is obtained through the language output where the message is conveyed through speaking and writing (Nation, 2001).

The tasks prepared for teaching also vary in terms of productive and receptive. The tasks teachers use while teaching vocabulary tend to be receptive rather than productive (Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985; Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1987). Receptive tasks might be more common due to its simplicity in designing, grading and assigning. Guessing from context, learning from word pairs, reading from a dictionary, giving synonyms, antonyms of the words, or collocations, giving an example sentence that uses the word are among teaching receptive vocabulary practices. However, compared to receptive tasks mentioned, productive tasks are less common. Creating a

sentence or cloze exercises might be given as examples for productive vocabulary practices. The fact that L2 learners encounters more difficulty in developing productive than receptive vocabulary has been argued in many studies (Laufer &Paribakht, 1998; Nation 2001; Webb, 2008; Zheng, 2009). Greater number of vocabulary are learned through reading and listening (Jenkins, Stein, & Wysocki, 1984; Nagy, Anderson, & Herman, 1987). Learning tends to be receptive when vocabulary is taught in the classroom. Vocabulary learning tasks offer more receptive opportunities than productive. However, there is no convincing evidence that receptive learning has been more effective than productive learning.

In many developmental studies, the impact of receptive and productive use of vocabulary have been investigated. Receptive and productive knowledge of vocabulary can be found in components of the word as form, meaning and use. Laufer and Nation (1999) claim that receptive and productive vocabulary are distinctive in terms of knowing a word. With regard to vocabulary knowledge, Nation (2001) defines receptive vocabulary use as the perceiving the form of a word while listening or reading and productive vocabulary use as the perceiving the form of a word meaning through speaking and writing.

There are several ways to measure receptive and productive vocabulary. Read and Nation (1986) suggest that checklist, multiple choice and transition are among the measurement types of productive and receptive vocabulary. Also a five-item multiple choice test to measure receptive vocabulary and a translation test to measure productive vocabulary was used by Morgan and Oberdeck (1930). The role of receptive and productive vocabulary has high importance since the measurement tools used in this thesis include writing word meanings in L1 and sentence production which are the aspects of productive language use. Also, to understand vocabulary size of the learner, it is also important to understand the size of the receptive and productive vocabulary that one has. Only assigning receptive or productive tasks during teaching may not be sufficient for comprehensive vocabulary learning. Different types of tasks that combine productive and receptive use of vocabulary learning can have better influence on the outcomes and performances of the language learners.

A variety of empirical research has investigated vocabulary use of learners receptively and productively (e.g., Laufer and Paribakht, 1998; Webb, 2008) and their impact on long-term memory development (e.g., Schmitt, 1998; Churchill, 2008; Bell, 2009). Within the light of these studies, it has been found that developing productive

vocabulary is more difficult than developing receptive vocabulary. Although there is no firm evidence, vocabulary knowledge is believed to be a continuum of word knowledge from receptive to productive.

As explained above, being able to understand a word is referred as receptive knowledge and being able to produce a word is referred to as productive knowledge. As noted by Schmitt (2000), people learn words first receptively and then gain productive knowledge. The ability of using words receptively or/and productively requires time and mastery of a language. Moreover, how both are measured is important in vocabulary learning. However, there is no consensus on the impact of receptive and productive use of words in vocabulary learning.

2.7.2 Breadth vs. Depth. According to Nation (1990), there are several aspects to be considered by a learner in terms of gaining a word knowledge: meaning, associations, collocations, grammatical patterns, frequency of use and orthography. Learning new words is a complicated process. Sole memorization or reading from a dictionary might not result in acquisition. Hence, it is useful to differentiate between two viewpoints of a learner's vocabulary knowledge; breadth and depth. Nation (2001), defines breadth of vocabulary knowledge as the quantity or number of words learner knows at a specific level of language proficiency. In other words, the breath of vocabulary shows the quantity of words learners know at a definite language competence. According to Nation (2001), to understand most of the authentic texts read, a learner needs to know 3000 or so high frequency words. Therefore, this amount of word knowledge might be sufficient to comprehend the majority of the communicative content of a text and deduce unknown words from context. On the contrary, Read (1993) says that depth of vocabulary knowledge requires the quality of the vocabulary knowledge. Rather than the quantity, depth of vocabulary knowledge emphasizes the importance of the quality of learner's vocabulary knowledge. However, as opposed to breadth of knowledge which might mean knowing the single meaning of a word in a particular text , depth of knowledge might be more complex since depth of knowledge involves knowing the pronunciation, spelling , syntactic and semantic relations with other words (Chapelle, 1998). In other words, depth of knowledge is knowing the meaning and how to use it in different contexts and breadth of knowledge is solely knowing the meanings of words without the accurate the use. And this is the distinction between breadth and depth of knowledge that proves difficult in vocabulary acquisition. Thus, it might be possible to state that vocabulary

is not a single dimension structure, rather it should be seen a multidimensional structure with more complex aspects. Also, depth of knowledge may act as a network linking other words with each other. As Milton (2009) suggested, how a word collocates, connatates and associates with other surrounding words enable learners to construct a better vocabulary knowledge. Researchers have asserted the elaboration of various forms of lexical knowledge and emphasized that word knowledge is far beyond knowing only the meaning of the word in a particular context (Richards, 1976; De Bot, Paribakht & Wesche, 1997; Nation, 2001; Quian, 2002; Nassaji, 2004). Richards (1976) listed a set of principles to identify aspects of lexical knowledge such as morpho-syntactic properties, derivation, association, frequency, and semantic features. In order to rank the quality of lexical knowledge, Henriksen (1999) proposed that knowledge of vocabulary should include three aspects, including (a) accuracy of knowledge, (b) depth of knowledge, (c) receptive and productive knowledge. However, with regard to research on lexical pedagogy, two aspects of lexical knowledge have been identified, breadth versus depth of vocabulary knowledge (Nassaji; Nation; Qian, 1999; Read; Paribakht & Wesche, 1996).

Different ways of conceptualizing the breadth and depth of vocabulary have been taken into consideration by researchers. Laufer and Nation (1995) defines breadth of vocabulary knowledge as the size of a vocabulary that can have an impact on the quality of a learner's written work. As vocabulary instruction is multifaceted, it might be challenging to determine the depth of understanding that students have of new words.

As a result, breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge are not divisible and they are connected to each other. They should be viewed as knowledge processes rather than two separate dimension.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 Research Design

The study follows quantitative research design. As suggested by Creswell (2007) the main scope of quantitative design is to explain results based on theory and experiment. Therefore, to provide a better understanding of the research problem, this thesis follows quantitative design.

In this study, there are two variables – control group and experimental groups. In order to measure the degree of the groups, quantitative research design is used for the current study. Also, the selected design is more relevant and applicable considering research questions and hypotheses.

Furthermore, the data instruments are designed for quantitative data analysis. There are sixty participants in the study and they are in three different classes. There are three groups in this study. The first group only has explicit instruction and is referred to as "experimental group 1". The second group only has implicit instruction and is referred to as "experimental group 2 ". The last group has traditional teaching and is referred to as "control group". All participants are taught the same vocabulary. All vocabulary teaching takes place during their reading and writing lesson. The forty target vocabulary is chosen from their course book before B1 level starts. Initially the participants are given a Vocabulary Knowledge Scale pretest to measure the level of their knowledge of target vocabulary at the beginning of B1 level and four weeks later, the participants are given a post-test including the same questions as the pre-test. The results of the pre-test and post-test are compared to analyze the vocabulary gain of the students by using Kruskall-Wallis Test.

3.1.1 Research questions. For the current study, the following research questions were addressed.

1. Is there a significant relationship between vocabulary instruction type and vocabulary gain?
2. Are there significant differences between students' vocabulary gains in the experimental groups and those in the control group?

In order to compare the answers to research questions, following hypotheses were outlined for the research:

3.1.2 Hypotheses. In line with the research questions, the hypotheses below were set.

3.1.2.1 Hypothesis 1. The first research question aims to find an answer to the difference between instruction type which are implicit, explicit instruction and traditional teaching and how students gain vocabulary at the end of the research. Therefore, the following hypothesis is defined for the first research question.

3. At the end of the study, the students who had explicit instruction in vocabulary learning will have better vocabulary gain.

***3.1.2.2 Hypothesis 2*.** The second research question is addressed to draw conclusions for the distinctions between the experimental groups and control group in terms of vocabulary gain. It is assumed that the experimental group 1 (explicit instruction) will perform better and have greater vocabulary gain when compared to experimental group 2 (implicit instruction) and control group. Therefore, the hypotheses are as follows:

4. The experimental group 1 will have greater vocabulary gains
5. The experimental group l will perform better in the post-test**.**

3.2 Participants

The participants of the present study aged 17-21 were forty Turkish students studying English as a foreign language (EFL) at the Foreign Language Preparatory Class at a private university in Turkey. The aim of the Foreign Language Preparatory Class is to provide the students with the best quality of English language learning through the integration of core skills; listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The school follows module system of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, and Assessment (CEFR). All the students of the University must take a placement exam conducted by Prep School at the beginning of the academic year. After the placement exam, the students are allocated to their modules according to their results. If a student gets 70 out of 100, he will take another exam called proficiency exam. The students who can get 70 out of 100 from the proficiency exam can pass Prep class and start their education in the departments. However, the students who gets lower than 70 out of 100 from the placement exam might start from A1, A2 or B1 level.

All learners receive 28 hours of English weekly and they learn to develop four skills as well as communicative skills to use during their academic studies. In each

module, there are four different lessons which aim to teach the general components of the target language.

The participants of this current study were B1 level students. They started Prep Class directly from B1 level. When the characteristics of adult learners were reviewed in terms of educational and socioeconomic status, profile of learners participating in the research study had no major differences. However, since they started from B1 level, they were expected to have a background knowledge of English. Throughout the seven week module, B1 level students have four different types of lessons which are as follows:

Reading & Writing - 12 hours

Students will develop their reading and comprehension skills as well as their writing skills. Students will work on a variety of reading strategies and be exposed to level appropriate vocabulary. Reading materials from the textbook, along with various materials such as articles, short stories, scientific texts, and newspapers are all included in the course. The course aims to scaffold students for competent language users who can use their knowledge, experiences, ideas and opinions in order to understand and interpret important information and put ideas into their own words when writing organized and meaningful essays.

Listening & Speaking - 8 hours

This course provides a platform for students to improve their listening comprehension and speaking abilities through instructor guided activities, the course book, interactive group and pair activities as well as authentic materials such as songs and videos. Through such activities, the course focuses on helping students communicate fluently, express opinions, make comments, give reasons and explanations, as well as justify their responses competently. Students also develop their listening and note taking skills by listening to complex thought provoking lectures on familiar topics.

Reading Circle - 2 hours

The aim of this course is for the students to come together in small groups in the classroom to talk about the short-stories that they have read. One short- story is

assigned per week, and each student plays a specific role in the weekly discussions. It allows students to have enjoyable and interesting discussions in English.

Grammar - 6 hours

The purpose of learning grammar is to learn the language of which the grammar is a part of. Instructors therefore teach grammar forms and structures in relation to meaning and use for the specific communication tasks that students need to complete throughout the module.

Online Speaking (Two 15 minute sessions per week)

Throughout the seven-week module, students participate in two, fifteen-minute online speaking sessions. The first 15 minute sessions are based on practicing the previous week's unit topics which include vocabulary and functional language. The second fifteen-minute session is when the students are evaluated for their performance and graded according to a speaking rubric.

There are approximately twenty students in each classroom. Sixty B1 level students from two different classes were chosen. Forty students in experimental group 1 and experimental group 2 were instructed by the researcher of this thesis since Ithe researcher was their reading and writing lesson instructor. However, due to the syllabus, it was not possible to instruct the students in the control group. The control group was instructed by another colleague who has seven years of experience in the field. The participants were chosen through convenience sampling. As Creswell (2002) suggested, for convenience sampling, the selected participants should be willing and available to be studied. Therefore, it may be rightly to say that this is a convenience sampling as I was the instructor of both classes and the participants were convenient and available for the study. Also, only sixty students out of seventy wanted to volunteer for the study. The students who did not want to volunteer were only excluded from the pre-test and post-test parts of the study and in terms of their vocabulary learning, they were not affected by the instruction type. Since each person in the classroom was a student of the University, they were all expected to learn the vocabulary taught regardless of the instruction type the instructors apply. Both the experimental groups and control group would have to learn the vocabulary since they

were tested in the exams conducted by the University. Therefore, there was no injustice in terms of teaching and learning among the groups. All participants were Turkish citizens and there were no observable socioeconomic and educational status differences. Each student in B1 level has twelve hours of reading lesson, and as stated above writing and reading lessons are integrated. B1 level students were chosen purposefully due to their level of English. All the participants were informed about the study and asked to participate voluntarily and their consent was gained. In order to protect the participants' confidentiality and privacy, their names were not used in this study.

3.3 Procedures

This section provides comprehensive information about the types of sampling, data collection instruments, data analysis process, reliability, validity and limitations of the study.

3.3.1 Type of sampling. The type of sampling used for this study is convenience sampling. The main purpose of choosing convenience sampling is due to its applicability. As suggested by Creswell (2014), the participants should be willing and available to be studied, thus sixty B1 level students were chosen for this study.

3.3.2 Procedures applied for control and experimental groups. The students in three classes participating in the study were taught the same vocabulary. First of all, forty words were chosen from the target vocabulary part of the course book. However, before teaching vocabulary, the students were not informed of the type of instruction they would be exposed to. As mentioned above, allocated time for reading and writing lesson is totally twelve hours weekly and the duration of the lessons is fifty minutes. Secondly, in order to self-assess the students, a Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) (adapted from Wesche & Paribakht, 1997) was given at the beginning of the B1 module and a posttest was given again at the end of four-week period to compare how students performed in vocabulary learning.

Before each VKS, the students were informed about the evaluation criteria and explained what to do in detail. For both tests, the students were allotted sufficient time to complete them since for the pre-course self-assessment VKS, the students were asked to write the translations or the L2 synonyms of the words and write in-depth sentences if they knew the meaning of the given word. The students got the posttest at the end of the four weeks. The post-test given was the same as pretest. The reasoning

behind giving the same test was to analyze how students performed throughout the process.

The results were analyzed carefully first by the instructor and then by a colleague in order to have inter-rater reliability and sustain the degree of agreement. The tools utilized in the current study is explained in detail in the following sections.

3.4.2.1 Procedure in the experimental group 1. During the four week period, the experimental group 1 (n = 20) only had explicit instruction. They were taught totally forty new vocabulary supplied in their course book by only engaging in explicit activities. The activities were designed by the researcher weekly. For this group except for the explicit activities supplied in the book, semantic maps, graphic organizers, L1 translation, L2 definitions, antonyms and synonyms were provided to the students.

3.4.2.2 Procedure in the experimental group 2. For four weeks, the experimental group 2 which included 20 students solely had implicit instruction. The experimental group 2 only did the implicit vocabulary exercises given in the book. The activities which only included implicit instruction were designed by the researcher and as the instruction type suggests, the students were expected to learn the words implicitly. To encourage implicit learning, the students were prompted to learn word meanings from context and find contextual clues surrounding the passage. Mostly, the course book offers implicit learning opportunities with its reading passages. However, for each week the instructor also prepared extra materials where the weekly vocabulary was used in a context to ensure learning. In addition, since extra materials were used in group 1, group 2 was also subjected to extra prepared materials to ensure there is no injustice among the groups. Also, each week the students was expected to do a five minute presentation about the topic in the course book.

3.4.2.3 Procedure in the control group. A traditional teaching method which included only the activities in the course book were applied in the control group which consisted 20 students. As mentioned before, due to the limitations of the syllabus and schedule, it was not possible for the researcher to give lessons in this classroom. Therefore, a voluntary teacher who has seven years of experience was chosen for this current study. Before the research, the instructor of this classroom was informed of the thesis and its purpose.

In order to find the differences among the methods used and obtain firm outcomes, lesson plans of the teacher were taken and analyzed. Also, there were

interviews with the teacher regarding the methods she used for teaching vocabulary during the lessons at the end of each week. The aim of the interviews was to understand which methods were applied by the instructor. However, it should be noted that the course book provides both explicit and implicit activities. Therefore, the interviews were highly important in order to understand which methods were used by the instructor. In addition, the instructor was asked to provide all the materials used or assignments given in the classroom for four weeks.

3.4.2.3.1 Course book. The target words in this study came from Unlock 3 (Westbrook, 2014). There are ten units in the book, however only seven units can be covered due to syllabus and over a period of seven weeks. In both groups, the same book, units and target vocabulary were used during the same amount of time. The words selected for the current study were the ones that the book highlighted and targeted to teach. All the activities in the book and prepared by the teacher were suitable for the participants level. Each unit in the book has fifteen vocabulary identified as unit vocabulary and academic vocabulary. Also, at the end of each unit, there is a wordlist which provides a full list of targeted words. This book was chosen since it was the course book for reading and writing lesson. Also, the book offers explicit and implicit instruction opportunities. Each unit stars with a video related to the topic of the unit. Then the book represents two reading texts that include the target words. Before each reading text, the target vocabulary is introduced to the students. The vocabularies presented before the reading text were then recycled in the reading texts. The vocabulary intended for explicit methods include matching the meaning, gap filling in reading, manipulation of target words and finding the definition from the context exercises. After vocabulary exercises, the readers are presented with reading texts which are followed by comprehension questions, skimming and scanning activities. The next section in each unit is called language development part in which the students learn how to use the new vocabulary or patterns presented in the texts explicitly. Language development part is followed by critical thinking section. The aim of the critical thinking section is to analyze and evaluate the information given so as to write a paragraph or essay. Finally, each unit ends with a writing part where the students can learn how to use the patterns or vocabulary they have learnt with a guided grammar part. All the students are expected to write a paragraph or an essay from the topic given by the book. As a result, the book gives the chance to apply both implicit and explicit teaching methods. However, the lesson plans provided and interviews

made were expected to give insight to the various kinds of methods employed by the instructor. For the experimental groups, apart from the activities and exercises supplied in the book, various materials and activities were planned by the instructor before each week and conducted only in the class hours. The activities for experimental groups were done individually, in pairs or in groups which were not organized by the instructor; the students formed groups without any teacher interference. Thereby, each participant had the chance to discover and create the meanings of words by themselves and with their peers. Also, this might have lowered their dependency to the teacher and they might have also learnt how to collaborate and cooperate with their peers. Each group had sufficient time to complete the activities and share or present them in the classroom. Below is a table that demonstrates the summary of the groups in terms of number of participants, instruction type, activities and instructor.

Table 1

Summary of Procedure

Group	Number of participants	Instruction type	Activities	Instructor
Experimental group 1	20	Explicit	-Semantic mapping -Graphic organizers -L1 translation -L2 definition -Antonyms, synonyms	Researcher
Experimental group 2	20	Implicit	-Learning meaning from context in the course book -Student Presentations -Extra materials where vocabulary is used in a context	Researcher
Control group	20	Traditional teaching	Activities and exercises supplied in Unlock 3 (Westbrook, 2014).	Colleague

3.4 Data Collection Instruments

The data were obtained through three sources. Two sets of VKS were given as pre-test and post-test for quantitative data.

3.5.1 Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS). The reasoning behind choosing a VKS is that one of the best known and most conventional depth-of-knowledge scale is the *Vocabulary Knowledge Scale* (see Paribakht and Wesche, 1997, and Wesche and Paribakht, 1996). Even though there have been various developmental scales for a long period of time, Paribakht and Wesche were effective in introducing this measurement approach recently (Schmitt, 2010). Also, it is possible to pursue the early development of definitive word level or knowledge of the learners for the target words. Thus, VKS might provide effectual ways of demonstrating the certain changes and developments in the receptive and productive knowledge of the learners with the assistance of reading and vocabulary instruction. Originally developed to measure vocabulary in English language programs at the University of Ottawa, VKS, was used by Paribakht and Wesche (2009) recently as a vocabulary retention scale. Due to its test-retest availability, VKS can have a good reliability. According to Wesche and Paribakht (1996), the reliability of the VKS is .89.

Moreover, it is an effective measurement tool to test the knowledge of the beginners of English. Considering the participants in this study were early B1 level students, it is probable to say that VKS might be the right tool for measurement.

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

3.6.1 Determining pre-existing vocabulary knowledge. Schmitt (2010) outlines the importance of vocabulary learning and exemplifies several vocabulary measuring tests in order to demonstrate how measuring vocabulary is crucial for understanding how students gain vocabulary. In his book, he states that 'research into the acquisition of vocabulary necessitates determining what vocabulary knowledge exists at a point in time (usually before an experimental treatment), and then establishing what the state of knowledge is at a later point' (p.179). Therefore, in this current study, the participants were given the same VKS twice in order to ensure how students performed at the end of the four week period.

3.6.1.1 Pretest as VKS. The main scope of giving the participants a pre-course VKS is to understand the pre-existing and post-existing knowledge of the students. When we understand how many words the participants already know or do not know, then it is possible to measure with a post-test VKS that whether the participants gained the taught vocabulary. Otherwise, without a pretest or posttest, it is not possible to measure and also compare the differences between the learning of experimental and

control group. Therefore, both groups were given pretest and posttest VKS to ensure their development process. Before they started B1 level, both the control and experimental groups were given a VKS which was adapted from Paribakht and Wesche (1997). The participants were given forty target vocabulary from their course book and asked to rank them as follows;

1. The word is not familiar at all.
2. The word is familiar, but I don't know the meaning.
3. I know the meaning of this word, but I am not sure if I always use it correctly.
4. Give a correct synonym or translation. (If you choose 4, please also complete 5).
5. I know what it means and I can use it correctly. (Please write a sentence).

If a student has not seen the word before, he needs to mark number 1 which shows that the participant has no knowledge of the word. If they do not know the meaning yet the word is recognizable, he is to mark number 2. The reason to rank number 2 is solely to see if the word is recognizable to the student. By ranking number 3, the participant shows that he knows the meaning yet cannot decide how the word is used. In number 4, the student believes that he knows the word and gives the translation in L1. Relevant to number 4, in number 5, the participant is required to write a sentence measuring the lexical knowledge of the given word.

Also, in categories 4 and 5, the students are expected to reflect whether they can understand or whether they can use the word appropriately in writing as well.

The participants are not allowed to use a dictionary or mobile phone while completing the VKS. All the participants are informed of the instructions in English and then in Turkish to make sure there are no misunderstandings. They are not allowed to ask any questions regarding the meaning of any vocabulary if for instance, they are not sure of the meaning. In the questionnaire, the students have enough space to write in case they choose number 4 and/or 5.

3.6.1.2 Posttest VKS. The post-test consists of five parts which is the same as pre-course self-assessment VKS defined as follows;

1. The word is not familiar at all.
2. The word is familiar, but I don't know the meaning.
3. I know the meaning of this word, but I am not sure if I always use it correctly.
4. Give a correct synonym or translation. (If you choose 4, please also complete 5).
5. I know what it means and I can use it correctly. (Please write a sentence).

At the end of B1 level, the participants were given the same pretest VKS as post-test VKS. The main scope of giving them the same measurement scale is to see the distinction between both groups in terms of vocabulary gain. Also, the results of the pretest might also be insightful to see how students improved throughout the year. To illustrate, if a student already wrote a sentence to one of the words in the pretest, he might write a more elaborate sentence in the post test. Therefore, giving the same VKS may add further results to the current study. The analysis of the posttest was the same as the evaluation criteria applied in the pretest.

3.6.2 The experimental group 1; explicit instruction activities. Throughout four weeks, the experimental group only had explicit instruction. The students followed the reading texts presented in the book. Also, they completed the vocabulary exercise parts in their course book. In addition to the activities and exercises in the book, each of the four weeks, the participants were supplied with various materials prepared by the instructor. The materials included matching definitions, translating into L1, drawing pictures, visual images, realia and pictures. Most of the activities were done in pairs or group work.

3.6.3 Experimental group 2; implicit instruction activities. The control group only had implicit instruction for four weeks. The participants were not allowed to use dictionaries or ask a Turkish definition of the word. Also, the students were not asked to do the explicit activities in the book. However, they could complete the activities after the four week experiment period since they had an exam, yet this did not affect the results of the current study since it was over. The students were encouraged to understand the meaning implicitly and learn from the surrounding clues in texts. For each unit they were assigned tasks that could direct them to learn the vocabulary by themselves. Also, they were guided to find contextual clues. To illustrate, the topic of unit 2 is ‘customs and traditions’. The students were asked to choose one country and search their customs and traditions. Finally, they were asked to present it in the classroom. Also, they were asked to summarize the texts.

Table 2

Summary of the data collection steps for the experimental and control groups

1. Identifying 40 target vocabulary
2. Pretest VKS
3. Analysis of the pretest data
4. Posttest VKS

5. Analysis of posttest data

3.7 Data Analysis Procedures

3.7.1 Analysis of the pre-course and post-course self-Assessment VKS. Data were analyzed in two steps which were 1) analysis pretest VKS, 2) analysis of posttest VKS. The first step was the application and collection of the pretest VKS. The results of the VKS were analyzed in the first two weeks. Since there were three sets of data; the experimental group 1 and 2 and the control group, the data were analyzed by using Kruskall-Wallis Test. The results of the three groups' pretest data were calculated in Kruskall-Wallis Test. The second step involved entering the results of the data of the three groups' posttest data into Kruskall-Wallis Test.

Each VKS included forty words and there were five categories to be marked. Therefore, the minimum score that could be obtained from one participant for one VKS is 0 and the maximum score was 200. Both pretest and posttest VKS scores were calculated by Kruskall-Wallis Test and the overall performance of each student from three groups was taken into consideration for the analysis. In order to sustain interrater reliability, the results were analyzed by the thesis supervisor and another colleague.

3.8 Reliability and Validity

Creswell (2002) states that for quantitative research design, at least two sets of data from each individual should be collected. In this study, two sets of data from each participant were collected. In order to confirm the findings, member-checking with a colleague was conducted. The participants were clearly informed of the whole process including the scope of the thesis. Also to secure participant validation, a summary of the findings were presented to the participants. Permissions of all the participants were obtained before the data collection process. They were given a consent form at the beginning of the research in order to ensure validity and pursue ethical issues. In order to protect anonymity of individuals, they were assigned numbers during the data analysis and publishing. The data were viewed confidentially and were not shared with other participants outside the study. With regard to validity, the results were based on test control which was the data collected through VKS. In order to have reliability, questions on instruments were clear and the administration of procedures did not vary and the pre-test and post-test were given. To have interrater reliability and prevent negating any bias, a colleague also analyzed the results of the data and the results of

the study were discussed afterwards. To make the data collection more trustworthy, triangulation was used during the data collection process and the results were computed by using Kruskall-Wallis Test. To have conformability, all the procedures were checked and inspected in detail by the thesis supervisor. Also, all the results, positive or negative, were discussed to confirm reflexivity of the study.

As a summary, the following table provides a brief outline of how research questions were evaluated and examined by different instruments and analyzed in the end (see Table 3).

Table 3

Summary of Research Design

Research Questions	Instruments	Analysis
1. Is there a significant relationship between vocabulary instruction type and vocabulary gain?	1. Pretest VKS 2. Posttest VKS	Kruskall-Wallis Test
2. Are there significant differences between students' vocabulary gains in the experimental groups and those in the control group?	Results of the pretest and posttest VKS	Kruskall-Wallis Test

3.9 Limitations

One of the main limitations of this study was the number of participants (n=60). As the results of the VKS were calculated by using Kruskall-Wallis Test, the number of participants might have an effect on the results. However, only 60 participants were convenient at the time of the study. Therefore, the reliability of the findings could be advanced by including more participants if it were possible.

The second limitation is conducting this study on specific context. This study is conducted only on B1 level students at a private university in Turkey. The results may have been different if participants were from a different level. Therefore, it is not possible to generalize the findings into different contexts.

The third limitation is using VKS. Although having .89 reliability (Wesche & Paribakht, 1996), another measurement test could be used. However, VKS gives the chance to analyze how students gained vocabulary. Thus, given the nature of the participants and analysis, applying VKS seems more suitable.

Another limitation of this study is using a course book. Only the target words in the course book were taken into consideration since the course book must be used as a result of the syllabus. Hence, the results were only bound by the target vocabulary of the course book.

The final limitation is in regard to the activities conducted in the classroom. Experimental group 2 only do the implicit tasks in the classroom in addition to the ones supplied in the book. However, considering the number of students in the class (n=20), it may not possible to check the students at all times. They might also complete the explicit activities given in the book. Therefore, it is difficult to limit the type of activities to be completed by the students.

3.10 Delimitations

This study has a few delimitations. The first delimitation of the study is participants. The participants were early B1 level students. Each participant may have different background of English and learning styles. As a result, the instruction types used in this study may not be applicable to each participant. However, considering the education system at the university, it is not possible to group participants in terms of their learning styles.

The second delimitation is having another instructor for the control group. Due to the working and lesson hours determined by the university, it was impossible to teach three different classes at the same time. However, to prevent any confusion regarding the instructions used in the classroom to teach vocabulary, the instructor of the control group provided lesson plans and interviews were made each week to have a full understanding of the teaching style.

Chapter 4

Results

4.1 Overview

This chapter covers the results regarding whether there is a significant difference between vocabulary instructions in terms of their effect on student learning. Data were scored by Kruskall-Wallis Test. Significance (alpha) level was set at .05 for all the statistical analyses.

4.2 Findings for pretest and posttest T-test results

For this study, the quantitative data were collected through pretest and posttest VKS (*n*=60). Before the experiment, each group was given a pretest VKS and four weeks later, each group was given the same VKS as posttest. During four-week period, each group were taught a list of vocabulary through different methods.

First of all, in order to understand whether there were any differences among the groups in terms of vocabulary knowledge, paired sample t-test was performed. Also, paired sample t-test was applied to find if there was any significant difference among the groups.

Secondly, difference values of pretest total and posttest total were calculated to test whether the values were compatible with the normal distribution. Therefore, a new variable called *difference* (posttest total – pretest total) was created. The descriptives table below show the basic statistics of the variables for pretest total, posttest total and difference, respectively.

Table 4

The Sum of the Pretest Values

	Study Group		Statistic	SD
The sum of the pretest values	Experimental Group 2	Mean	100.26	3.36
		SD	15.03	
	Control Group	Mean	83.68	3.48
		SD	15.56	
	Experimental Group 1	Mean	71.15	2.76
		SD	12.35	

Means (with standard deviations in parenthesis) for experimental group 2 were 100.06 (15.03), 83.68 (15.56) for control group and 71.15 (12.35) for experimental group 1 overall. Among the groups, experimental group 2 had the highest overall means and experimental group 1 had the lowest overall score. Low standard deviation also showed that there was consistency among the groups.

Table 5

Descriptives Table for the Sum of the Posttest Values

	Study Group		Statistic	SD
The sum of the posttest values	Experimental Group 2	Mean	156.7	4.36
		SD	19.53	
	Control Group	Mean	130.45	5.34
		SD	23.90	
	Experimental Group 1	Mean	162.91	4.59
		SD	20.52	

When Table 6 was analyzed, means (with standard deviations in parenthesis) for experimental group 2 were 156.70 (19.53), 130.45 (23.90) for control group and 162.91 (20.52) for experimental group 1 overall. The highest means in the post test total appeared in experimental group 1. Table 6 below demonstrates the difference scores (posttest total – pretest total).

Table 6

The Sum of the Difference Table

	Study Group		Statistic	SD
Posttest (-) pretest values	Experimental Group 2	Mean	56.64	5.21
		SD	23.31	
	Control Group	Mean	46.76	6.26
		SD	28.02	
	Experimental Group 1	Mean	91.76	4.14
		SD	18.51	

When means were compared, the highest overall difference in means belonged to experimental group 1 with 91.76. Means for experimental group 2 and control group were 56.64 and 46.76 in return.

4.3 Findings for the Distribution of the Scores obtained from Pretest and Post Test Results

Pretest and posttest VKS included five categories and the participants (*n*= 60) were to mark one category. As mentioned in the methodology section, category 4 and 5 follow each other since in category 5, the student had to write an acceptable sentence based on the rubric (see methodology). Therefore, when category four and five were filled by a student and the sentence in category 5 found appropriate, only category five was taken into account during the analysis. Furthermore, when the data were analyzed, it was found that all participants who marked category 4 also filled in category 5 or vice versa. Thus, the lowest score to be obtained for one student was 40 and highest 200.

The following histograms display the distributions of scores obtained from three groups for both pretest and posttest. The sum of the pretest, posttest and difference values were shown in the graphs.

4.3.1 Scores obtained from experimental group 1. The histograms given below display the distribution of the scores obtained from pretest and posttest VKS of each participant. In addition to the sum of the pretest and posttest values, difference scores were given to show the difference between groups and frequency shows the number of students.

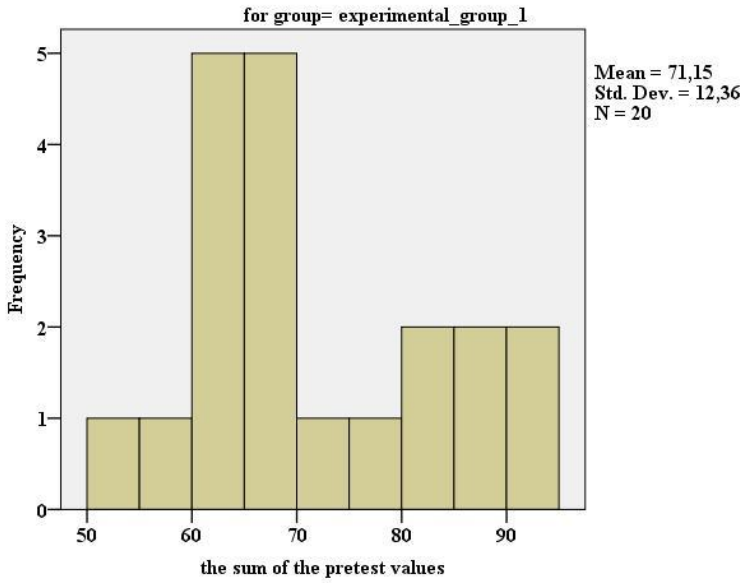

Figure1. The sum of the pretest values for experimental group 1

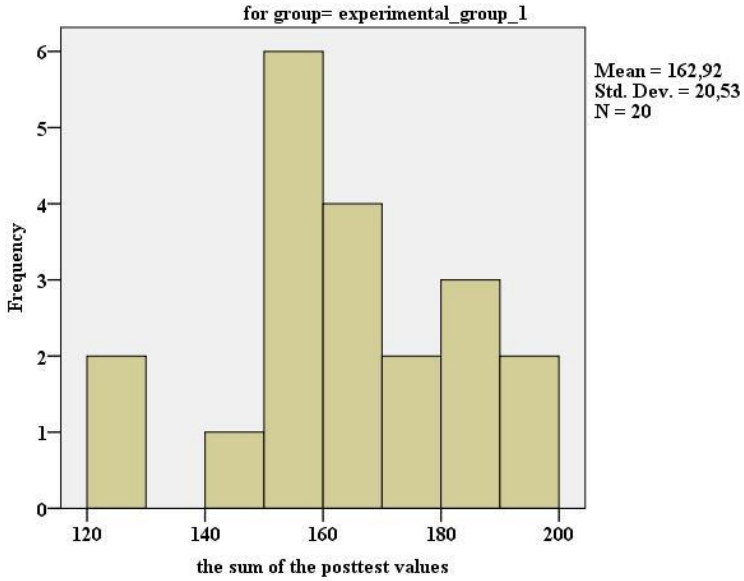

Figure 2. The sum of the posttest values for experimental group 1

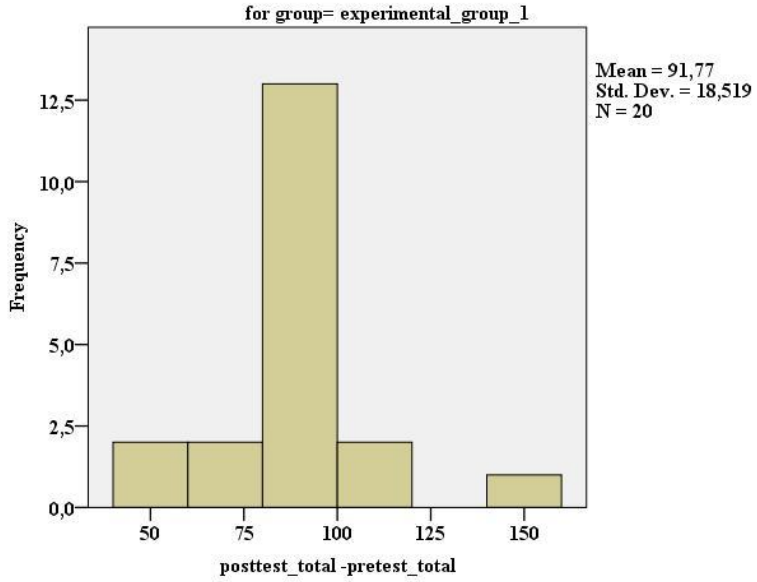

Figure 3. The difference scores between posttest and pretest total for experimental group 1

The sum of the pretest results for experimental group 1 ranged 50-90 before teaching vocabulary. However, the sum of the posttest results ranged 120-200. Therefore, the difference scores for this group changed at 50-150. When the means (with standard deviations in parenthesis) were taken into consideration, means for pretest were 71.15 and 162.92 (20.53)

4.3.2 Scores obtained from experimental group 2. The histograms show the pretest, posttest and difference scores for experimental group 2.

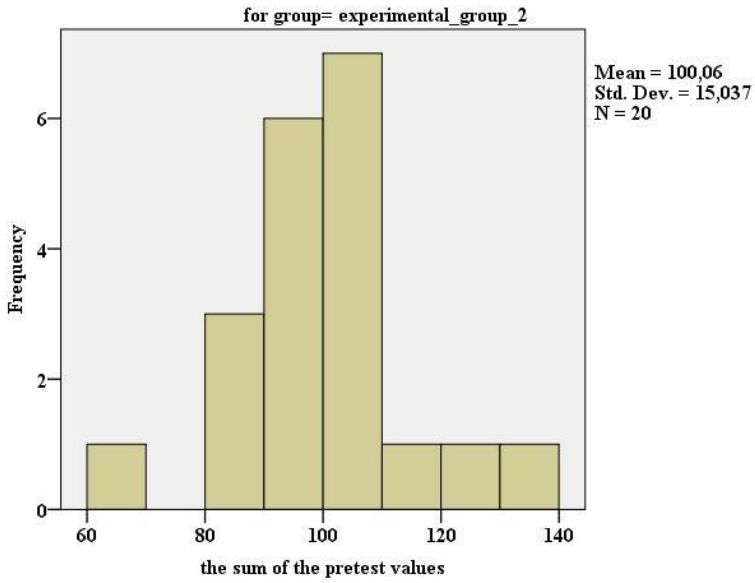

Figure 4. The sum of the pretest values for experimental group 2

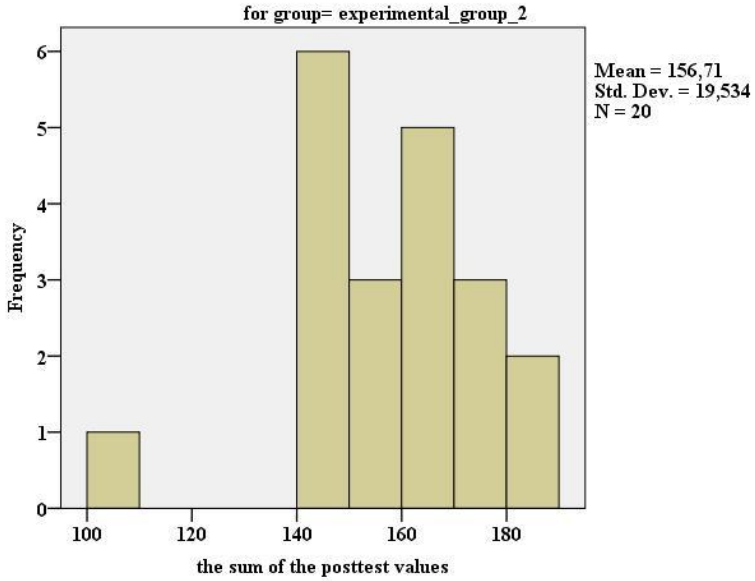

Figure 5. The sum of the posttest values for experimental group 2

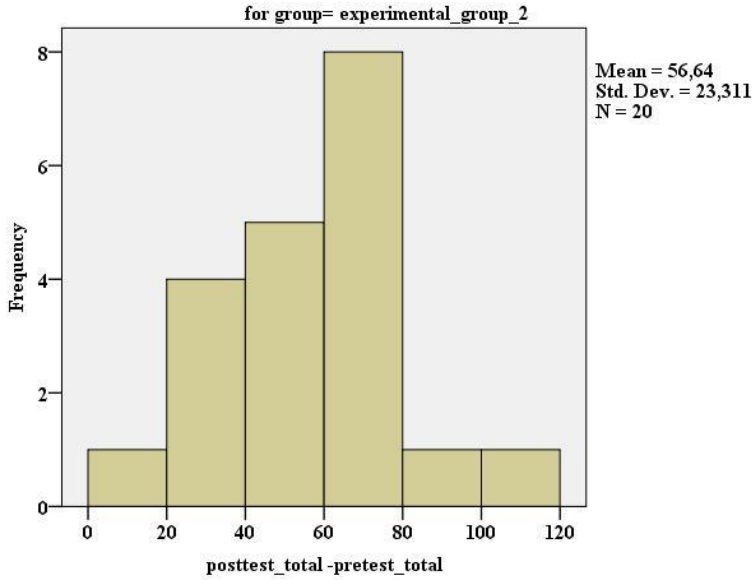

Figure 6. The difference scores between posttest and pretest total for experimental group 2

According to the Figure 4, means (with standard deviations in parenthesis) for pretest were 100.06 (15.03), 156.71 (19.53) for posttest (see Figure 5). Therefore, the means for difference scores were 56.64 (23.31) in Figure 6. When the graph was analyzed, the values for pretest and posttest peaked at 110-100, and 110-140 respectively. The highest values for difference were 60-80.

4.3.3 Scores obtained from control group. The following histograms display the means and frequencies of control group.

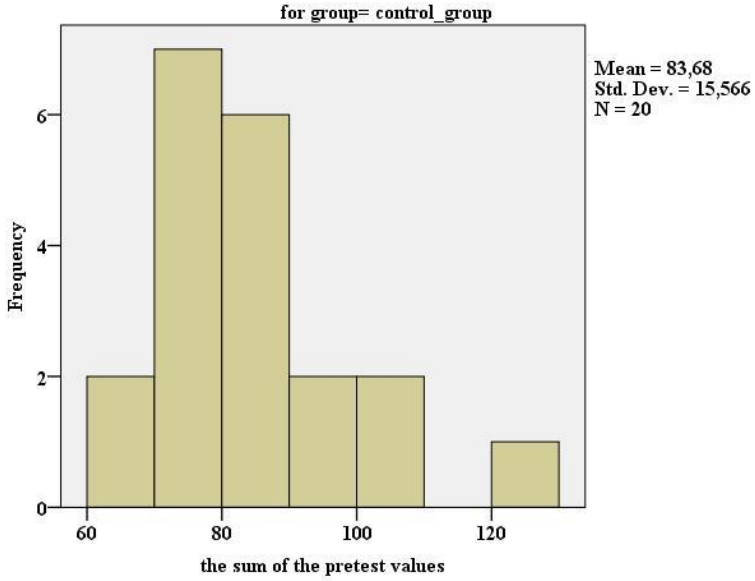

Figure 7. The sum of the pretest values for control group

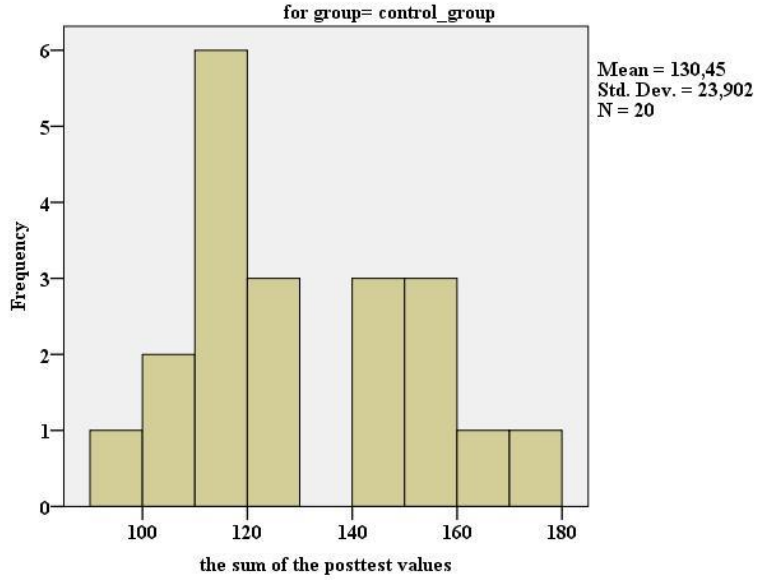

Figure 8. The sum of the posttest values for control group

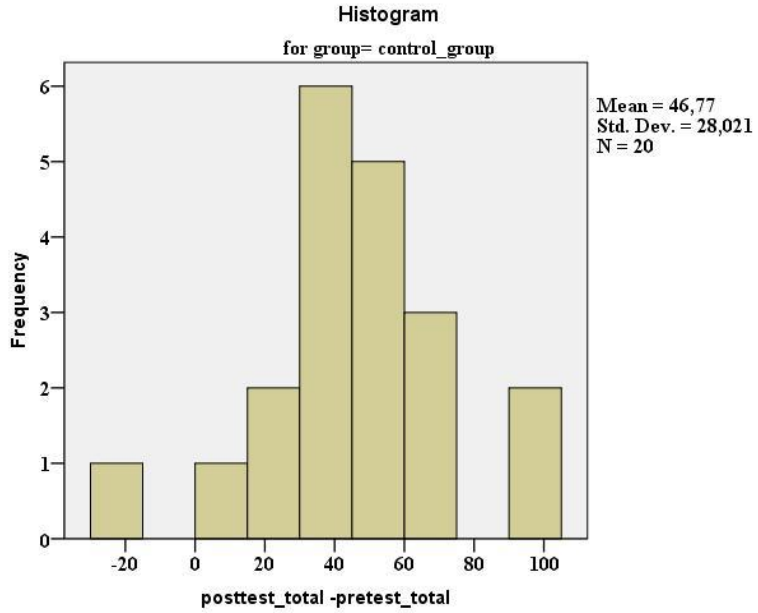

Figure 9. The difference scores between posttest and pretest total for control group

In control group, the sum of the pretest values demonstrated that the values peaked around 70-80 with means of 83.68 (15.56). The means for posttest were 130.45 (23.9) and the values ranged between 100- 120, yet there were no values around 130-140. As for the difference score, the values spiked around 75- 100 with means of 91.77 (18.51).

4.4 Findings for Difference Score

Due to the pretest and posttest nature of the study, difference scores were identified. First of all, by using descriptive statistics, test of normality was calculated

in order to see if the values were consistent with each other. For the tests of normality, two hypotheses were set up; null hypotheses assumed that data set were compatible with normal distribution and alternative hypothesis assumed that data set were not compatible with normal distribution. Secondly, by using paired sample t- test, it was statically concluded that teaching vocabulary improved the efficiency of the participant. To conduct t-test, two hypotheses were set as follows:

Null hypothesis (H_0)

"Vocabulary instruction has no major impact on the scores"

Alternative Hypothesis (H_A)

"Vocabulary instruction has major impact on the scores".

4.4.1 Tests of normality. Kolmogorov- Smirnov Test and Shapiro- Wilk Test were used as they were more appropriate for small sample sizes (*n*=60). Table 8 below demonstrates the difference variable score.

Table 7

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov- Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Posttest total	,085	60	,200*	,976	60	,271
- Pretest total						

Note: * This is a lower bound of the true significance

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The significance value of Kolmogorov- Smirnov Test was .200 and .271 for Shapiro- Wilk Test. Since the significance value of the tests were greater than .05 (.200> .05, .271> .05), the data was normal. Therefore, null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

4.4.2 Paired Samples T-test. In order to find difference scores, two variables were identified:

Variable 1: the sum of the posttest values.

Variable 2: the sum of the pretest values.

Table 8

Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	SD	Std. Error Mean

Pair 1				
The sum of the posttest values	150.02	60	25.37	3.27
The sum of the pretest values	84.96	60	18.5	2.38

Table 8 above demonstrates the descriptive statistics related to the variables. Means for the sum of the posttest values were 150.02 and 84.96 for the sum of the pretest values.

4.4.3 Paired sample test. The table 10 below demonstrates the paired results for two variables and two hypotheses were set up for results:

H_0:

Vocabulary instruction type did not affect test results significantly.

H_A:

Vocabulary instruction type affected test results significantly.

Table 9

Results for Paired Differences

	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	*t*	DF	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1 The sum of the posttest values – the sum of the pretest values	65. 058	30. 28	3. 91	16. 63	59	.000

Analysis of Table 9 showed the results for two paired differences for two variables. According to the table, the result of the t-test statistics (*t*) was 16.63, degrees of freedom (DF) were 59 and .000 < *p*. Means (with standard deviations in parenthesis) were 62.05 (30.28). When significant (2-tailed) scores were considered, alternative hypothesis, which was vocabulary instruction type affected test results significantly, was supported.

Additionally, results of the Table 8 indicated that significant effect on the test results was towards positive increment as means for the sum of the posttest total values were 150.02 and 84.96 for the sum of the pretest values. Therefore, it is possible to say that vocabulary instruction had a major effect on the scores of the VKS.

4.5 Findings for Kruskall- Wallis Test

The previous statistical analyses in this study indicated that post-test results were substantially high. To find which instruction type had more impact on the increase of posttest results, Kruskall- Wallis Test was performed.

To analyze the results consistently, significance level between and within groups were calculated. To ensure validity, two hypotheses were set:

H_0: "There is no statistically meaningful differences among the group means"

H_A: "There is statistically meaningful differences among the group means"

Kruskall- Wallis Test results indicated that significance level was .000 (.000< *p*). Thus, H_0 was rejected.

Table 10

Mean Ranks among the Groups for Pretest and Posttest

	Group	N	Mean Rank
Pretest Scores	Experimental Group 2	20	45.03
	Control Group	20	30.00
	Experimental Group 1	20	16.48
	Total	60	
Posttest Scores	Experimental Group 2	20	33.83
	Control Group	20	18.60
	Experimental Group 1	20	39.08
	Total	60	

When mean ranks were compared, the highest mean belonged to experimental group 2, which was 45, 03. The Second highest was control group (30.00) and the lowest mean rank (16.48) was experimental group 1. However, the results of the posttest revealed that, the rankings in the means changed. While experimental group 1 was the lowest in pretest, it had the highest means (39.08). Also, experimental group 2 had the second highest means (33.83). The means for control group decreased to 18.60.

In order to find whether there was a significant difference between the expected frequencies in three groups, Chi-square test was performed. As a result of the test, sampling distribution was found appropriate for further results since significance was < 0.05 in both pretest and posttest.

Table 11

The Results for Chi-square Test

	Pretest Scores	Posttest Scores
Chi-Square	26.78	14.84
Df	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.001

As the results were meaningful, among post hoc techniques Student- Newman-Keuls was employed to determine the significance between three sample means.

Table 12

Pretest Scores of Subsets according to Student-Newman-Keuls Test

Group	N	Means	Sig.
Experimental group 1	20	70.30	1.000
Control Group	20	83.35	1.000
Experimental Group 2	20	99.25	1.000

Note:* Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed and Harmonic Mean Sample Size (*n*= 20.000) was used.

Pretest results demonstrated that while experimental group 1 had the lowest means, 70.30, experimental group 2 had the highest means, 99.25. Also, the means for control group were 83.35. The results revealed that the means among the groups were not quite different from each other yet apparently experimental group 2 had the highest mean.

Table 13

Posttest Scores of Subsets according to Student-Newman-Keuls Test

Group	N	Means	Sig.
Experimental group 1	20	162	1.000
Experimental Group 2	20	155	1.000
Control Group	20	130.45	1.000

Note :* Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed and Harmonic Mean Sample Size (*n*= 20.000) was used.

The highest mean in posttest was merited to experimental group 1 (162.00). However, the means of experimental group 2 were close to experimental group 1, (155.00). The lowest means among the three groups were 130.45 which belonged to control group. Therefore, it was possible to deduce that at the end of the study experimental group 1 had the highest scores even there was not much observable difference in means between experimental group 1 and experimental group 2.

Chapter 5

Discussions and Conclusions

5.1 Discussions of findings for research questions.

The aim of the study was to investigate if there were any significant differences between vocabulary instructions in terms of their effect on student learning by using implicit, explicit and traditional teaching methods. Data were collected quantitatively. The following sections discuss research questions and hypothesis attentively.

5.1.2 Discussions of the findings of RQ 1: Is there a significant relationship between vocabulary instruction type and vocabulary gain? The first research question addressed the vocabulary instruction type and its notable connection to the vocabulary gain. In connection with the first research question, the first hypothesis which was, at the end of the study, the students who had explicit instruction in vocabulary learning would have better vocabulary gain, was set.

According to the findings obtained from Kruskall-Wallis Test, it is possible to deduce that instruction type affects vocabulary gain. At the beginning of the study homogenous groups were selected and when tested the difference among the groups was not significant so the study was continued. When the means in pretest and posttest are compared, it is observable that each group displayed a change. In VKS, the lowest score to be obtained was 0 and the highest was 200. When outcomes are analyzed for experimental group 1, the difference between pretest and post test result is 91%. For experimental group 2, 56% improvement is calculated. Finally, control group has an improvement rate of 46%. The percentage of pretest and posttest difference results were different in each group, showing that each group had gained vocabulary. In addition, the results demonstrate that each group improved during the study since all the groups increased their scores. However, the differences among percentages mean that not all the groups had the same level of improvement. The group who had the highest mean was experimental group 1 which proves that explicit vocabulary instruction leads to better vocabulary gain. This result is also in line with the study conducted by Hyso and Tabaku (2011). The researchers concluded that explicit teaching of vocabulary was significant and results in better vocabulary gain and text comprehension. Therefore, the first hypothesis related to first research question has been confirmed and one can reach to the conclusion that the students who had explicit instruction in vocabulary learning had better vocabulary gain at the end of the study.

Other important finding in this section was about the change in the score interval among the participants. When pretest and posttest results are compared, the results clearly reveal that each group showed progress. The scores obtained from the posttest were higher than the posttest scores in each group. The results of the experimental group 2 indicate that at the beginning of the study, they had already had the highest scores among the groups. Although at the end of the study, they could not get higher scores than experimental group 1 and the results were close to each other. In addition, control group also showed progress. Although eleven students got 80-130 in pretest, nineteen of them scored 100-180 in posttest. These outcomes demonstrate that implicit teaching had more effect than traditional teaching.

As argued by Graves (2006), one of the strategies employed while teaching vocabulary is utilizing context. In control group, the students did not have much exposure as the ones in experimental group 2 and one of the key factors of learning vocabulary is related to the exposure. Furthermore, the main reason that experimental group 1 and experimental group 2 had practically similar results might be due to the idea supported by Ellis (1993). He noted that explicit and implicit knowledge are both interchangeably transferable and explicit knowledge results in output production which enhances implicit learning as well. Since each group required to produce sentences in VKS, the written output process may be proven more effective regardless of the vocabulary teaching method. According to Hulstijn and Laufer (2001), since writing requires deeper processing than other forms of practice, it might help vocabulary acquisition. Therefore, producing sentences in VKS might also helped each group to have better vocabulary gains. In addition, other studies found a positive relationship between vocabulary teaching method and vocabulary gain. Similar studies conducted by Al- Darayseh (2014) and Shakouri, Mahdavi, Mousavi and Pouteghali (2014) resulted that implicit and explicit teaching of vocabulary lead to vocabulary gain when compared to traditional teaching.

In summary, clearly all the results reveal that each group has gained vocabulary with vocabulary instruction, so when students receive vocabulary instruction their vocabulary develops. Therefore, the answer to the first research question would be the confirmation that vocabulary instruction type affects vocabulary gain. Moreover, the difference among the scores also proves that vocabulary gain is affected by the type of instruction and according to the findings, explicit teaching of vocabulary lead to much

gain. The results are also in line with the hypothesis set: students who had explicit instruction in vocabulary learning had better vocabulary gain

5.1.3 Discussions of the findings of RQ 2: Are there significant differences between students' vocabulary gains in the experimental groups and those in the control group? RQ 2 explores the distinctions among the control and experimental groups regarding overall vocabulary gain at the end of the study. This purpose of RQ2 is to compare the groups and their instruction types. Therefore, the results of this study were hypothesized as follows:

1. The experimental group 1 will have greater vocabulary gains
2. The experimental group will perform better in the post-test.

The results of Kurtis-Wallis test proved that there are visible differences among the groups. At the beginning of the study, each group was given a pretest and the findings revealed that experimental group 2 had the highest score. Control group and experimental group 1 followed experimental group 2 in terms of pretest scores. However, the results showed a greater change in the posttest. According to the findings of the posttest, the results were different from pretest and at the end of four week period, each group demonstrated positive progress. The alteration in the pretest and posttest results proves that each group has positive improvement. Within this light, it is possible to affirm that in terms of vocabulary gain, instruction type has proven to be effective. However, the alteration of the groups are not the same in each group. After given explicit vocabulary instruction, experimental group 1, performed higher than the other groups even though the results of the pretest scores were the lowest. However, the posttest results of experimental group 2 were closer to experimental group 1. This shows that implicit instruction also had affirmative impact as well as explicit instruction. The group with the least score was control group although there was a positive development in the group.

When explicit, implicit and traditional vocabulary instructions are compared, explicit instruction confirmed to be more effectual. Similarly, results obtained from Kurtis-Wallis test justified that implicit teaching is almost as effective as explicit teaching since the scores of both experimental groups are not very different from each other. During the study, both of the experimental groups were subjected to various activities due to the nature of the instruction types they necessitate. Considering the educational background of Turkish students, the results are as hypothesized. Since the education system in general is based more on straightforward rules, it is

understandable for experimental group 1 participants to score the highest. In addition, the results for implicit instruction are also remarkable. All the statistics displayed that there are no major differences between the experimental groups. One of the determinants for this might be due to contextual activities prepared for implicit instruction. In addition to contextual activities prepared, more communicative and diversified activities were prepared since implicit instruction in nature focuses learner's attention on understanding a text or utilizing language for communicative objectives rather than the vocabulary itself (Shakouri et al., 2014). Moreover, as proposed by Krashen (1989) and Sternberg (1987) the significance of context should not be disregarded. Hence, the activities and materials provided could have had an impact on the learning process.

The second determinant of these outcomes might dwell upon the amount of exposure that the students in both experimental groups were subjected to. When the results are compared, the minimum improvement is observed in control group. Considering the diversified activities, the participants were being exposed to vocabulary more in experimental groups than the ones in the control group. As suggested by many researchers, without sufficient exposure, it may not be possible to gain new vocabulary (Nagy, Herman & Anderson, 1985; Shostak, 2001; Spada, 2001). The participants in the control group only read the texts and did the activities given in the book. There were no extra materials or tasks given to the students. Thus, the fact that control group had less exposure and learned the vocabulary in singular context might be the reason for such outcome. In experimental groups, the participants were not limited to the texts or questions given in the course book. In order to enhance vocabulary gain, they were given different types of exercises and tasks. In experimental group 1, they practiced the words through pictures, translation, mimicry, realia, word definition and matching exercises and experimental group 2 was also subjected to other texts that include the target words and assigned different tasks depending on the topic and both groups had the chance to rehearse the words often after and during each unit. Therefore, it is possible to say that both of the experimental groups were subjected revision of the vocabulary more than the ones in control group. In addition, the fact that experimental groups performed better in the end of the study might be resulted from the time allotted to those groups. As mentioned before, experimental group had more expose and given extra activities for the vocabulary whereas control group only followed the activities supplied in the book and did not do

extra activities. Therefore, it is possible to draw the conclusion that the time allotted to vocabulary teaching might have affected the outcome and it is not certain that the result of the study is due to the type of instruction.

In brief, vocabulary gain in experimental group 1 is higher than the other groups indicating that explicit teaching had more positive effect. However, there is not much difference between experimental group 1 and experimental group 2 revealing that both explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction has positive effect on vocabulary gain.

5.2. Conclusions

The results of this study indicate that vocabulary instruction has an impact on vocabulary gain. The data collected through VKS display that among the vocabulary instructions applied for this study, explicit teaching proved to be slightly more effective than implicit teaching.

To conclude, the aim of this study is to investigate if there is a significant difference between vocabulary instructions in terms of their effect on student learning at Foreign Language Preparatory Class in Izmir, Turkey. Therefore, the study is only limited to the vocabulary instruction type and the use of sentences in VKS and writing assignments in a specific context. With the gathered findings, it is concluded that there are not major differences between explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction in terms of vocabulary gain. Finally, the findings of this study might provide basis for further research in the area.

5.3 Implications

The findings and results of this study propose a number of implications for vocabulary development particularly in the area of differences among vocabulary instruction types in terms of student learning. Previous research on vocabulary has mostly focused on either the importance of reading in vocabulary (Ehri, Nunes, Willows, Schuster, Yaghoub-Zadeh, & Shanahan, 2001; Nash & Snowling, 2006; Padak, 2006; Tam, Heward & Heng, 2006; O'Connor, 2007) or vocabulary acquisition through writing activities (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Frodesen & Holten, 2003; Barcroft, 2004). Investigating both significances among vocabulary instruction types on the effect of student learning and the use of target vocabulary in written production, this study concluded various implications.

The first implication is related to the instruction type to be applied for target vocabulary. The findings of the study revealed that the students who were given explicit or implicit instruction gained vocabulary and there were not major differences between them as well. As posited by many researchers, this study also concludes that in teaching vocabulary there should not be only one instruction type (Ellis, 2015; Hulstijn, 1997; Long, 1991; Schmitt, 1990: 2000: 2001; Swanborn & Glopper, 2006). More specifically, both implicit and explicit instruction types should be used together to enhance learning.

In brief, there are various studies that investigate the differences among vocabulary teaching instructions (Hyso & Tabaku, 2011; Nation & Waring, 1997; Shakouri et al., 2014). However, not many studies conducted in Turkish context. As there is not adequate research with regard to this field and especially in Turkish context, there is a gap to conduct extensive research on vocabulary teaching strategies and the findings of the study might give insight to other researchers.

5.4 Recommendations for Further Research

This study has several recommendations for further studies. First of all, it is recommended to conduct the same study with more participants because the analysis of this study was mostly based on quantitative findings and more participants could provide different results.

Second, future research can also be carried out with higher level students. All participants in this study were beginner B1 level students. However, with higher level students, the results of the study might be different.

Third, pretest and posttest VKS (adapted from Paribakht and Wesche, 1997) were given to the participants due to its test-retest availability. However, another vocabulary test can be given to measure written production better.

Final recommendation would be related to testing the retention of the target words. The study was conducted in four weeks which was only followed by a posttest yet another test can be given to measure the retention of the words to draw firm conclusions regarding which instruction type has more effect on student learning.

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APPENDICES
A: SAMPLE VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE SCALE TEST

Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (adapted from Paribakht& Wesche, 1997)

Name:
Surname:

Please rate the following VKS in accordance to the scale given below;

6. The Word is not familiar at all.
7. The Word is familiar, but I don't know the meaning.
8. I know the meaning of this Word, but I am not sure I always use it correctly.
9. Give a correct synonym or translation. (If you choose 4, please also complete 5).
10. I know what it means and I can use it correctly. (Please write a sentence).

WORDS	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
Brief					
Requirement					
Obvious					
Punctual					
Separate					
Tend					
Serious					
Engagement					

Fatal					
Ancient					
Artefact					
Compulsory					
Display					
Excavation					
Exhibit					
Field					
Period					
Research					
Tuition					
Attempt					

Consider					
Convince					
Issue					
Major					
Prevent					
Realize					
Select					
Annual					
Challenge					
Decade					
Drought					
Effect					
Solve					

Predict					
Submerge					
Encourage					
Evidence					
Reduce					
Injure					
Involve					

B. SAMPLE ACTIVITIES OF IMPLICIT TECHING ACTIVITIES

Facts about Marriage

In Turkey, marriage can be divided in to three major steps which takes a lot of time, money and effort! The first step is getting engaged. Before the actual wedding ceremony, most couples have engagement ceremonies. This ceremony can take place a week even a year before the marriage depending on the couple's choice. It can be small and modest or huge and glamorous. In many regions, it is a tradition for bride's side to pay for all the expenses for engagement so it is the girl's side decision to choose what type of engagement ceremony it will be to select.

The second step is wedding ceremony. Well, this is the day when the couples make the most serious decision of their lives. However, for many brides, this day is not just that simple. After days, maybe years of preparation, the perfect wedding may still not be quite ready. Flowers, food, quests, dance, music, etc. there are thousands of things to be considered. However, it is time for groom's side to pay for all the expenses.

Along with their wedding ceremonies, many lovers plan their honeymoon. After all the effort given to the engagement and wedding ceremonies, it is time to relax and have some fun. However, similar to the ceremonies, planning the honeymoon is also crucial. Maybe it is the most important week of all. When it comes to choosing a place, the majority of the newly-wed couples tend to select Rome, Paris, Thailand. All these cities are perfect and it might not be easy to find the best location. Indeed, it may be challenging to select the best honeymoon destination. Still, it is the budget that has the biggest effect!

A) Read the text. Write true (T), false (F) or does not say (DNS) next to the statements below.

1. The couples do not have to think about anything related to wedding ceremony. _____
2. Planning engagement is more important than planning honeymoon. _____
3. Because they pay for the expenses the bride's side decide to the type of engagement. _____
4. Rome is a highly popular honeymoon destination. _____
5. Wedding traditions change from region to region. _____

B) Choose a country and write a minimum 300 word essay related to their wedding traditions. Group work.

Should museums keep artefacts that they cannot display?

When we visit museums, we are often amazed by all the artefacts that are on display. However, for many museums, the items that are exhibited are only a small part of the total collection. Museums do not really own what is in their collections but keep it for the benefit of the public. Because of this, it does not seem right that so many things are not being shown to the public, simply because there is not enough space. This essay will look at what alternatives there are to this situation. It will conclude that there are a number of ways in which museums can reduce the number of artefacts that cannot be exhibited.

Many museums around the world have a lot more artefacts than they can display at any one time. For example, the Natural History Museum in London has 70 million objects in its collection, while in just one of the collections at the British Museum there are over 2 million items from archeological sites. Although the collections are very important for people who want to research into these subjects, it is impossible for everything to be displayed for the general public. What is most important in these situations is that the collections are preserved – kept in good condition – for the future. However, this doesn't mean that all museums should keep everything they have. There are better ways to solve the problem of having too many items.

Remembering that all these artefacts are for the general public, there are several ways in which museums can reduce their collections. Firstly, they can give them to another museum which can preserve them better. Secondly, they can transfer them to other museums where they will be considered more valuable and put on display. Thirdly, they can loan them to other institutions that will provide a better environment for them. Sometimes, in very special circumstances, items can be put on sale to the general public to raise money to preserve or even to buy other artefacts.

Reducing the number of items that a museum cannot display or even look after should be part of the good management of the collection. Museums can transfer, loan or give items to other museums which can preserve them better and put them on display for more people to see. In this way, museums are doing their job of preserving history for the good of the public.

A) Read the text. Write true (T), false (F) or does not say (DNS) next to the statements below.

1. Museums should always keep all the artifacts they have. _____
2. Some collections should be kept together in the museum for research purposes. _____
3. The most important job of the museum is to look after the items in their collections. _____
4. Museums should exchange artefacts with other museums. _____
5. There are several solutions to the problem of museums having too many artefacts. _____

B) Fill in the blanks with no more than three words.

1. Most museums are able to show …… of their collection.
2. Most museums do not …… the objects in their collection
3. Their collection is there for the benefit of ……
4. For the items on display, it most important that they are ……
5. There are several ways in which museums can ……. too many artefacts.
6. In some cases, artefacts can be sold to raise money for ……

C) Imagine that you are the curator of the History Museum of Izmir. Which artefacts would you display? Prepare a plan of action.

Deaths on the road – what can be done?

One of the major transport issues today is that of death on the road. In 2010, over 1.24 million people were killed in traffic accidents. That is an amount equal to the population of Bahrain. Of these 1.24 million people, the majority were young; in many countries, car accidents are the most common cause of death for the 18–24 age group. We look at the situations that lead to traffic accidents and propose some solutions to these problems, and suggest some of the most useful actions that can be taken to reduce deaths on the road.

Although there are many reasons for the high number of deaths on the road, 90% of accidents are caused by human error. This major cause includes activities such as speeding, not wearing a motorcycle helmet – which protects against head injuries – and not wearing a seat belt. Additionally, accidents can be caused by people not paying attention to other road users, being distracted by things such as mobile phones, and

driving without care. Other causes of accidents can be the condition of the roads and of the cars on them. The number of cars in a country and the drivers' attitude to road safety both have an effect on the number of people killed in road accidents. However, there are actions that can be taken to reduce the number of road deaths.

Most solutions to improve road safety are about changing the behavior of drivers. One of the most obvious actions that can be taken is to introduce speed limits. People who go faster than the speed limit should be punished with a heavy financial penalty. In areas where road accidents are common, cameras can be put on the sides of the road to watch the speed of the traffic. Laws should be introduced to make it compulsory for all drivers and passengers to wear a seat belt, with financial penalties if they do not. In areas where people live, speed bumps, which encourage drivers to go slower, should be introduced. Finally, drivers should be made aware of the dangers of driving too fast or without care.

There is no doubt that road accidents are one of the major causes of death in the world today and it is an issue that affects all of us. Unless governments take action, more people will be killed on the roads. However, if everyone drove more slowly and carefully, fewer people would die.

A) Compare the problems and solutions of Bahrain's traffic accidents to Turkey's according to the text.

B) Prepare an awareness-raising charity organization on how to prevent traffic accidents.

C. SAMPLE ACTIVITIES OF EXPLICIT TEACHING ACTIVITIES

A) Match the words to the meanings.

How hunting and overfishing(1) cause animals to become endangered(2)

The difference between endangered and extinct (3) animals

How governments and normal people can protect (4) animals

How humans destroy(5) and pollute(6) animal habitat(7)

a) Make dirty

b) Died out

c) Keep safe

d) Fishing too much

e) Damage

f) Living area

g) in danger

A) Match the words with their definitions:

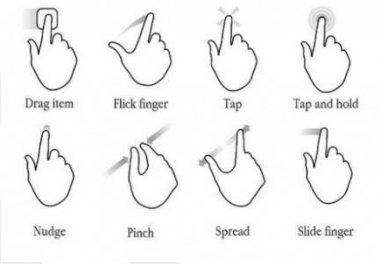
1) Catching so many fish in a part of the sea that there are not many fish left there	a) common
2) To try to find someone or something	b)hunt
3) A specific part of land where certain animals (or people) live	c) fine
4) Usual, seen in a lot of places	d) illegal
5) Easy to know because of being seen before	e) overfishing
6) To try to catch and kill an animal, a bird or a person	f) habitat
7) An amount of money to be paid as a punishment	g) search (for)
8) Not allowed by law	h) familiar

A) Match the words to the pictures.

9) Disability self-esteem drought flood gesture gravity benefit

……

……..



D. SAMPLE LESSON FOR CONTROL GROUP

Lesson Plan

Aims:

- To teach how to read for detail by using the texts given.
- To teach target vocabulary by using the activities supplied in the book

Time: 40 minutes

Materials:

1. Course book

Target Words:

Brief, certain, obvious, common, important, serious, separate

Lesson steps:

1) As a warm-up activity, students complete “Preparing to watch” part for by looking at the pictures on the page to use visual to predict content.

2) Students watch the video on page 34 and do the “while listening” activity.

3) After the video, the questions are answered as open class.

4) 5-minute discussion related to the topic of the video and reading text 1.

5) Students read the text titled “Customs around the World”. (5-7 minutes)

6) Complete the comprehension questions. (7-10 minutes)

7) Match the words to their definitions. (5 minutes)

8) The answers were first peer checked and then open class

Teacher’s notes:

For unknown words;

- Turkish and English definitions of the words are given.
- Other forms of the words is also given and explained.
- No extra activity is given for vocabulary.

For reading text:

- Students will silently read the text.
- No group or pair work is required.

E. INTERVIEW SCRIPT

Interview Questions

1. What types of vocabulary teaching strategies do you generally use in class?

As a teacher, I always favor traditional teaching. I mean, students should be given first Turkish and then English definition of the words. In this way, I think the students can learn and memorize the words easily. Therefore, they can get better results from the exams.

2. Do you prepare or use extra materials for target vocabulary?

I only prepare extra materials before the exam which are usually fill in the blanks worksheet. I think the course book is designed well enough and I do not see the need for preparing extra-materials. However, if the meaning of a word is not clear enough, I write extra example sentences on the board.

3. Do you only teach the words regarding their meanings on the book?

No. I always teach part of speech and give the secondary meanings of the words. I think it is very important to teach in chunks or with their collocations.

4. What are your opinions toward explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction?

Actually, the book have some implicit activities for reading and I use them. Last term, I sometimes prepared implicit activities for vocabulary, but now I do not have enough time. I like the explicit activities in the book because I believe in this students can learn more directly.

F. DETAILED RESULTS OF TABLE 4

Table 4
The sum of the Pretest Values

	Study Group			Statistic	SD
The sum of the pretest values	Experimental Group 2	Mean		100.2643	3.36240
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	93.2067	
			Upper Bound	107.1019	
		5% Trimmed Mean		100.1270	
		Median		99.5	
		Variance		226.115	
		SD		15.03713	
		Minimum		68	
		Maximum		131	
		Range		63	
		Interquartile Range		14	
		Skewness		.190	.512
		Kurtosis		.757	.992
	Control Group	Mean		83.6811	3.48069
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	76.3960	
			Upper Bound	90.9663	

	5% Trimmed Mean		82.0901	
	Median		81.1819	
	Variance		242.304	
	SD		15.56612	
	Minimum		67	
	Maximum		129	
	Range		62	
	Interquartile Range		22.06	
	Skewness		1.392	.512
	Kurtosis		2.333	.992
Experimental Group 1	Mean		71.1546	2.76374
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	65.3701	
		Upper Bound	76.9392	
	5% Trimmed Mean		70.9962	
	Median		67	
	Variance		152.765	
	SD		12.35982	
	Minimum		52.00	
	Maximum		93.16	
	Range		41.16	
	Interquartile Range		22.68	
	Skewness		.502	.512
	Kurtosis		-1.053	.992

G. DETAILED RESULTS OF TABLE 5

Table 5
Descriptives Table for the sum of the Posttest Values

	Study Group			Statistic	SD
The sum of the posttest values	Experimental Group 2	Mean		156.7059	4.36799
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	147.5636	
			Upper Bound	165.8482	
		5% Trimmed Mean		158.1732	
		Median		159.8750	
		Variance		381.588	
		SD		19.53427	
		Minimum		101	
		Maximum		186	
		Range		85	
		Interquartile Range		27.03	
		Skewness		-.953	.512
		Kurtosis		2.249	.992
	Control Group	Mean		130.45	5.34469
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	119.2634	
			Upper Bound	141.6366	

	5% Trimmed Mean		130.111	
	Median		122.5	
	Variance		571.313	
	SD		23.90216	
	Minimum		92	
	Maximum		175	
	Range		83	
	Interquartile Range		43.25	
	Skewness		.386	.512
	Kurtosis		-1.098	.992
Experimental Group 1	Mean		162.9197	4.59062
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	153.3114	
		Upper Bound	172.5280	
	5% Trimmed Mean		163.2441	
	Median		163.3750	
	Variance		421.476	
	SD		20.52987	
	Minimum		122	
	Maximum		198	
	Range		76	
	Interquartile Range		28.49	
	Skewness		-.322	.512
	Kurtosis		-.130	.992

H. DETAILED RESULTS OF THE DIFFERENCE TABLE

Table 6
The sum of the Difference Table

	Study Group			Statistic	SD
Posttest (-) pretest values	Experimental Group 1	Mean		56.6416	5.21247
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	45.7318	
			Upper Bound	67.5515	
		5% Trimmed Mean		57.0463	
		Median		59	
		Variance		543.397	
		SD		23.31087	
		Minimum		2	
		Maximum		140	
		Range		102	
		Interquartile Range		36.43	
		Skewness		-.296	.512
		Kurtosis		.559	.992
	Control Group	Mean		46.7689	6.26565
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	33.6547	
			Upper Bound	59.8830	

	5% Trimmed Mean		47.7432	
	Median		45	
	Variance		785.168	
	SD		28.02086	
	Minimum		-27	
	Maximum		103	
	Range		130	
	Interquartile Range		28	
	Skewness		-.393	.512
	Kurtosis		2.081	.992
Experimental Group 1	Mean		91.7651	4.14095
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	83.0979	
		Upper Bound	100.4322	
	5% Trimmed Mean		90.9612	
	Median		92.4196	
	Variance		342.949	
	SD		18.51889	
	Minimum		52	
	Maximum		146	
	Range		94	
	Interquartile Range		10.91	
	Skewness		.600	.512
	Kurtosis		4.035	.992

CURRICULUM VITA

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PUBLICATIONS

Book Chapters

Aksel, Z (2013) Learning through Observation: Changing Beliefs and Practices. Professional Development through Research

Aksel, Z & Ozmen, P (2014) Enhancing Motivation through Reflection on Motivation

Aksel, Z & Ozmen, P (2015) Practicing Vocabulary through Facebook (pending)

Aksel, Z & Ozmen, P (2015) EFL Students Use of Subject-Verb Agreement: A Study through Error Analysis (in press)

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

Paper Presentations

IATEFL – Enhancing Motivation through Reflection on Motivation

ELT Conference, Gediz University Learning through Observation: Changing Beliefs and Practices.

ELT Conference, Ege University

Poster Presentation

IATEFL- EFL Students Use of Subject-Verb Agreement: A Study through Error Analysis