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VOCABULARY SIZE AND DEPTH IN LEXICAL COMPETENCE

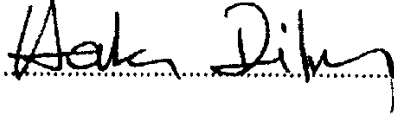MASTER OF ARTS THESIS

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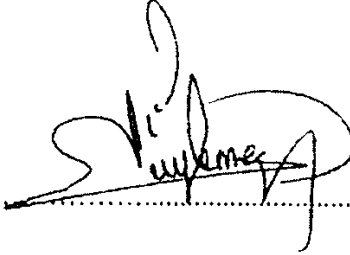Assist. Prof. Dr. Hakan DİLMAN

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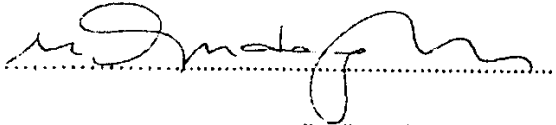Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü'ne,

27.02.2013 tarihinde tezinin savunmasını yapan Mert TOPKARAOĞLU'na ait "Vocabulary Size and Depth in Lexical Competence" başlıklı çalışma, Jürimiz Tarafından Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Tezli Yüksek Lisans Programında Yüksek Lisans Tezi Olarak Kabul Edilmiştir.

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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to determine whether studying vocabulary both in size and depth in lexical competence would increase the vocabulary richness of the students and enhance their production in foreign language classrooms. For this study, the data were collected through Cambridge Quick Placement Tests, Vocabulary Levels Tests, Productive Vocabulary Levels Tests and Vocabulary Enhancement Activities which were specially constructed for this study. The data were coded and analyzed by the help of SPSS 17 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) computer program. The findings revealed that the students who were exposed to large amounts of vocabulary during the class hours specifically devoted for vocabulary teaching within the curriculum achieved to be efficient and effective language users in the target language.

Key words: vocabulary size, vocabulary depth, lexical competence, vocabulary teaching.

ÖZET

Bu çalışma sözcük bilgisi bağlamında sözcük sayısı ve derinliğinin çalışılmasının, yabancı dil sınıflarında öğrencilerin sözcük zenginliğini ve sözcük üretimlerini nasıl artırdığını araştırmak amacını gütmüştür. Veriler, bu çalışma için özel olarak hazırlanan sözcük öğretme alıştırmaları, kelime bilgisi ölçme testleri, kelime üretimi ölçme testleri ve seviye tespit sınavları aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Veriler, SPSS 17 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) yardımıyla analiz edilmiştir. Elde edilen bulgulara göre okul müfredatı içinde sözcük öğretimi için özel olarak ayrılmış ders saatleri süresince çok sayıda sözcüğü öğrenmeye maruz bırakılan öğrenciler hedef dilde etkili ve yeterli bir dil kullanıcısı olmayı başarmışlardır.

Anahtar kelimeler: sözcük sayısı, sözcük derinliği, sözcük bilgisi, sözcük öğretimi.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CEF:	Common European Framework
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
ELT:	English Language Teaching
GSL:	General Service Word Lists
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
PVT:	Productive Vocabulary Test
QPT:	Quick Placement Test
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
VLT:	Vocabulary Levels Test

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study and the limitations of the study has been outlined.

1.1 Background of the Study

Teaching of vocabulary in a foreign language especially in English is thought to be a tedious and a difficult process. The main reason of this is vocabulary was seen secondary in importance by traditional teaching approaches and methods (Harwood, 2002, p.140) and vocabulary teaching was considered with the idea that learners can learn vocabulary on their own with implicit strategy, guessing and inferring from the context (Conzett, 2000, p.71). Language teaching has long regarded grammar and vocabulary as two parts and it has also long been thought that the former focused on structure, the latter on single words (Harwood, 2002, p.140). Nation clearly defines it as;

> There was a time when teaching and learning a foreign or second language was viewed basicly as a matter of controlling its grammar. Various methods such as Audio Lingual Method and Grammar Translation had mastery of structures as their main goal, and vocabulary development was regarded as some kind of auxiliary activity often through memorising decontextualized word lists. The relatively slight importance attached to the lexicon was also visible in the scant attention paid to it by second language acquisition researchers until the last decade (2001, pp.xiii).

In the traditional approaches mentioned above, grammar teaching was given utmost importance and grammar was considered as the main element of language teaching and communication in language. In other words, language learners tend to be required to master the basic structures of language first, and then to start building their L2 vocabulary.

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As the studies of vocabulary teaching and research develop, teaching vocabulary in ESL and EFL has been an area of interest in vocabulary research (Laufer, 1998; Lee, 2003; Lee & Muncie, 2006; Melka, 1997; Mondrea & Wiersma, 2004). The recent researches revealed that students have difficulty in learning the vocabulary with traditional methods and don't know the different usages of the words that they attained. During the learning process of a foreign language, L2 learners mostly learn the first meaning of the related word and neglect the other meanings. The study about vocabulary teaching carried out by Schmitt and Meara on Japanese students in 1997 also showed unexpected results. The researchers found out that the students know the meanings of words but they do not know their different inflections and usages. Again in the same study, though the students succeeded in the vocabulary parts of the comprehension level exams, they failed in the parts that need top skills (synthesis and analysis) and couldn't use the vocabulary correctly (1997, pp.17–36). In this study, vocabulary teaching was adopted as noun, adjective, verb structures and several different usages of these structures were emphasized.

When the students who learn English as a foreign language are considered, it can be seen that the real problem is not the noun, adjective or verb structures but different inflections and usages as well as syntactic, pragmatic and sociocultural aspects of these. In 1993, after the publishing of Lewis's book, The Lexical Approach, words like syntactic aspects, lexical phrases and lexical structures have been started to be widely debated in English Language Teaching. According to the lexical approach, the newly accepted approach in language teaching, the building stones of language teaching are formed by lexis (words) and lexical phrases (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p.132). Morgan Lewis also focuses on the heart of the problem saying that "lexical deficiencies" lead to grammatical errors, and more lexical work instead of grammar correction should be done together with intermediate and advanced learners (2000, p.17). In the same way, Wilkins

emphasizes the significance of lexis indicating with a motto "without grammar little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (1990, p.8). Furthermore, as Meara underlined, lexical competence is an aspect of L2 competence which has not received a great deal of attention as it is lumped indiscriminately with other forms of linguistic form (1996, p.1). He clarifies the definition as "whichever way you look at it, lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence" (Meara, 1996, pp.35–53).

On the other hand, the definition of lexical competence in the Common European Framework (C.E.F.) is concise and conveniently simple: "the knowledge of and ability to use the vocabulary of a language" (Council for Cultural Cooperation, 2001, p.110). By 1980, attitudes towards teaching vocabulary were not all that different from what they had been twenty years earlier, and were largely dominated by ideas inherited from the 1930s (Meara, 1996, pp.35–53). According to Meara, there are several reasons why vocabulary teaching has been given less importance unlike the other areas of language teaching. One of these is that most people, and this includes most language teachers, are especially less informed about the role that lexis plays in language (1996, pp.35–53). There is some evidence for this in a recent paper by Zechmeister, D'Anna, Hall, Paus and Smith (cited in Meara, 1996, pp.35–53). In their research, they asked people a set of deceptively simple questions about words, such as:

a) how many words are there in English?

b) how many of these words would you estimate are part of your passive vocabulary?

c) how many of these words would you estimate are part of your active vocabulary?

There are no "correct" answers to these questions. The answers depend on how you define the concept "what is a word?". People naturally came up with their own definitions. The researchers asserted that the main point of interest in here is that

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the estimates which the people provided showed an enormous range of variation (1993, pp.188–206). As Meara put it forward:

> Clearly the way you think about your own vocabulary and the implicit assumptions you have about it, influence the way you go about teaching L2 vocabulary to learners. If you think that your own active vocabulary is about 4,000 words, and you plan to teach your students 2,000 words, then they will know about half of what you think you know yourself. On the other hand, if you think your own vocabulary is about 40,000 words, and you teach your students 2,000 words, they will be learning only one twentieth of what you think you know as a fluent native speaker (1996, pp.35–53).

In the light of all these views, lexical competence in a second language can be described in four different easily measurable dimensions: regarding what is known about words, how well words are known, how many words are known, and which words are known (Öztürk, 2003, p.4).

The first way to describe lexical competence is to describe what the language learner knows about words. It is widely acknowledged now that there are many 'dimensions' of knowledge to be learnt about each word. There are a number of researchers who have developed classifications of the knowledge types of the word (Nation, 1990, pp.29–50; Bogaards, 2000, pp.490–516). The knowledge can be divided into five categories as form, meaning, grammar, organization, and discourse. Form refers to the written and spoken form of the word. Meaning includes conceptual meaning as well as the connotational meaning of a word. For instance, as Öztürk puts it, "knowing that the word slim has a positive meaning whereas its synonym skinny has negative connotations is part of knowing the meaning of these words (2003, p.4).

Grammar involves both morphological and syntactic knowledge about words (Öztürk, 2003, p.4). When a learner knows the grammar of a word, it means that he

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knows its grammatical category (verb, noun etc.), and the kind of sentence structure in which it can be used.

Organization refers to the relations a word might have to the other words in the language (Meara, 1996, pp.35–53). A word might also have a looser associative relation to other words in the lexicon. For instance, the words butterfly and summer (Meara, 1996, p.47) or cabbage and caterpillar (Meara, 1996, p.49) are related because they co-occur in the real-life experience of English native- speakers. Meara also argues that:

> There is some evidence to suggest that L2 speakers' vocabularies are not as well structured as the vocabularies of L1 speakers. L2 speakers, for instance, find it less easy to produce associations than native speakers do, and are often unable to see connections between words that are obvious to native speakers. This suggests that 'lexical organisation' might be an important dimension of lexical competence, and that a measure of this organisation might be a useful way of distinguishing between learners at different levels of proficiency (1996, p.49).

The important thing to note here is that 'organisation' is a property of the vocabulary as a whole, not just a characteristic of individual words.

Finally, knowing the discourse of a word means knowing about appropriate contexts of use. These are knowledge of the stylistic value of a word (i.e. whether it is formal, informal), the register (whether it belongs to written or spoken language), knowledge about the frequency of use, and knowledge of any multi-word units it is a part of.

The second aspect of lexical competence is determining how well a particular word is known. This is mainly related with what the learner is able to do with the word. That is to say, knowledge of words can be measured concerning what the learner can or cannot do. For this, we should ask the simple question whether the learner knows the word or not and the question of what it means to know a word leads us to the depth of vocabulary which includes knowledge of various aspects of a given word. Regarding the aspect of vocabulary control, Öztürk criticizes the Common

European Framework for defining the degree of knowledge predominantly in terms of error and she claims the fact that a learner has produced only a few errors in productive use doesn't mean that he has an advanced lexical competence. Therefore, it is possible "to produce flawless discourse with limited vocabulary" (2003, p.6). For example, the graded readers for foreign language learners are an example to this. But research by Canale & Swain in 1980 also shows that when language learners stretch their linguistic resources, they make more mistakes (1980, pp.1–47). So, it can be said that lexical errors can be a sign of growing vocabulary instead of lack of lexical competence.

The third and the basic dimension of lexical competence is size. In other words, it is another way to determine the number of words known. Meara claims that "All other things being equal, learners with big vocabularies are more proficient in a wide range of language skills than learners with smaller vocabularies, and there is some evidence to support the view that vocabulary skills make a significant contribution to almost all aspects of L2 proficiency" (1996, p.3). The number of words known by a learner needs to be made clear, nevertheless, in comparison to the number of words known to a native speaker. Although the numbers vary widely, an educated English native speaker has a vocabulary around 20,000 word families (Nation & Waring, 1997, p.7). Nation and Waring also suggested that " ... between 3–5000 word families is needed to provide a basis for comprehension" in a second language and around 2–3000 words are needed for productive use (Nation & Waring, pp. 6–19). In addition, Hazenberg and Hulstijn claimed a person who learns English either as a second language or as a foreign language learners may need 10,000 base words for university studies (1996, pp.145–163). It is beyond a doubt that second or foreign language learners' vocabulary sizes somehow affect their degree of comprehension, language proficiency and vocabulary production level.

As the fourth and the last dimension, lexical competence can be characterized by listing the words within the entire vocabulary of a language that should be known at a specific point in the process of learning a language. There is no native speaker who knows every single word in his native language so there is a need to mention the target vocabulary definitely. The main purpose that the determined words should fulfill is a successful communication. A number of standards have been presented for the selection of vocabulary that would be most useful for successful communication in L2. These are frequency, coverage, range and availability (White, 1988, p.49).

'Frequency' is "the total number of occurrences of an item in a given corpus of language" (White, 1988, p.49). Learning more frequent words before less frequent ones is considered more useful because this gives quick access to meaning and also provides the basic means to self-expression.

'Coverage' refers to "the number of things which can be expressed by any given item" (White, 1988, p.49). The verb go, for instance, has wider coverage than other verbs of movement like move, walk or travel and therefore is more useful to learn.

'Range' is "the number of texts in which a word is found in a given corpus" (White, 1988, p.49). If a word appears in a great number of texts it has a high range. Such words are considered useful as a high range word would be used in understanding a number of different texts.

Eventually, 'availability' is "the readiness with which a word is remembered and used by native speakers in certain situations" (White, 1988, p.49). The availability of salt and pepper is equal for an English native speaker although they are not equally frequent.

By far the most commonly used standard to describe targeted levels of vocabulary knowledge quantitatively is frequency. The description includes multiple-levels of lexical knowledge. For example, learners' vocabulary sizes are often estimated in

percentages for each of the frequency bands like 1000-word level, 2000-word level, 3000-word level etc. (Nation,1990, p.12). The thing is that lexical competence can be a manageable idea although it is not presented to be and it might be practical to describe the noticeable features of lexical competence regarding these four dimensions.

Keeping all these ideas in mind the purpose of this study is to check whether focusing on vocabulary size and depth (studying vocabulary) via lexical competence is effective in foreign language classrooms.

1.2   Significance of the Study

There is no clear cut number about how many words must be known by a L2 learner in order to be efficient and effective language user in target language. But it is clear that those who have richness in their vocabulary knowledge both in size and depth can easily express their ideas and concepts in a more native-like manner because they have a better communicative competence in target language. As Hatch and Brown says natural learner interest or motivation may cause learners to pay more attention to some words than others (1995, p.373). In addition to interest, actual need may make a difference in whether encountered words are learned. The number of the words known by a L2 learner is not enough just to be an efficient and effective language user. L2 learner must also have huge amount of information about the words he acquires. Special emphasize must be given to vocabulary teaching within the process of foreign language teaching. In order to make L2 learners efficient and effective target language users, their lexical competence both in receptive and productive vocabulary level and also in size and depth must be developed through activities specially designed for vocabulary building. In this dissertation whether studying vocabulary through lexical competence increases the general language proficiency, vocabulary size and vocabulary production levels of

the students will be researched. Moreover the ways how to foster vocabulary learning will be investigated and the results will be explained to reach a solution.

1.3 Vocabulary in the History of Second Language Teaching

This section will deal historical background of the teaching of vocabulary, definitions, the development and practice of vocabulary teaching. It will also describe the goals of vocabulary learning and refer to the studies conducted about assessing vocabulary size and depth.

As Brown & Rodgers describe, the field of second language teaching has seen several different methodologies come and go, and each language teaching methodology emphasizes certain aspects of language according to its proponents' beliefs. The second half of the 20th century has sometimes been called 'the age of methods' in second language teaching (2002, p.222). As Brown (2007, p.39) indicated, by the early 1990s, it was readily apparent that a new method was not needed, and a new concept, the postmethod era, was used by authors such as Kumaravadivelu, (2001,2006) and Richards and Rodgers (2001). Nevertheless, Bell stated that "whether postmethodologists like it or not, methods have not gone away, nor are they likely to go" (2003, p.325). Brown seemed to suggest that the field of foreign and second language teaching is now moving toward an enlightened and eclectic approach (2007, pp.40–42). Nunan briefly commented:

> It has been realized that there never was and probably never will be a method for all and the focus in recent years has been based on the development of classroom tasks and activities which are consonant with what we know about second language acquisition and which are also in keeping with the Dynamics of the classroom itself. (1991, p.228).

Richards and Rodgers presented 18 main methods in language teaching (2001, p.vii), and Brown and Rodgers summarized the distinctive features of the methods as follows: (a) Audio-lingual Method (the importance of students having repeated and systematic productive practice), (b) Communicative Language Teaching (the

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role of meaningful communication is the focus of language teaching), (c) Community Language Learning (focuses on the classroom with learners' larger lives involved in learning), (d) Competency-Based Language Teaching (specifies learning outcomes rather than learning processes), (e) Content-Based Instruction (teaching organized around subject-matter structure rather than linguistic structure), (f) Cooperative Language Learning (focuses on small-group interaction and on the learning contribution that learners make to other learners), (g) Grammar Translation (detailed analysis of grammatical rules leading to a translation of texts into and out of a target language), (h) Lexical Approach (focuses on words and lexical chunks as critical learning and use elements of the language), (i) Multiple Intelligence (emphasis on accommodating various learning styles, preferences and capabilities), (j) Natural Approach (the significance of the teacher in helping make new language interesting and comprehensible), (k) Neurolinguistic Programming (set of general communication techniques based on modeling behaviours of successful language learners and users), (l) Silent Way (focus on learning rather than teaching with student problem-solving central to learning), (m) Situational Language Teaching (the role of meaningful context in the situations in which language will be used), (n) Structural Method (the focus of language teaching is on phonological and syntactic structures of the language), (o) Suggestopedia (focus on the importance of relaxation and rhythm in learning), (p) Task-Based Approaches (engaging and relevant tasks as language teaching focus), (q) Total Physical Response (the tie between body and brain in language learning), and (r) Whole Language (perspective involving learner participation in authentic, interesting situations, and the language which naturally emerges in such situation) (2002, p.118).

Moreover, in an effort to organize the history of language instruction pedagogy, Wilson (2008) divided the modern history of language teaching pedagogy into three eras, arranged around the communicative era: 1) pre-communicative era (Grammar Translation, Direct Method, and Audio-lingual Method), 2) communicative era (the

Natural Approach, the Functional-Notional Approach, Total Physical Response, Suggestopedia, the Silent Way, and Communicative Language Learning), and 3) post-communicative era, (the Lexical Approach, Content-Based Instruction, Task-Based Instruction, and Focus on Form).

Among the eight well-known language teaching methods that Larsen-Freeman described (the Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio-lingual Method, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia or Desuggestopedia (Larsen-Freeman, 2000), Community Language Learning, the Total Physical Response Method, and the Communicative Approach), vocabulary is emphasized in the Direct Method and Suggestopedia, (or Desuggestopedia), and both grammar and vocabulary are emphasized over other language areas in the Grammar Translation Method and the Total Physical Response Method (1986, p.83).

Zimmerman noted that obsolete vocabulary lists were presented to students in the Grammar Translation Method (1997, pp.5–19). Citing from Kelly (1969), Zimmerman pointed out that in this method direct teaching of vocabulary only took place when a word illustrated a grammatical rule and bilingual dictionaries also became common as reference tools. Schmitt noted that this method was mainly concerned with explicit grammar teaching and translation as language practice (2000, p.157). Besides, in the Grammar Translation Method, explicit attention to vocabulary is often in the form of text-linked glossaries as aids to translation (usually from the second language to the first one) and little support is generally given to help learners retain new words for active usage (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008, pp.1-61).

In the Direct Method, as Zimmerman indicated, vocabulary was taught directly without translation using realia, demonstration, and association (1997, pp.5–19). Oral skills are emphasized in this method (Schmitt, 2000, p.12). The Reading Method in the United States and Situational Language Teaching in Great Britain in the 1920s and 1930s, as Zimmerman observed, seemed to give vocabulary a new

position in second language teaching, as it was, for the first time, considered to be one of the most important aspects in second language learning, and the importance was placed on forming a scientific and rational basis for selecting vocabulary content of language courses (using frequency lists). In addition, Schmitt mentioned that in the Reading Method reading and vocabulary control were emphasized (2000, p.13).

The Audio-lingual Method or Audiolingualism offered a severely limited repertoire of techniques and strategies for promoting the retention of foreign language vocabulary (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008, pp.1–61). Zimmerman indicated that this method prioritized the role of acquiring structural patterns and vocabulary was chosen according to their simplicity and familiarity. Zimmerman also added that vocabulary in the Audio-lingual Method was considered a tool to illustrate grammatical topics rather than as items with communicative value in themselves (1997, pp.5–19). This method stressed the importance of forming good habits through drills (Schmitt, 2000, p.13). As Long and Richards indicated, teaching and learning a foreign or second language was once viewed primarily as a method of controlling its grammar, and vocabulary development in Audiolingualism and the Grammar Translation was regarded as some kind of auxiliary activity, usually through memorizing decontextualized word lists (2001, p.xiii).

Unlike the Audio-lingual Method; Communicative Language Teaching, as Schmitt presented, puts an emphasis on fluency over accuracy (2000, p.14). Moreover, in this teaching approach, vocabulary has received little explicit attention in either theoretical or methodological publications about notional and functional syllabi (Zimmerman, 1997, pp.5–19). Finally in the Natural Approach proposed by Krashen and Terrell (1983), which is based on a model comprising five hypotheses (the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the input hypothesis, and the affective-filter hypothesis), vocabulary is

deemed to be very important to the language acquisition process and the suggested teaching method for vocabulary stresses the importance of interesting and relevant input. Also as Krashen and Terrell put it, in this teaching approach, "students' attention is not on vocabulary learning per se but on communication, on the goal of an activity. In this way, we encourage true vocabulary acquisition" (1983, p. 56).

Reviewing some major language teaching methodologies (the Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Reading Method, Audiolingualism, and Communicative Language Teaching), Schmitt concluded that one common characteristic of these methodologies is that they did not treat vocabulary in a principled way except the Reading Method (2000, p.157). Zimmerman, on the other hand, concluded her review of historical trends in teaching second language vocabulary by saying that the central role played by vocabulary in the reality of language learning will one day be reflected in the attention directed to it in research and the classroom (1997, pp.5–19). The chronological history of vocabulary in language teaching methods is given in (Table 1.1).

Table 1.1 Vocabulary in Language Teaching Methods

	Main Characteristics	Treatment of Vocabulary
1. Grammar-Translation Method	Detailed analysis of grammatical rules leading to a translation of texts into & out of a target language.	Both grammar & vocabulary are emphasized. Bilingual vocabulary lists were presented.
2. Direct Method	Meaning => Target language, no translation.	Vocabulary is emphasized. Vocabulary is taught directly without translation.
3. The Reading Method	Development of the reading skills.	Reading & Vocabulary control were emphasized. Vocabulary was treated in a principled way. Frequency lists were used.
4. Situational Language Teaching	The role of meaningful context in the situations in which language will be used.	Vocabulary was given a new position. Frequency lists were used.
5. The Audio-Lingual Method	The importance of students having repeated and systematic productive practice.	Role of vocabulary minimalized. Vocabulary was regarded as an auxiliary activity.
6. Communicative Method	The role of meaningful communication is the focus of language teaching. Focus on communicative skills.	Vocabulary has received little explicit attention.
7. The Natural Approach	The significance of the teacher in helping make new language interesting and comprehensible. Emphasis on meaningful production rather than grammatical correctness.	Vocabulary is deemed to be very important to the language acquisition process.
8. The Lexical Approach	Perceiving words as chunks. Communicative approach with naturally occurring lexis.	Words are defined as the most basic kind of lexical items. Lexical Approach has brought quite a new perspective to vocabulary teaching.

Source: Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

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1.4   Knowing a Word and Vocabulary Knowledge

"What is a word?" is a frequent question that people ask when they begin to read, and it is also an interesting question that linguists would like to answer in language studies. Read wrote that vocabulary is an individual word associated with meaning; therefore, for many second language learners, memorizing second language words is a way to achieve success in the task of learning vocabulary (2000, p.17). However, Read concluded that "word is not an easy concept to define either in theoretical terms or for various applied purposes". Nation maintains that there are many things that need to be known about using a word, and there are many degrees of knowing (2001, pp.23–27).

Knowing a word refers to the process by which an individual can recognize words and is able to distinguish the forms of word, especially when they need to use it. For many second language learners, knowing a word means memorizing the L2 word lists with meaning. Bilingual dictionaries become essential tools that assist second language learners in understanding the definitions of the L2 vocabulary when they encounter unfamiliar words. Read claims that, L2 learners quite often can do well in vocabulary tests which only try to evaluate whether they are able to match or produce equivalent words in both their first and second languages (Read, 2000, pp.164-170).

In the past years, lexical researchers have researched various aspects involved in knowing words. Richards, in his 1976 study, outlined eight principles to assess language learners' lexical competencies. Richards's eight criteria have frequently been accepted as a general framework for assessing vocabulary knowledge, because this set of lists provides clear and simple explanations for knowing the meanings of words. The eight aspects of knowing a word are stated as follows:

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1. Knowing a word is that native speakers' vocabulary knowledge, unlike their stability of grammatical competence, will continue to grow as they reach adulthood.

2. Knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering that word in speech or print. For many words we also know the sort of words most likely to be found associated with the word.

3. Knowing a word implies knowing the limitations on the use of the word according to variations of function and situation.

4. Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic behaviour associated with the word.

5. Knowing a word entails knowledge of the underlying form of a word and the derivations that can be made from it.

6. Knowing a word entails knowledge of the network of associations between that word and other words in the language.

7. Knowing a word means knowing the semantic value of a word.

8. Knowing a word means knowing many of the different meanings associated with a word (1976, p. 83).

In addition to this, Nation developed an analytical table that integrates Richards' lists with receptive and productive knowledge. He proposed 16 questions that people should be able to answer if they know a word (1990, pp.31). According to Nation, knowing a word needs to involve knowing form (spoken form, written form), position (grammatical patterns, and collocations), function (frequency and appropriateness), and meaning (concept and associations) (1990, pp.32). For example, the verb 'collect' involves the expectation that this word will be followed by a direct object in a sentence. The word 'bread' will usually occur in the singular form. The word 'collect' is a synonym for 'gather' and 'accumulate.' However, knowing the meaning of a word and the concept carried with it does not indicate a full understanding of the

words. Hence, knowing words necessitates the ability to understanding the word (i.e., reception) and, most importantly, to use the words properly (i.e., production). Later, Nation revised his earlier framework of knowing a word and asserted that knowing a word not only involves form and meaning, but also the use of the words (2001, p.27). With a refined 18 questions, Nation provided linguistic researchers a better concept for assessing students' knowledge of a word (see Table 1.2).

Table 1.2 What is Involved in Knowing a Word

Form	spoken	receptive	What does the word sound like?
		productive	How is the word pronounced?
	written	receptive	What does the word look like?
		productive	How is the word written and spelled?
	word parts	receptive	What parts are recognisable in this word?
		productive	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	form and meaning	receptive	What meaning does this word form signal?
		productive	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	concept and referents	receptive	What is included in the concept?
		productive	What items can the concept refer to?
	associations	receptive	What other words does this make us think of?
		productive	What other words could we use instead of this one?
Use	grammatical functions	receptive	In what patterns does the word occur?
		productive	In what patterns must we use this word?
	collocations	receptive	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		productive	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	constraints on use (register, frequency ...)	receptive	Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word?
		productive	Where, when, and how often can we use this word?

Source: Nation, P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language.* Cambridge:Cambridge University Press p. 17.

After analyzing what is needed to know a word receptively and productively, Nation concludes that receptive understanding is easier than the productive use of a word. Part of the reason for this, he assumes, is that productive learning requires extra learning of output patterns and a precise knowledge of a word, while for receptive understanding only a few features of word need to be known (2001, p.28). Furthermore, learners generally hear and read words more often than they use them. Another explanation is that L2 learners are sometimes not motivated to use a word, and it remains in the passive vocabulary.

Vocabulary knowledge can be divided into productive and receptive knowledge. Receptive vocabulary knowledge includes the words that an individual is able to remember the meaning of and understand while listening to or reading a word. Productive vocabulary knowledge includes the words that an individual is able or chooses to use appropriately and accurately through speaking or writing (Nation, 2001, p.24). In other words, Receptive knowledge carries the idea that people receive language input from listening, speaking and trying to comprehend information. Productive knowledge implies that people produce language forms by speaking and writing to convey messages to others. Applied to the study of vocabulary, receptive knowledge suggests that the receptive vocabulary is gathered from listening, reading, and retrieving their meaning. Productive vocabulary use occurs when a person wants to express vocabulary through written or spoken forms (Schmitt, 2000, pp.4-6; Nation, 2001, pp.23-27). Occasionally, people use the terms "passive" and "active" as synonyms for receptive and productive. Passive knowledge refers to listening and reading, while active knowledge refers to speaking and writing. Corson explained that the terms passive and active are the most suitable to define vocabulary knowledge because some vocabulary may be well known but barely used by people in their daily conversations, therefore becoming inactive (1995, pp.44). When defining active and passive vocabulary, Corson also states that he sees passive vocabulary as being made up of four different elements: a) the active vocabulary, b) words that are only partly known, c) low-frequency words that are not easy to use, and d) words that are avoided being used (1995, p.45). For some people, one element of passive vocabulary is the Graeco-Latin derived academic vocabulary words. Due to low frequency, non-obvious meanings, and low familiarity with their use, Graeco-Latin derived academic words are difficult to use, and people avoid using them actively. Nation claims that these words form a lexical prevention, and for some people this lexical bar causes vocabulary to remain passive rather than active (2001, p.25).

The studies mentioned above provide a basic concept of vocabulary knowledge and the aspects of knowing a word. Both Richards (1976) and Nation (2001) provided useful frameworks to assess the learners' vocabulary knowledge. Vocabulary knowledge is a complex concept with various definitions, depending on research purposes. Generally, learners acquire and use receptive knowledge more easily than productive knowledge, though the reason for this situation is not yet fully known (Nation, 2001, p.28). Laufer tested non-native speakers' receptive and productive vocabulary sizes through the Productive Level Test and the Lexical Frequency Profile using teenagers. The results confirmed that non-native speakers' receptive vocabulary sizes are larger than their productive vocabulary sizes. Furthermore, the size difference between receptive and productive vocabulary increased with learners' ages. Laufer also found that advance EFL learners had similar size ranges of receptive and productive vocabulary (1998, pp.255-271). The researchers believe that gaining productive knowledge requires language learners to spend more time to blend information harmoniously and output knowledge thoroughly (Laufer, 1998, pp.255-271). Learners' first language may interfere with their own second language learning to the extent that they themselves produce difficulties in gaining or producing second language knowledge. For second language learners, words in the two different language systems might not precisely be the same as in Turkish and English. L2 learners need not only time, but also opportunities to practice skills in order to produce the knowledge of language. However, there are still general questions such as, "How many words do second language learners really need?" and "Can vocabulary size and depth be measured?" The next section will discuss the terms of vocabulary size and depth in the context of vocabulary knowledge and testing.

1.5   Vocabulary Size

Vocabulary size refers to how many words an individual knows, and it is made up of an individual's passive, or receptive vocabulary. It relates to the number of the words that second language learners know, rather than emphasizing on how well learners know given words. Early studies in vocabulary focused on determining average vocabulary size. In his comprehensive review of the literature on vocabulary size, Graves stated that studies completed prior to 1960 were of limited value (1986, 49–89). Many different methods used to determine vocabulary size makes it difficult to produce meaningful conclusions from findings. In addition to this, random sampling techniques takes into account neither the difficulty level of words, nor the frequency of their use, both of which would influence word learning potential (Curtis, 1987, pp.37–51).

Graves also reported that studies before 1960 resulted in estimates ranging from 2,500 to 26,000 words for typical first-grade students, and from 19,000 to 200,000 words for university graduate students (1986, pp.49–89). Methodological procedures used prior to 1960 were short of specifics regarding: (a) differences between words and word families, (b) definitions of word knowledge, and (c) the source used to represent English vocabulary (Beck & McKeown, 1991, pp.789–814). As researchers began to specify parameters of vocabulary knowledge, more accurate estimates were created. For instance, Nagy and Anderson examined textbooks, workbooks, novels, magazines and encyclopedias used in the classroom to estimate the number of printed words used in English materials in grades three through nine. (1984a, 233–253). Their estimate of 88,533 word families is used as the realm of words that students in grades three through nine can be expected to know. Beck and McKeown also provided an estimate that the vocabulary size for five to six-year olds was between 2,500 to 5,000 words and from 19,000 to 200,000 words for college graduate students (1991, 789–814).

The most notable feature of estimates of the vocabulary size of native speakers of English is that there is enormous variation in the estimates. Recent research suggests that estimates of around 20,000 words for undergraduates are most likely to be correct (Nagy & Anderson, 1984a, pp.233–253). This suggests that first language learners add between 1,000 and 2,000 words per year to their vocabulary, or 3 to 7 words per day (see Table 1.3).

Table 1.3 Vocabulary Size of Native Speakers

Age in years	Vocabulary size	Investigator
1.3	235	Kirkpatrick
2.8	405	Kirkpatrick
3.8	700	Kirkpatrick
5.5	1,528	Salisbury
6.5	2,500	Termon and Childs
8.5	4,480	Kirkpatrick
9.6	6,620	Kirkpatrick
10.7	7,020	Kirkpatrick
11.7	7,860	Kirkpatrick
12.8	8,700	Kirkpatrick
13.9	10,660	Kirkpatrick
15.0	12,000	Kirkpatrick
18.0	17,600	Kirkpatrick

Source: Nation, I. S. P. (1990). *Teaching and Learning vocabulary*. New York: Newbury House Publishers, p.12

In setting the goals of vocabulary learning, Nation first asks the question of how many words native speakers know and suggests that adult educated native speakers of English know about 20,000 word families, not including proper nouns (2001, p.9). This is slightly higher than research carried out by Zechmeister, E.B., Chronis, A.M., Cull, W.L., D'Anna, C.A., & Healy, N.A. who estimated that educated native speakers of English know about 17,000 word families by the end of their college education, having added 5,000 word families to their vocabularies during their college studies (1995, pp.201-212). From these estimates, Nation calculates approximately that native English speakers add 1,000 word families to their

vocabulary each year (2001, p.9). Nation and Waring suggest that a five year old child knows about 4,000 to 5,000 word families, and they add 1,000 word families for each year of their early life (1997, pp.6–19). These estimates are mentioned in the those of Hart and Risley (2003) who estimate children to have 5,000 words at age five, and then add 1,000 word families a year. At a young age, the word families are very small, and children are acquiring the basic building blocks of the language. Around Grade 4, the word families start to increase in size as children gain more control over the key affixes in the English language, and they are able to begin to understand the language morphologically (Anlin, 1993, p.78).

Nation asserted that if second language learners are in the same school system as native speakers of English, they need to match the native speakers' rate of vocabulary learning and make up for the difference in English vocabulary that existed when the second language learners entered the system (1990, p.12). So, for example, if a second language learner enters the school system knowing almost no English at the age of 5, he needs to learn, for example 2500 words, plus another 1000 words a year.

Estimates of vocabulary growth have also varied widely. For example, according to the research carried out by Beck & McKeown, students learned as few as 1,000 words to as many as 7,300 new words per year (1991, 789–814). Currently, there is a growing consensus that vocabulary is acquired at an average rate of 3,000 words a year, or eight words per day during the school years (Beck & McKeown, 1991, 789–814; Miller & Gildea, 1987, 94–99). The rate of vocabulary growth varies widely among individuals (Beck & McKeown, 1991, 789–814; Miller & Gildea, 1987, 94–99).

1.6　Vocabulary Depth

Vocabulary depth refers to how well an individual is able to productively use a word. In other words, it is an expression of how well an individual is able to actively and accurately deploy vocabulary knowledge. The distinction between vocabulary size and depth is that vocabulary size emphasizes the total number of vocabulary that learners have with limited word meaning, while depth focuses on the various aspects associated with a single word (Read, 2000, p.237).

In looking at how well an individual knows a word, Coxhead looks at five different aspects of word knowledge that go beyond the basic translation of a word from a first language to a second language, and vice versa. According to Coxhead;

1. First an individual needs to know a word's main or core meaning, and its meaning in context.

2. Next, pronunciation is important so that an individual can say a word clearly with the correct sounds and right word stress form.

3. Another aspect of knowing a word is its grammar so that a word can be used accurately in writing and speaking, and understood when reading and listening.

4. Building word families is a further aspect of word knowledge.

5. In addition to the aspects of word knowledge mentioned above, Coxhead also indicates that knowing the inflected forms of a core word as well as other aspects of word formation such as prefixes and suffixes are vital parts of in depth word knowledge (2006, pp.72)

Finally, Coxhead refers to the importance of collocations as part of knowing a word (2006, pp.78). Collocations are words that are frequently used together, and it is important to know which words in English can go together and which words cannot. The differing ability to master these different aspects of knowing a word contributes to the depth of vocabulary knowledge a learner has.

Moreover, Baumann and Kame' enui discussed three levels of word knowledge that can be used to consider depth of word knowledge;

These are   a) Association,   b) Comprehension,   and   c) Generation.

1. Associative knowledge is characterized by the ability to link a new word within specific definition or a single context.

2. Comprehension knowledge is when a student can either demonstrate a broad understanding of a word in a sentence or is able to use definitional information to find an antonym, classify words into categories, and so forth.

3. Finally, generative knowledge is demonstrated by the ability to produce a novel response to a word, such as an original sentence, or a restatement of the definition in the student's own words (1991, pp.604–632).

In addition to this, other properties of lexical knowledge such as morphological, syntactic, or discourse knowledge of a given target word also need to be covered in vocabulary depth. In other words, how well a given word is known by L2 learners can be operationalized by how many properties of lexical knowledge they acquire (Schmitt, 1994, pp.9–16; Qian, 1999, pp.282–307). This kind of conceptualization of depth of lexical knowledge also refers to a comprehensive view of depth of lexical knowledge (Read, 2004, pp. 209 –227). Following this comprehensive perspective on depth of lexical knowledge, Qian attempted to use both morphological and collocational features of English words in order to assess depth of lexical knowledge necessary for reading comprehension (1999, pp.282–307).

Besides the most influential classification of lexical knowledge proposed by Nation (1990, 2001), Bogaards also put forward the following taxonomy of vocabulary knowledge:

1. Spoken or written form

2. Meaning

3. Morphological knowledge

4. Syntactic knowledge

5. Collocation

6. Discourse knowledge (2000, pp.490–516).

This identification of lexical knowledge seems to be more appropriate for creating a comprehensive in depth vocabulary test focusing on word meaning, morphological, and syntactic properties of lexical knowledge than Nation's (1990, 2001) classification into form, meaning, position, and function. That is, the clearly defined linguistic terms like morphological and syntactic knowledge seems to make it easy to create the test items, compared with the terms like form or position used by Nation's (1990) identification. Here are detailed explanations of semantic, morphological, and syntactic properties of lexical knowledge that will be in relation to the current study.

First, L2 learners should have knowledge of the semantic property of a target word, and such semantic knowledge is seen as a matter of degree rather than the dichotomy between 'yes' and 'no'. Thus, there might be differences among L2 learners in the extent to which they know about a given word, and it is impossible that L2 learners know everything about a given word like various meanings (e.g. the verb *commit* has the following multiple meanings like *to do something wrong or illegal, to make someone agree or promise to do something,* and *to say you will use available things or people for a particular purpose)* associated word forms (e.g. *commit* is associated with *do, carry out,* and *promise*), and their semantic differences.

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Second, morphological knowledge is divided into derivational and inflectional knowledge. The former refers to knowledge of derivational morphemes associated with a given word. Thus, this type of morphological knowledge helps L2 learners comprehend the content meanings of the derivatives of a given word and produce appropriate derivative forms to represent intended content meanings. For example, the prefix *un* – can give the opposite meaning to certain adjectives as shown in *important* => *unimportant*. On the other hand, inflectional knowledge is about inflectional morphemes of a given word and can be used for understanding grammatical functions of the inflected forms of a given word and producing an appropriate inflected form to mark a certain type of grammatical function. For instance, the addition of the inflectional morpheme –*ed* to a verb makes the verb denote past tense. With respect to this morphological knowledge of a word, it has been pointed out that productive use of morphological knowledge is a more difficult task to master than its receptive use (Bogaards, 2000, pp.490–516; White, 2003).

Third, syntactic knowledge about how a given word behaves within a sentence might also play a crucial role in L2 learning. Cook identified argument structures as basic syntactic knowledge that L2 learners should have about verbs, since these are related to the sentence structures - how many or what types of arguments should or can occur with a verb in a particular meaning (2001, pp.). Bogaards also pointed out that which prepositions should come with a given verb or adjective in a given meaning is important syntactic knowledge about a given word (2000, pp.490–516). In sum, this identification of lexical knowledge implies that L2 learners might need to integrate various properties of lexical knowledge in their L2 vocabulary learning so that they can have in-depth L2 lexical knowledge.

In conclusion, It can be said that the depth of vocabulary knowledge as well as vocabulary size should be taken into consideration to represent L2 vocabulary knowledge that learners need to have in their language learning. This study will be

concerned with both the quantity (vocabulary size) and the quality-based (vocabulary depth) views on L2 vocabulary knowledge. The following section will present the assessments of vocabulary size and depth.

1.7   Assessment of Vocabulary Size

Vocabulary size is a concept which the majority of lexical researchers have emphasized on measuring. The use of dictionary and word frequency counts are the ordinary techniques used to test the size of vocabulary (Read, 2000, pp.82–86). Based on the dictionary-based method, investigators randomly chose words from a dictionary, choosing every second word on every tenth page of the dictionary. The number of word lists on the tests depended on the number of words those investigators chose for their testing purposes. For second language learners, the tests could be created using the multiple-choice method, which provides a vocabulary word with various definitions, and students have the task of choosing the appropriate definition. Moreover, the investigator can translate the meaning of the vocabulary word into testers' native languages. The simple formula to estimate the vocabulary size is by counting the number of correct answers, multiplying it by the total number of words in a dictionary, then dividing it by the number of items in the test. However, this method has created many problems, such as the difficulty to determine which word should be excluded or included in the tests (Nation, 1990, p.76). In addition to this, Read pointed out that a single word family might be overrepresented in a dictionary (2000, p.86). Nation concluded that this method seemed very unreliable in estimating learners' vocabulary sizes (1990, p.76). Instead of a dictionary-based method, most lexical researchers prefer to use a frequency-count method. Typically, lexical investigators used the Thorndike and Lorge list (1944); the General Service List created by Michael West (1953); and Kucera-Francis lists (1967) to group from a higher frequency to a lower frequency occurrence of the word by counting how often it appeared in the corpus. The lexical

investigators choose the words from frequency lists to estimate learners' vocabulary sizes. The investigators randomly select the test items from different frequency levels. An example of a word-frequency count is given in Table 1.4.

Table 1.4 Types of Vocabulary, Their Features, and The Implications for Teaching and Learning

Type of vocabulary	Number of words	Frequency	Coverage of text	Origins	Implications for teaching and learning
High-frequency words	2,000	Occur frequently in all kinds of texts	About 87% of the running words in a text	About half are from Latin, French, or Greek	Spend a lot of time on these words. Make sure they are learned
Academic vocabulary	800	Occur frequently in most kinds of academic texts	About 8% of the running words in academic texts		If learners are in upper secondary school or in tertiary education, spend a lot of time on these words. Make sure they are learned
Technical vocabulary	About 1,000 to 2,000 for each subject	Occur sometimes frequently, in specialized texts	About 3% of the running words in a specialized text	About two-thirds are from Latin, French, or Greek	Learning the subject involves learning the vocabulary. Subject teachers can deal with the vocabulary, but the English teacher can help with learning strategies.
Low-frequency words	About 123,000	Do not occur very frequently	About 2% or more of the words in any text		Teach strategies for dealing with these words. The words themselves do not deserve teaching time

Source: Nation, I. S. P. (1990). *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*. New York: Newbury House Publishers, p.19.

Word frequency counts can be a basis for developing word lists for teaching, for designing graded courses and reading texts, and for preparing vocabulary tests. Nation states that where frequency counts give information on range, they are also useful for developing specialized word lists (1990, p.20).

Many assessments have been created to test language learners' vocabulary sizes based on the frequency count method such as by the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT), and the Eurocentre Vocabulary Size Test (EVST). The VLT created by Paul Nation in 1980, has been widely used around the world by estimating the language learners' vocabulary size. The test was published in 1983 and is free to use by other researchers around the world (Read, 2000, p.118). The VLT test has been proven to be a helpful and reliable diagnostic tool in assessing second language learners' vocabulary sizes (Read, 2000, pp.120–123; Nation, 2001, p.373). Through the tests,

investigators can gather information about how many words learners know from each frequency level and estimate their vocabulary size. The test is conducted with five parts which are divided by word frequency in English from the 2000 word family level, 3000 word family level, 5000 word family level, 10,000 word family level, and the university academic word level. The 2,000 and 3,000 levels are consistent with high-frequency word families. The 5,000 level is mixed with high and lower frequency word families; then the 10,000 word level includes a low frequency word family (Nation, 1990, p.263). In addition, the university word level was presented with a specific word family. The test takers are asked to match definitions to the given words. In total the test has 60 words with 30 definitions, and each cluster consists of six words and three definitions (see Table 1.5). The detail of the test design will be presented in Chapter 2.

Table 1.5 Vocabulary Level and Learning

Vocabulary level	Type of vocabulary	Learning required to increase vocabulary knowledge at each level
2,000-word level	The *General Service List*: the vocabulary of simplified reading books.	1. Learning lists of words based on the Longman Structural Readers Lists or the *General Service List* 2. Intensive and extensive reading of simplified reading books. 3. *Advanced English Vocabulary*, Workbook 1 (Barnard, 1972).
3,000-word level	A basis for beginning to read unsimplified texts.	1. Intensive reading of a variety of texts 2. Extensive reading of the Bridge Series
5,000-word level	A wide vocabulary	1. Training in guessing words in context 2. Wide general reading—novels, newspapers, university texts, etc. 3. Intensive reading of a variety of texts 4. *Advanced English Vocabulary*, Workbooks 1 and 2
The university word level	The specialized vocabulary of university texts.	1. Learning words in the University Word List 2. Intensive reading of university texts 3. *Advanced English Vocabulary*, Workbooks 2 and 3 4. Learning prefixes and roots
10,000-word level	A large wide vocabulary	Activities similar to the 5,000-word level, combined with learning prefixes and roots.

Source: Nation, I. S. P. (1990). *Teaching and Learning vocabulary*. New York: Newbury House Publishers, p.263

The Eurocentre Vocabulary Size Test (EVST) was created by Paul Meara and his colleagues (Meara & Buxton, 1987, pp.142–151; Meara & Jones, 1988, pp.80–87) and is based on the Thorndike and Lorge lists. The EVST test has been seen as a yes or no checklist test. The test could be presented in either a pencil-paper or computer format, and has been used by many researchers to test vocabulary size (Schmitt &Meara, 1997, pp.17–36). The learners are presented with a list of vocabulary words, and then the learners are asked to check "yes" or "no" for each word to estimate their word knowledge. One advantage of the EVST test is that it consists of real English words and non-English words. The following test sample is derived from Meara:

Tick the words you know

adviser _____   moisten_____

ghastly _____   pitiful _____

contord _____   profess _____

implore _____   stourge _____

morlorn _____   discard _____

Source: Nation, P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p.346.

Meara and his colleagues (Meara & Buxton, 1987; Meara, 1990) applied the EVST to test the second language learners' vocabulary sizes and found that the test was reliable, valid, and practical. Unlike the VLT, the EVST simply asks whether the learner recognizes words and assumes that the learners would know the meaning of those words if they checked "yes" (Read, 2000, p.127). The EVST test measures both total vocabulary size and the 10,000 frequency words of English. However, Nation criticized the EVST method, arguing that for many second language or foreign language learners who are at the intermediate level, there may be a small difference between what the tests measured and learners' actual vocabulary sizes

(2001, p.348). Besides, Read claimed that the learners might overestimate their vocabulary knowledge because of non-English words (2000, p.129). Shillaw (1996) ran the EVST test with university students in Japan, and the results indicated that second language learners' vocabulary knowledge can be measured without including any non-English words. Shillaw argued that including non-words into the tests is unnecessary and might make the test less accurate in measuring vocabulary size. Both the VLT test and the EVST test have been widely used in measuring second language learners' vocabulary knowledge; however, the EVST tends to have more potential problems than the VLT test.

According to Nation and Deglar, there are several reasons to measure second language learners' vocabulary size:

Reason one, researchers want to see how much vocabulary learners need to have in order to be able to perform well in their reading comprehension such as reading an article or novel. When second language learners' vocabulary sizes achieve 98% coverage of a text, the learners may reach possible reading comprehension.

The second reason for testing students' vocabularies is to be able to chart the growth of learners' vocabularies. Knowing the amount of vocabulary that foreign language learners know will help teachers modify their teaching, and help learners in developing their reading comprehension skills.

The third reason to measure vocabulary comprehension is to compare the capacity of vocabulary between native speakers and foreign language learners (2007, pp.9–13).

1.8 Assessment of Vocabulary Depth

Vocabulary depth represents the quality of vocabulary. It is to measure how well a given word or word families are known by language learners. Qian gave a clear definition, "depth of vocabulary knowledge is a level of knowledge of various aspects of a given word..." (1999, pp.31–32). The distinction in measurement

between vocabulary size and depth are the levels of word knowledge. Vocabulary size measures the number of words that learners are familiar with and refers to knowing only the superficial meanings of words (Read, 2000, p.179). In other words, learners may not know how to use these words in more than one context. For example, the words "stimulate", "stimulative", "stimulation" have different orthographic shapes, but these words are in the same word family and share similar meanings (Schmitt, 2000, p.2). Vocabulary depth means language learners know multiple meanings of words and are able to use them in a variety of ways (Nagy, 1998, p.16).

There are many assessments that are designed to measure language learners' vocabulary size, but only a few on the vocabulary depth. Despite the lack of relative research on studying vocabulary depth, it still seems to have its value. In the earlier stages, LI lexical researchers have created a scale to examine learners' varying degrees of partial vocabulary knowledge, and to examine their knowledge of the meaning of words they know. For example, Dale indicated four steps on knowing a word:

Stage 1: "I never saw it before"

Stage 2: "I've heard of it, but I don't know what it means."

Stage 3: "I recognize it in context-it has something to do with..."

Stage 4: "I know it" (1965, p.898).

Lexical researchers used Dale's idea to elaborate other methods to assess the depth of vocabulary knowledge. Some measurements have been developed for second language learners based on this type of scale. For example, Paribakht and Wesche created a vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS) to evaluate how much vocabulary knowledge second language learners acquired from a set of target words (1993, pp.9-29). The second language learners were asked to report if they know the target word based on the following statements:

I have never seen this word.

I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.

I have seen this word before, and I think it means. (synonym or translation)

I know this word. It means. (synonym or translation)

I can use this word in a sentence.

Paribakht and Wesche claimed that this instrument was not designed for testing general vocabulary knowledge but to track the development of knowledge of specific words (1993, pp.9–29). Unlike Dales's four point vocabulary knowledge scale, VKS requires learners to write down a synonym in the blank to demonstrate their word knowledge.

Read proposed another testing instrument of vocabulary depth, known as the Word Associates Test (WAT) (1998, pp.41–60). It is a less open-ended test format in which second language learners are asked to choose the word associated with a target word. The test items are created based on three types of relationships between a given word and an associated word: paradigmatic (i.e., synonyms), syntagmatic (i.e., collocations), analytic (i.e., one word associates with target word and represents one aspect of target word). According to Read, the reliability of WAT is .92 and it had been used to measure second language learners' vocabulary depth in many studies (Qian, 1999, pp.282-307).

1.12   The Number of Words Learners Need to Know

It may be interesting to know how many words there are in English. Nation and Waring indicated that the most straightforward way to answer this question is to examine the number of words in the largest dictionary (1997, pp.6–19). These authors pointed out that Goulden, Nation, and Read looked at the vocabulary of Webster's Third International Dictionary, the largest non-historical dictionary of English at the time it was published (1990, pp.341–363).

Nation and Waring put it:

> When compound words, archaic words, abbreviations, proper names, alternative
> spellings, and dialect forms are excluded, and when words are classified into word
> families consisting of a base word, inflected forms, and transparent derivations,
> Webster's Third has a vocabulary of around 54,000 word families. This is a learning
> goal far beyond the reaches of second language learners and, as we shall see, most
> native speakers (1997, p. 7).

Goulden et al., in fact, estimated that an average educated native speaker has a
vocabulary of about 17,000 word families and has acquired them at the average rate
of about two to three words a day. These authors further argued that if native
speakers in fact acquire vocabulary at such slow rate, it would seem that for the
case of second language learners direct teaching and learning of vocabulary is a
feasible proposition (1990, pp.341–363). To address the question of how many
words native speakers know, Nation and Waring wrote:

> At present the best conservative rule of thumb that we have is that up to a
> vocabulary size of around 20,000 word families, we should expect that native
> speakers will add roughly 1,000 word families a year to their vocabulary size. That
> means that a five year old beginning school will have a vocabulary of around 4,000
> to 5,000 word families. A university graduate will have a vocabulary of around
> 20,000 word families (Goulden, Nation, and Read, 1990). (1997, pp. 7–8).

In the same way, Nation suggested that it is estimated that an average native
speaker with a university education knows at least 20,000 word families, and for
second language learners they need around 5,000 words, and preferably 10,000
words to cope well in English (2003, pp.129–152). Hazenberg and Hulstijn pointed
out that it has been claimed for different languages such as Russian, French, Dutch,
and particularly English (Hirsch & Nation, 1992, pp.689–696; Nation, 1993, pp.115–
134;) that the 5,000 most frequent words (or 3,000 word families) can yield a
coverage of 90 to 95 percent of token words in an average text (1996, pp.145–163).

Laufer estimated that 95% of the words in a text must be known to understand it properly (1988, pp.316–323). Moreover, Hirsch and Nation postulated that in order for a reading activity to be pleasurable, readers need to know 98 to 99 percent of the words in the text (Hirsch & Nation, 1992, pp.689–696). Coady similarly indicated that instructional programs have to ensure that learners know at least the basic 3,000 word families so that they can learn vocabulary incidentally through extensive reading (1997, pp.225–237). In addition, Hazenberg and Hulstijn suggested that a minimum vocabulary of 10,000 base words or word families is needed for university studies (1996, pp.145–163).

Concerning the number of words that learners need to know, Saragi, Nation, and Meister (1978) stated that, in order to read unsimplified material, a learner of English has to know at least 3,600 word forms with a far higher number of meanings. Laufer estimated that good first language readers can be expected to transfer their reading strategies to the second language when they have reached the level of 3,000 word families (1992, pp.126–132). As Laufer further noted, reading in a second language will be restricted by insufficient lexical knowledge until learners have reached that level. In addition, Hwang and Nation postulated that when learners know the most frequent 2,000 words and all proper nouns they will reach about 90% coverage of newspaper texts (1989, pp.323–335).

Thornbury posited that it has been estimated that a classroom learner would need more than 18 years of classroom exposure to supply the same amount of vocabulary input that happens in only one year in natural settings (2002, pp.). This author observed that most researchers recommend a basic vocabulary of at least 3,000 words and a working vocabulary of more than 5,000 words for more specialized needs of second language learners. Schmitt similarly suggested that the number of words a learner needs to learn depends on his or her goal (2000, pp.). Basically, as this author indicated, 2,000 word families are needed for

conversational speaking, 3,000 word families to begin reading authentic texts, probably 10,000 word families for challenging academic texts (Hazenberg & Hulstijn, 1996, pp.145–163) and if a second language learner wants to develop a vocabulary equal to that of an educated native speaker, a vocabulary of 15,000 to 20,000 word families is necessary (Nation & Waring, 1997, pp.6–19). Milton and Meara speculated that advanced language students may learn about 2,500 words annually in second language environment (1995, as cited in Nagy, 1997, pp.64–83).

Nation suggested using word lists is a useful strategy when a large amount of words needs to be learned quickly (1980, pp.18–23). Additionally, having reviewed research on the number of words to be studied at one time conducted by Crothers and Suppes (1967), Nation indicated that if teachers can ensure that the each list to be learned contains only a few difficult words then lists of 100 words or more can be used (1982, pp.14–36). On the contrary, Krashen asserted that using vocabulary lists for vocabulary teaching is not efficient (2004, pp.45-55).

Further, Schmitt verified that research has shown that it is possible to learn 30 words per hour (at least in the sense of gaining some initial partial knowledge) by employing techniques such as word lists or the keyword method, so how much vocabulary a learner learns seems to be limited only by personal ambition (2000, pp.29-49)

Schmitt (2000) might be right to note that personal ambition is one of the determining factors in the number of words a language learner knows. It may be argued that achieving a vocabulary of 20,000 word families, the amount of words an educated native speaker possesses, is at least statistically possible, if a second or foreign language learner is motivated, ambitious, and strategic enough in vocabulary learning on a daily basis. A simple calculation may well illustrate the point. For example, if a second or foreign language learner makes a determined, continued, and conspicuous effort to learn five word families a day, he or she may be able to

learn 1,825 word families a year, and it takes a learner only 11 years to have a vocabulary of 20,075 word families, if he or she is able to keep the constant rate of learning five word families a day. Such a goal does not seem out of reach at least in terms of statistics and possibility, but it is eventually the second or foreign language learner who decides the number of words he or she wishes to know. When one has such an ambitious lexical goal, deliberate vocabulary learning strategies can significantly help one to reach the goal.

1.10   Studies Conducted

Many studies have been done on vocabulary learning in ELT, some of which are directly related to investigating the vocabulary size and depth levels of students and the benefits of integrating vocabulary enhancement materials into the curriculum. Some of those studies are presented below.

Ördem (2005) carried out a study whose aim was to find out whether teaching vocabulary via collocations would contribute to retention and use of foreign language. He collected the data through pre- and posttests, guided writing tasks and retention judgment test. In his study, the experimental group was taught collocations through lexical approach through ten different kinds of activities whereas the control group was taught in a traditional way, only focusing on word definitions from dictionary, antonyms, synonyms and guessing from the text. It was concluded in his study that the experimental group outperformed the control group in all of the three instruments. Each group consisted of 60 participants, and the study lasted ten weeks. The study showed that a long treatment and exposure of collocations led the treatment group to remember and produce the collocations in the reading course more appropriately and less deviantly than the control group, implying that teaching collocation in the class systematically week by week, and scaffolding learners' progress could lead to better learners who can remember and use collocations in their communication in English.

Büyükkarcı (2006) carried out another study that analyzes the effectiveness of teaching phrasal verbs by implementing communicative approach and the findings revealed that communicative approach is effective on teaching phrasal verbs. The study was conducted on 54 advanced level students in control and experimental groups and a multiple choice tests were used as pre- and post-tests. It was observed that there was no assessment of the production skills of the students in the study and the instrument was limited with recognition and knowledge levels. In his study, Büyükkarcı was mainly concentrated on using authentic materials in teaching phrasal verbs. With this respect, the need for the incorporation of authentic materials and real life context which are also mentioned in the practices of Lexical Approach is emphasized. At the end of the study, Büyükkarcı suggests the implementation of his research on phrasal verbs with different levels of student groups.

Bozkurt (2007) investigated the effectiveness of vocabulary notebooks on vocabulary acquisition, and the attitudes of teachers and learners towards keeping vocabulary notebooks. The study was conducted with the participation of 60 pre-intermediate level students, divided into one treatment and two control groups, and their teachers at the English Language Preparatory School of Zonguldak Karaelmas University. A four-week vocabulary notebook implementation was carried out according to a Schedule and activities adapted and developed by the researcher. The data was gathered through receptive and productive vocabulary tests, free vocabulary use compositions, group interviews with the students and a one-to-one interview with the teacher of the experimental group. After the administration of receptive and productive vocabulary pre-tests to all of the groups, the learners in the experimental group started to follow the vocabulary notebook schedule incorporated into the regular curriculum, whereas the learners in the control group simply followed

the normal curriculum. Every week all of the participant students wrote free vocabulary use compositions on the topics of the units of the week. At the end of the treatment, the same receptive and productive vocabulary tests were given to the groups again. All of the learners in the experimental group and the participant instructor were interviewed in order to see their attitudes towards using vocabulary notebooks. The quantitative and qualitative data analyses demonstrated that vocabulary notebooks are beneficial for vocabulary acquisition. Her study implied that vocabulary notebooks could be incorporated into language classes in order for the students to recognize and use the words that are taught to them.

Aksoy (2008) also conducted a study to analyze the effects of phrasal verbs on speaking skills of students within the framework of Lexical Approach. The research was administered in two intermediate level preparatory classes of Çankaya University during the spring semester of 2007–2008. He developed achievement tests to evaluate the number of accurate uses of the related phrasal verbs and the overall fluency in students' speech. The results indicated that traditional vocabulary teaching did not result in a significant difference within and among groups in terms of the number of accurate phrasal verb use and overall fluency in speech. However, it was found out that the use of Lexical Approach in vocabulary teaching in terms of phrasal verbs and the activities prepared in the light of this approach resulted in a significant difference in favor of the experimental group and had a positive effect in terms of the number of accurate phrasal verb use and overall fluency in speech.

To sum up, the studies previously conducted signify the need for integrating vocabulary enhancement activities into the curriculum in terms of increase in vocabulary size and production levels of the learners besides the improvement in their language proficiency.

1.11 Limitations of the Study

Although this study is intended to find out vocational school students' vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence in foreign language class, there are certain limitations to be considered. Firstly, since the place where the study is conducted is a vocational school in Yalova, the students have different cultural and educational backgrounds. Secondly, as there was limited time for carrying out this research, the implementation period lasted only fourteen weeks. It would be better if the time frame of the implementation period was longer. In addition to that, the study was carried out with 88 students because of the time limitation. The results would be more generalizable if the experiment was conducted with more students, as well. Moreover, since the textbooks that are used in the institution are based on an eclectic method, they include basic vocabulary activities in every unit. From this point of view, a usual increase after a 14 – week long implementation period is also expected in the control group as another limitation of the study.

Lastly, as the participants were exposed to too many words in a lesson, they had difficulty keeping their attention constantly because fewer word combinations could be studied and recycled more than twice or three times because humans have limited working memory capacity while learning something (Sousa, 2000, p.50).

CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the information about the research design, the participants, the research instruments (Cambridge Quick Placement Test version 1, Vocabulary Levels Test version 1 and Productive Level Tests version A), the procedure, the materials to collect data, and the methods for data analysis.

2.1　The Research Questions

The aim of this study is to put forward the results whether focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence is effective in EFL classrooms. It is assumed that studying vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence enhances both the language proficiency level, vocabulary size and vocabulary production of the students in a positive way. For this purpose, a quasi-experimental design was formed at a vocational school in Yalova. The design of the study was prepared according to the study carried out by Nesselhauf (2005). Dependent variables of the experimental design are language proficiency level, vocabulary size and vocabulary production (output), as for the independent variable, learning-teaching "vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence" input is employed.

Thus, the study seeks to find answers to the following questions and hypotheses;

> 1. Is there a significant difference in their general language proficiency levels between the students focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence (the experimental group) and those who are not (the control group) after the implementation of the activities?

In the light of this research question, the study will try to find out the answers of the following hypotheses;

Hypothesis 1: In this hypothesis, whether there is a significant difference in the beginning of the vocabulary implementation period between the language proficiency levels of the students in the experimental and control groups will be investigated. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are established;

- $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the QPT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)
- $H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the QPT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)

Hypothesis 2: In this hypothesis, whether there is a significant difference at the end of the vocabulary implementation period between the language proficiency levels of the students in the control group will be investigated. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are established;

- $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the QPT Post-Test and QPT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)
- $H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the QPT Post-Test and QPT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)

Hypothesis 3: In this hypothesis, whether there is a significant difference at the end of the vocabulary implementation period between the language proficiency levels of the students in the experimental group will be investigated. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are established;

- $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the QPT Post-Test and QPT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)
- $H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the QPT Post-Test and QPT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)

Hypothesis 4: In this hypothesis, whether there is a significant difference at the end of the vocabulary implementation period between the language proficiency levels of the students in the experimental and control groups will be investigated. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are established;

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the QPT Pre-Test scores of the experimental group and QPT Pre-Test scores of the control group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the QPT Pre-Test scores of the experimental group and QPT Pre-Test scores of the control group.)

2. Is there a significant difference in their vocabulary size levels between the students in the experimental and the control group when we apply vocabulary activities in the classroom?

In the light of this research question, the study will try to find out the answers of the following hypotheses;

Hypothesis 5: In this hypothesis, whether there is a significant difference in the beginning of the vocabulary implementation period between the vocabulary size levels of the students in the experimental and control groups will be investigated. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are established;

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the VLT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the VLT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)

Hypothesis 6: In this hypothesis, whether there is a significant difference at the end of the vocabulary implementation period between the vocabulary size levels of the students in the control group will be investigated. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are established;

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$(There is no significant difference between the VLT Post-Test and VLT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the VLT Post-Test and VLT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)

Hypothesis 7: In this hypothesis, whether there is a significant difference at the end of the vocabulary implementation period between the vocabulary size levels of the students in the experimental group will be investigated. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are established;

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$(There is no significant difference between the VLT Post-Test and VLT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the VLT Post-Test and VLT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)

Hypothesis 8: In this hypothesis, whether there is a significant difference at the end of the vocabulary implementation period between the vocabulary size levels of the students in the experimental and control groups will be investigated. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are established;

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the VLT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and VLT Post-Test scores of the control group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the VLT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and VLT Post-Test scores of the control group.)

3. Is there a significant difference in their vocabulary production levels after the implementation of the activities between the students exposed to the vocabulary activities and those who are not exposed to it?

In the light of this research question, the study will try to find out the answers of the following hypotheses;

Hypothesis 9: In this hypothesis, whether there is a significant difference in the beginning of the vocabulary implementation period between the vocabulary production levels of the students in the experimental and control groups will be investigated. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are established;

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$(There is no significant difference between the PVT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the PVT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)

Hypothesis 10: In this hypothesis, whether there is a significant difference at the end of the vocabulary implementation period between the vocabulary production levels of the students in the control group will be investigated. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are established;

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$(There is no significant difference between the PVT Post-Test and PVT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the PVT Post-Test and PVT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)

Hypothesis 11: In this hypothesis, whether there is a significant difference at the end of the vocabulary implementation period between the vocabulary production levels of the students in the experimental group will be investigated. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are established;

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$(There is no significant difference between the PVT Post-Test and PVT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the PVT Post-Test and PVT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)

Hypothesis 12: In this hypothesis, whether there is a significant difference at the end of the vocabulary implementation period between the vocabulary production levels of the students in the experimental and control groups will be investigated. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are established;

• H_0: $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the PVT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and PVT Post-Test scores of the control group.)
• H_1: $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the PVT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and PVT Post-Test scores of the control group.)

2.2 Setting

The place where the study was conducted is a vocational school in Yalova, Turkey and data was collected from the vocational school students during the academic year of 2010–2011. A total of 88 EFL students participated this study. Students are exposed to 5 hours of English every week. They study their main course books for 3 hours. They are taught grammar rules, and they do grammar activities in these lessons. In addition to that two hours of laboratory classes provide students opportunity for self-study. Students can listen to the reading passages in a native person's voice, or check their own answers to grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation exercises on the computer. It is compulsory for the students to attend these classes. At the end of each semester, they must get 60 in the final exam in order to be successful. Students who fail the final exams must take and pass the make-up exams otherwise they repeat the whole year.

2.3 Participants

The sampling of the study consists of the students from a vocational school in Yalova. The students were 2nd graders in the academic year of 2010–2011. A total of 88 students participated in the study. The experimental group consisted of 43 and the control group consisted of 45 male students. Turkish was the only native language of the participants. The participant students' ages ranged between 18 and

46

20. The school population consisted of students from different parts of the country with different ethnic and economic backgrounds. This vocational school is an institution which accepts students that have scores between 210 and 230 from YGS–1 and YGS–2 in the nationwide held university entrance exams.

2.4   Instruments

To determine the effect of two different learning-teaching methods on language proficiency level, Cambridge Quick Placement Test (QPT) Version 1 was applied, moreover the effect on vocabulary size was measured by Vocabulary Levels Test Version 1, and in addition to find out if those methods had any effect on vocabulary production, Productive Vocabulary Test Version A was conducted.

2.4.1   Cambridge Quick Placement Test

The Quick Placement Test (QPT) is a flexible test of English language proficiency developed by Oxford University Press and Cambridge ESOL to give teachers a reliable and time-saving method of finding a student's level of English. It is quick and easy to administer and is ideal for placement testing and examination screening. There are two versions available, a computer-based (CB) version and a paper and pen (P&P) version.

The key features of the QPT are as follows:

The Paper and pen version

1. Has two parallel versions;

2. It takes approximately 30 minutes to administer;

3. All the questions in the test are in multiple-choice format;

4. Answers are recorded directly on the answer sheet;

5. The answer sheets can be quickly marked using the overlays provided;

6. The test consists of two parts. Part 1 is taken by all candidates. Part 2 is for higher ability students only;

7. The test scores can be compared with the computer-based version.

The QPT is designed to help teachers and course managers make rapid decisions about which class to place students in or whether a learner can join a particular course, such as an exam class. The test can be used for learners of all levels and all ages.

The computer based version uses multiple choice questions to assess students in Listening, Reading, and Structure, including Grammar and Vocabulary.

The paper and pen version can be used to place students in classes in the same way as the computer-based version but in circumstances where the CBT (computer based test) is not feasible, for example because of technical limitations. All students who take the paper and pen version should complete Part One. Part Two should only be completed by those students who have scored more than a predetermined score in Part One.

The QPT can be used in different ways:

1. Before the course starts, so that students can obtain immediate feedback on whether there is a suitable class for them;

2. On the first day of the course, so that students can be placed in class quickly and smoothly;

3. To place late arrivals at any time into existing classes;

4. To decide whether students are eligible for particular courses.

The pen and paper version consists of two parts. Part 1 (questions 1–40) is taken by all candidates and is aimed at students who are at or below intermediate level. The second part (questions 41–60), is taken only by candidates who score more than 35 out of 40 on the first part and can be used for higher ability students. The test is quickly marked out of 40 or 60 using a simple overlay. Scores for both versions are linked to the ALTE and Council of Europe levels as shown in Table 2.1. To date, the

test has been validated in 20 countries by more than 6.000 students. (University Of

Cambridge, 2003, p.2)

Table 2.1 ALTE and Council of Europe Levels

Alte level	Paper and pen test score		Council of Europe Level
	Part 1 score out of 40	Part 1 score out of 60	
0 beginner	0-15	0-17	A1
1 elementary	16-23	18-29	A2
2 lower intermediate	24-30	30-39	B1
3 upper intermediate	31-40	40-47	B2
4 advanced		48-54	C1
5 very advanced		54-60	C2

Source: University of Cambridge (2003). Research Notes: ESOL Examinations., *12*(May 2003)., Retrieved November 4, 2012, from: http://www.uniss.it/documenti/lingue/what_is_the_QPT.pdf

2.4.2 Vocabulary Levels Test

Vocabulary Levels Test was designed and piloted by the researcher in order to obtain data related to the vocabulary levels of the students. The original Vocabulary Levels Test (hereafter, VLT) was designed by Paul Nation (1983,1990) in order to measure language learners' vocabulary sizes. He stated that the VLT would help teachers to determine what kind of vocabulary should be given to language learners. In Nation's design, the VLT is composed of versions A through D. Nation's versions have been frequently used for assessing students' vocabulary sizes as well as in language research, even though the validity of Nation's versions had not been seriously tested until recent studies (Beglar & Hunt, 1999, pp.131–162). In 2001, Schmitt, Schmitt, and Clapham developed two new versions of VLT to present valid evidence for the tests (2001, pp.55–88). These two tests had been designed and intended for second language learners or foreign language learners. These two versions were designed with equivalent questions and expanded on the previous versions. The two revised forms of VLT are called Version 1 and Version 2;

however, there are no differences between both versions. Schmitt and his colleagues conducted a study on VLT which showed item discrimination and item facility (2001, pp.55–88). The study results proved the VLT to be reliable and valid tests of vocabulary size. The reliability of the different levels of version 1 ranged from .92 to .95. The mean facility index for the tests ranged from .28 to .78 increasing as the target words moved from the least frequent to the most frequent items. The mean discrimination indices vary from .51 to .69, and no items had below .30, which meant discrimination indices for the VLT tests were acceptable (2001, pp.55-88). This study adopted version 1 of the VLT (Schmitt, 2000) to examine the students' general vocabulary sizes.

The Vocabulary Levels Test is divided into five levels, including the 2000-, 3000-, academic, 5000-, and 10,000- word levels; each level consists of 1000 frequency words (see Table 2.2). Nation explained that the first 1000 words level was not included in the VLT because it is difficult to measure the simplest English words (Nation, 2008, p.142). However, there are some differences between the older version and the newer version. In versions A-D, the first 2000 level was sampled from 1000 and 2000 word levels, the ratio at 1:2. In the new version, Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham (2001) tried to reduce the ratio to 1:1. Besides, instead of sampling from university word lists, researchers created new academic word lists based on the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000, pp.213–38). Moreover, the academic word level has broad range; Schmitt suggested the academic word level should be placed before the 5000 level (Schmitt, Schmitt & Clapham, 2001, pp.55–88).

Table 2.2 The Five Levels of Vocabulary Levels Test

Vocabulary level	Type of vocabulary
2000 word level	The Vocabulary of simple reading books.
	Basic everyday oral communication.
3000 word level	A basis for beginner to read authentic texts.
Academic vocabulary level	The specialized vocabulary of university texts.
5000 word level	Learners are able to read authentically, with a lot of novel words.
10,000 word level	A large wide vocabulary.

Source: Nation, I. S. P. (1983). Testing and teaching vocabulary. *Guidelines*, 5(1), 12–25.

Each section of the VLT had 10 clusters. In each cluster, there were six items, followed by three blanks, and each blank had a brief definition of the item or synonyms. The clusters consisted of three noun clusters, two verb clusters, and one adjective cluster. The students were required to match items based on the relevant clues. The clusters were selected randomly and have very different meaning in order to minimize guessing. The following is a sample noun cluster of the VLT:

I. business

2. clock   <u>6</u> part of a house

3. horse   <u>3</u> animal with four legs

4. pencil   <u>4</u> something used for writing

5.shoe

6. wall

In this study the second 1000 words of the General Service List (VLT 2000 word level) which includes the vocabulary that is required for basic everyday oral communication was implemented as a pre-test to the students. Especially the 2000 word level VLT includes the GSL word lists which would be highlighted during the implementation of the second 1000 words of the GSL with vocabulary enhancement activities along with the words which might appear in the lessons but would not be targeted. The researcher took the syllabus of the main course into consideration while implementing the vocabulary activities but created special time allotted for vocabulary learning. The words in the activities were chosen from the first 2000 most frequent words in English. When preparing the vocabulary enhancement activities, the researcher also took the syllabus of the main course into consideration while deciding which words to include in order to harmonize the target words and the curriculum. Therefore, the possibility of the recognizability of the words in the tests was increased.

2.4.3 Interpreting the Vocabulary Levels Test

There is a close connection between vocabulary size, coverage of the vocabulary in a text, and the ease a learner will have in coping with the language of the text. The most frequent 2000 word families of English provide 80% to 95% coverage of a text depending on what kind of text it is. Building on the most frequent 2000 words of English, the 3rd 1000 most frequent words can provide around 4.3% coverage, with the coverage of each successive 1000 words continuing to drop.

There are 60 words at each level in the vocabulary levels test. The 60 words at the second 1000 level were grouped into blocks of six words according to part of speech. The words in each block were then checked to make sure that they were not similar in form or related in meaning. If the learners had partial knowledge of a word, they should be able to choose the correct answer. The aim of the VLT is to get an accurate as possible record of what the learners know even of the words that they have not yet fully learned. Definitions were made for the target words using

words from the most frequent 1000 words of English for the 2nd 1000 words, and words from the 1st 1000 and 2nd 1000 words for all the remaining levels. The definitions thus made use of words that were more frequent than the words being tested. The two versions of the test were checked for reliability and validity (Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham, 2001, 55–88).

In the second 1000 Vocabulary Levels Test, the students were expected to match three English Definitions among six vocabulary words, and each correct match was scored as 33.33 points. For example, if a learner scores 15 out of 30 at this level, that means, he/she knows 500 words in total at this level, and 500 words are not known. We wouldn't be happy with this degree of knowledge at this level. If he scores 24 out of 30, that means, he knows 800 words and 200 words are not known at this level. We wouldn't be happy again with this degree of knowledge at this level because that is too many at this high frequency level. If a learner scores 27 out of 30, that means, he knows 900 words, and he doesn't know 100 words. We would be happy with this degree of knowledge since that's not too many to pick up while working on the next level. We can say that a learner knows enough of the words at this level and can now focus on the next level.

2.4.4 The Productive Vocabulary Test

The Productive Vocabulary Levels Test is based on the original versions of The Vocabulary Levels Test. It uses the same words sampled from the 2nd, 3rd, 5th, 10th 1,000 levels and the old University Word List with 18 items at each level. Some items from the test are as follows;

1. I'm glad we had this opp_____ to talk.

2. There are a doz_____ eggs in the basket.

3. Every working person must pay income t_____ .

4. The pirates buried the trea_____ on a desert island.

In the test the learners have to complete the incomplete words using the context clues and initial letters. Since the learners have to go from meaning to the word form, it is called a productive test, in contrast to The Vocabulary Levels Test, a receptive test, where the learners see the word form and have to find the meaning.

For each level to be reliable there needs to be more than 18 items. The test is designed so that the initial letters of the word only allow one correct answer, so it is easy to have an answer key. There also needs to be some marking criteria indicating that minor spelling errors of one or two letters are acceptable and that the inflectional form of the word does not have to be correct.

The test has been validated as a measure of learners' controlled productive vocabulary and can be validly used for this purpose. It is a test of vocabulary not writing skill. When taking the test, the learners need to pay careful attention to the sentence context and not just use the initial letters alone as the clue for finding the words.

The test has a good practicality, It is ready to use. It can be taken in half an hour, it is easy to mark, and the levels in the test make it easy to interpret. Answers are made on the test paper so test papers cannot be reused, adding to the cost of administering the test.

In this study, students were expected to write an appropriate word, some of whose letters were given, in the context provided for them. As to scoring, each correct word was awarded one point, but if there were spelling mistakes students were given a half point. After scoring, descriptive statistics related to the productive vocabulary tests, such as means and standard deviations were calculated for each pre- and post-test, for each group.

Overall, when used for its intended purpose, The Productive Vocabulary Levels Test is a suitably reliable, valid, and practical test.

2.5 Procedure

The purpose of the study was determined in late November. The design of the study, along with the experimental and control groups at the Vocational School, where the study would be conducted, was determined in December. After that, permission for carrying out the study at the institution was received from the head of the Foreign Language Department. The time frame of the study was prepared in January.

In early February, Cambridge Quick Placement Test Version 1 which would be used as a pre-test to determine the General English Proficiency Level, and Vocabulary Levels Tests, and Productive Vocabulary Levels Tests of 2000 and 3000 words to find out the vocabulary size of the students both in experimental and control groups were ready. The researcher listed the words that were included in the vocabulary enhancement activities from the second 1000 words of the General Service List according to the syllabus of the main course. After that, the draft of the fourteen-week schedule of the vocabulary implementation period, together with the activities of the first week that were incorporated into the schedule was created.

The vocabulary activities were not prepared in advance. They were designed and prepared each weekend before the foreign language lessons during the vocabulary implementation period. The implementation period started within the week of 28 February–4 March and ended in 30 May–03 June. 15 students in Class A; 14 students in Class B; and 14 students in Class C constituted the experimental group and were exposed to fourteen-week intensive vocabulary schedule. The 14th week of the implementation period was used for general revision. The same kind of vocabulary activities were presented to the students in the revision week, but this time the least frequent 80 words of the 2000 words were selected and included in the activities to check the overall learning and to improve the retention. On the other hand, the control groups, the students in Class D, Class E, and Class F followed the

regular school curriculum. In the control group, the researcher wrote the target words that he encountered in the main course and its different forms, such as verb form and adjective form, on the board. The researcher sometimes asked the students to make sentences with the words, and sometimes he made sentences for the students. When the word was not difficult to understand in English, the researcher said its meaning in the target language, but if it was difficult, the researcher used the native language. In this study, the researcher named all of these practices applied in the control group as "traditional method" shortly. Apart from these regular procedures, the researcher didn't allot class hours specially devoted for vocabulary teaching within the curriculum.

Finally, after the last treatment week, the revision week, version 1 of the Cambridge Quick Placement Test was performed again to all groups to see if a change occurred in the general proficiency level of the students. After that, version 1 of the Vocabulary Levels Test and version A of the Productive Levels Test of 2000 and 3000 words were conducted to both groups to detect whether there was an improvement in the vocabulary size and vocabulary production of the students.

2.5.1 Implementation of the Vocabulary in Control Group

There is no specific time allotted for vocabulary learning at the Vocational School. In 5 hours of English class every week students encounter many vocabulary words. Some of the teachers pay attention to these words and present them in detail. For example, they write the words on the board and have the students make example sentences with them, or they write other aspects of word knowledge for that vocabulary word. On the other hand, some other teachers skip the words as they think that vocabulary is the students' own responsibility and there is not enough time to teach all of the vocabulary words. They only say that the students are responsible for learning the highlighted words in the course books for the exams.

Vocabulary is assessed in every examination except writing quizzes in the institution. Students' receptive vocabulary knowledge is tested in these exams. They are provided with some sentences with blanks, and some target words given in a box. Students are supposed to fill in the blanks by choosing the appropriate words.

2.5.2 Implementation of the Vocabulary in Experimental Group

The materials used in this study consisted of a fourteen-week schedule of vocabulary implementation with enhancement activities. Every week students were expected to be capable of using approximately 80 target words, which had been chosen by the researcher from the second 1000 words of the GSL words. The researcher prepared many kinds of vocabulary activities and thus the students were exposed to different aspects of word knowledge of these target words each week. The information for each word that was used in the activities included synonyms, antonyms, crossword puzzles, matching-ups and unscrambling exercises. The vocabulary activities created by the researcher were designed to reinforce the form and meaning connection. Studying vocabulary was not adequate alone, recycle and revisit strategy (revision of the vocabulary of the previous week) were also administered throughout the implementation period and this enhanced learning and remembering the vocabulary. Except 2 weeks, students were exposed to approximately 80 words in four activities every week. Three of these activities, such as fill in the blanks, find the synonyms and matching-ups took place in each week of the schedule but the fourth activity changed. For example, the fourth activity of the first week was a crossword puzzle named smurfy verbs. In the second week, it was a find them up activity which was based on searching the words and marking them on different designs. In each "find them up" activity, different designs were created and presented to the students to increase their interest and motivation and by this way to enhance the retention of the newly learned vocabulary. For example in the "find them up 2" activity conducted in the fifth week of the implementation, the

activity was presented in a heart design, in the "find them up 3" activity carried out in the seventh week, it was introduced in a clover design (see Appendices IX and XII for the "find them up" vocabulary activity designs). Figure 2.1 below describes the vocabulary enhancement activities of the weeks, and Figure 2.2 describes the schematic representation of the design of the study.

Week 1	Activity 1: Find The Synonym Activity 2: General Service List Verbs Activity 3: Match Them Up Activity 4: Smurfy Verbs
Week 2	Activity 1: Boost Up Your Vocabulary Activity 2: Criss-Cross Activity 3: Find Them Up
Week 3	Activity 1: Fill In The Blanks 2 Activity 2: Improve Your Vocabulary Activity 3: Unscramble These Words
Week 4	Activity 1: Criss-Cross 2 Activity 2: Fill In The Blanks 3 Activity 3: Find The Synonym 2 Activity 4: Match Them Up 2
Week 5	Activity 1: Boost Up Your Vocabulary 2 Activity 2: Find Them Up 2 Activity 3: Find The Synonym 3 Activity 4: Match Them Up 3
Week 6	Activity 1: Fill In The Blanks 4 Activity 2: Find The Synonym 4 Activity 3: Improve Your Vocabulary 2 Activity 4: Unscramble These Words 2
Week 7	Activity 1: Match Them Up 4 Activity 2: Unscramble These Words 3 Activity 3: Boost Up Your Vocabulary 3 Activity 4: Find Them Up 3
Week 8	Activity 1: Find The Synonym 5 Activity 2: Find Them Up 4 Activity 3: Improve Your Vocabulary 3 Activity 4: Unscramble These Words 4
Week 9	Activity 1: Match Them Up 5 Activity 2: Improve Your Vocabulary 4 Activity 3: Find Them Up 5 Activity 4: Unscramble These Words 5
Week 10	Activity 1: Improve Your Vocabulary 5 Activity 2: Boost Up Your Vocabulary 4 Activity 3: Criss-Cross 3 Activity 4: Find Them Up 6
Week 11	Activity 1: Improve Your Vocabulary 6 Activity 2: Boost Up Your Vocabulary 5 Activity 3: Criss-Cross 4 Activity 4: Find The Synonym 6
Week 12	Activity 1: Match Them Up 6 Activity 2: Boost Up Your Vocabulary 6 Activity 3: Criss-Cross 5 Activity 4: Unscramble These Words 6
Week 13	Activity 1: Fill In The Blanks 5 Activity 2: Fill In The Blanks 6 Activity 3: Smurfy Verbs 2 Activity 4: General Service List Verbs 2
Week 14	Activity 1: Revision 1 Improve Your Vocabulary Activity 2: Revison 2 Boost Up Your Vocabulary Activity 3: Revision 3 Criss-Cross Activity 4: Revision 4 Find Them Up

Figure 2.1 - Vocabulary Enhancement Activities

Date	Implementation	
	Experimental Group	Control Group
November, 2011	The purpose of the study was determined in late November.	
December, 2011	The design of the study along with the groups was determined. Permission was granted to carry out the study.	
January, 2011	The time frame of the study was prepared.	
21 – 25 February 2011	Pre-Test 1 (Cambridge Quick Placement Test) Pre-Test 2 (Vocabulary Levels Test) Pre-Test 3 (Productive Vocabulary Test)	Pre-Test 1 (Cambridge Quick Placement Test) Pre-Test 2 (Vocabulary Levels Test) Pre-Test 3 (Productive Vocabulary Test)
28 Feb. – 04 March 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
07 – 11 March 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
14 – 18 March 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
21 – 25 March 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
28 March – 01 April 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
04 – 08 April 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
11 – 15 April 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
18 – 22 April 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
25 – 29 April 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
02 – 06 May 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
09 – 13 May 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
16 – 20 May 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
23 – 27 May 2011	Vocabulary Enhancement Activities	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
30 May – 03 June 2011	Revision of the Second One Thousand Words	Traditional Vocabulary Learning
06 – 10 June 2011	Post-Test 1 (Cambridge Quick Placement Test) Post-Test 2 (Vocabulary Levels Test) Post-Test 3 (Productive Vocabulary Test)	Post-Test 1 (Cambridge Quick Placement Test) Post-Test 2 (Vocabulary Levels Test) Post-Test 3 (Productive Vocabulary Test)

Figure 2.2- A Schematic Representation of the Design of the Study

2.6   Data Analysis

This study included quantitative data. Quasi-experimental design, composed of three instruments, was formed to collect data. The reason why true experiment was not implemented was that the researcher could not intervene the curriculum at the Vocational School, and had only two classes, which did not give any chance to apply random assignment because true experimental study differs from quasi-experimental design in that the former is carried out with random assignment (Nunan, 1991, pp.45-47, Campbell & Stanley, 1963, pp.17-21).

Nunan (1992) and Campbell and Stanley (1963) assert that since it is not always possible to carry out true experimental studies, and the impossibility of randomly assigning subject to experimental and control groups may occur, a quasi-experimental study can be conducted. In quasi-experimental design, there are pre- and post-test and experimental and control groups but no random assignment of participants. Instead of random assignment, matching assignment, one of the main characteristics of quasi-experimental design, was conducted. Both groups were matched according to the criterion of sameness level. The disadvantage of quasi-experimental design is the lack of random assignment and not being able to manipulate unexpected variables in the study (Cook and Campbell, 1979).

The data for this study was gathered from Cambridge Quick Placement Test version 1, Vocabulary Levels Test version 1, and Productive Vocabulary Test version A. The data collected from the tests was analyzed by using SPSS 17. The mean values and standard deviations of the pre-and post-Cambridge Quick Placement Test, Vocabulary Levels Test and Productive Vocabulary Levels Test were computed for the control and experimental groups. The purpose of having two groups in the study is that if one group is treated in one manner, and another in a different manner and their post-treatment behaviours differ, we can conclude that

the behaviours differ as a consequence of different treatments to different groups (Campbell and Stanley, 1963).

Since the number of the students in the classes is under 30, a non-parametric test was used. Kruskal Wallis Test was applied in order to make comparison of the quantitative data and to observe if there is a difference among the classes. As a result of this test, it is observed that the general language level of the groups is equal (Asymp Sg=0,915).

First, the classrooms were brought together and after that separated as experimental and control groups. When it is observed if there is a meaningful difference between them, it is realized that the groups don't disperse in a normal distribution way and should be evaluated with non-parametric tests. Therefore Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to see if two groups were equal to each other and it was observed that both groups were equal. (Asymp Sg=0,942) 0,05 < because it does not disperse in a normal distribution way.

This chapter provided detailed information about the participants, instruments and materials used in the study, the data collection procedure and the methods of data analysis. The next chapter will present the results of the data analysis.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1 Overview

This study was conducted to determine whether studying vocabulary both in size and depth in lexical competence would increase the vocabulary richness of the students and enhance their production in foreign language classrooms. In addition to that, the study examined whether the students who were exposed to large amounts of vocabulary in a special time allotted for vocabulary learning had an increase in their general proficiency level of English.

The study was conducted in English Language Department of a Vocational School in Yalova. There was a control group with 45 students, and an experimental group consisting of 43 students. While the students in the control group followed the regular curriculum, the students in the experimental group had a fourteen-week vocabulary implementation schedule integrated into the regular curriculum.

This chapter will deal with the results of the pre-and post tests (the data provided from Cambridge Quick Placement Tests, Vocabulary Levels Tests, and Productive Vocabulary Levels Tests) administered at the beginning and at the end of the treatment period. Each result of the instrument was discussed in detail, and comparative explanations and comments related to the results between the treatment and control groups were made in order to show the differences and similarities in retention and production of the vocabulary taught for 14 weeks.

3.2 Data Analysis Procedure

The main aim of this study was to find out whether focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence would make a significant difference between the two groups in terms of proficiency, size and production (retention) level of the students. The study included quantitative data. Quantitative data was gathered through Cambridge Quick Placement Tests, Vocabulary Levels Tests and Productive Vocabulary Tests administered before and after the vocabulary implementation period. The data collected from the test results were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 17.

3.3　Results of the Cambridge Quick Placement Tests

In this section, the analysis of the results of the Cambridge Quick Placement Test (QPT) which was conducted as a pre- and post test to the experimental and control groups was given in detail. First of all, it was observed if certain assumptions were realized to determine whether the data should be analyzed via parametric or non-parametric tests. One of these assumptions is that the data (test results) were to disperse in a normal distribution way. To see if the data dispersed in a normal distribution way, we used One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test.

Table 3.1 One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	Control Pre-QPT	Control Post-QPT	Experimental Pre-QPT	Experimental Post-QPT
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	2.923	2.857	2.808	2.210
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000

a. Test distribution is Normal.

When Table 3.1 is observed, it can be seen that the total scores the students in the experimental and control groups had from the Cambridge Quick Placement Test conducted before and after the vocabulary implementation period do not disperse in a normal distribution way. Therefore, the data gathered from the research was analyzed with non-parametric tests.

3.3.1　Findings and Remarks about the (1. Hypothesis) QPT Pre-Test Scores

• H_0: $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the QPT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)

• H_1: $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the QPT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)

In order to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the total pre-test results of the students in the experimental and control groups, Mann-Whitney U test was conducted.

Table 3.2 Comparison of the QPT Pre-Test Scores of the Students in the Experimental and Control Groups with Mann-Whitney U Test

Groups	N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	U	p
Control	45	44.81	2016.50	953.500	.885
Experimental	43	44.17	1899.50		

When Table 3.2 is observed, no statistically significant difference is found between the total scores the students in the experimental and control groups had from the QPT Pre-Test (p>0.05). This result supports the claim presented in H0 hypothesis. This situation was interpreted as "the language proficiency levels of the students in the experimental and control groups were equal to each other."

3.3.2 Findings and Remarks about the QPT Pre-Test / Post-Test Scores (2. Hypothesis) of the Control Group

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$(There is no significant difference between the QPT Post-Test and QPT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the QPT Post-Test and QPT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)

Wilcoxon Test was applied in order to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the total scores the students in the control group had from the Cambridge QPT conducted before and after the vocabulary implementation period.

Table 3.3 Comparison of the QPT Pre-Test / Post-Test Scores of the Students in the Control Group with Wilcoxon Test

Group	N	Mean rank	Sum of rank	z	p
Negative ranks	1	7	7	-3.051	.002
Positive ranks	12	7	84		
Ties	32				

When Table 3.3 is observed, it can be clearly seen that there is a statistically significant difference between the QPT Pre-Test and QPT Post-Test scores of the

students in the control group (p<0.05). This result supports the claim presented in H_1 hypothesis. This situation was interpreted as "the traditional vocabulary teaching methods applied in the control group affected the general language proficiency levels of the students in a positive way"

3.3.3 Findings and Remarks about the QPT Pre-Test / Post-Test Scores (3. Hypothesis) of the Experimental Group

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the QPT Post-Test and QPT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the QPT Post-Test and QPT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)

Wilcoxon test was applied in order to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the total scores the students in the experimental group had from the Cambridge QPT conducted before and after the vocabulary implementation period.

Table 3.4 Comparison of the QPT Pre-Test / Post-Test Scores of the Students in the Experimental Group with Wilcoxon Test

Group	N	Mean rank	Sum of rank	z	p
Negative ranks	0	.00	.00		
Positive ranks	32	16.50	528	-5.657	.000
Ties	11				

When Table 3.4 is observed, it can be seen that there is a statistically significant difference between the QPT Pre-Test and QPT Post-Test scores of the students in the experimental group (p<0.05). This result supports the claim presented in H1 hypothesis. This situation was interpreted as "focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence affected the general language proficiency level of the students in a positive way".

3.3.4 Findings and Remarks about the (4. Hypothesis) QPT Post-Test Scores

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the QPT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and QPT Pre-Test scores of the control group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the QPT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and QPT Pre-Test scores of the control group.)

Mann-Whitney U Test was applied in order to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the total scores the students in the experimental and control groups had from the Cambridge QPT conducted after the vocabulary implementation period.

Table 3.5 Comparison of the QPT Post-Test Scores of the Students in the Control and the Experimental Group with Mann-Whitney U Test

Groups	N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	u	p
Control	45	35.30	1588.50	553.50	.000
Experimental	43	54.13	2327.50		

When Table 3.5 is observed, a statistically significant difference is found between the Cambridge QPT Post-Test scores of the students in the experimental and control groups ($p<0.05$). This result supports the claim presented in H1 hypothesis. This situation was interpreted as "in regarding to the general language proficiency levels of the students, focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence in vocabulary teaching increased the general language proficiency levels of the students more than the classical methods used in the traditional vocabulary teaching methods".

3.4   Results of the Vocabulary Levels Tests

In this section, the analysis of the results of the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) which was conducted as a pre- and post test to the experimental and control groups was given in detail. First of all, it was observed if certain assumptions were realized to determine whether the data should be analyzed via parametric or non-parametric tests. One of these assumptions is that the data (test results) were to disperse in a normal distribution way. To see if the data dispersed in a normal distribution way, we again used One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test.

Table 3.6 One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	Control Pre-VLT	Control Post-VLT	Experimental Pre-VLT	Experimental Post-VLT
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	.771	.918	.820	.653
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.592	.368	.512	.787

a. Test distribution is Normal.

When Table 3.6 is observed, it can be seen that the total scores the students in the experimental and control groups had from the Vocabulary Levels Test conducted before and after the vocabulary implementation period disperse in a normal distribution way. Therefore, the data gathered from the research was analyzed with parametric tests.

3.4.1   Findings and Remarks about the (5. Hypothesis) VLT Pre-Test Scores

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the VLT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the VLT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)

In order to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the total VLT Pre-Test results of the students in the experimental and control groups, Independent Samples Test was conducted.

Table 3.7 Comparison of the VLT Pre-Test Scores of the Students in the Control and the Experimental Group with Independent Samples Test

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t	p
Control	45	355.64	97.44	14.53	.12	.904
Experimental	43	353.21	91.87	14.01		

When Table 3.7 is observed, it can be clearly seen that the arithmetic average of the scores the 45 students in the control group had from the VLT Pre-Test is 355.64, and the standard deviation is 97.44; on the other hand, the arithmetic average of the scores the 43 students in the experimental group had from the VLT Pre-Test is 353.21, and the standard deviation is 91.87. No statistically significant difference was found between the VLT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups (t= 0.12, p>0.05). This result supports the claim presented in H0 hypothesis. This situation was interpreted as "with regard to the VLT Pre-Test scores, the vocabulary size levels of the students in the experimental and control groups were equal to each other".

3.4.2 Findings and Remarks about the VLT Pre-Test – VLT Post-Test Scores (6. Hypothesis) of the Control Group

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the VLT Post-Test and VLT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the VLT Post-Test and VLT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)

Paired Samples Test was applied in order to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the total scores the students in the control group had from the VLT conducted before and after the vocabulary implementation period.

Table 3.8 Interpretation of the VLT Pre-Test / Post-Test Results of the Control Group

Test	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	r	t	df	p
Pre-Test	45	355.64	97.44	14.53	.72	-12.44	44	.000
Post-Test	45	481.87	60.46	9.01				

When Table 3.8 is observed, it can be clearly seen that the arithmetic average of the students in the control group from the VLT Pre-Test is 355.64, the standard deviation is 97.44; the arithmetic average of the Post-Test is 481.87, and the standard deviation is 60.46. There is a statistically significant difference between the VLT Pre-Test – VLT Post-Test scores of the control group (t= -12.44, p<0.05). This result supports the claim presented in H_1 hypothesis. This situation was interpreted as "with regard to the VLT Pre-Test/Post-Test scores of the control group, the classical approaches used in the traditional vocabulary teaching methods affected the vocabulary size of the students in a positive way".

3.4.3 Findings and Remarks about the VLT Pre-Test / Post-Test Scores (7. Hypothesis) of the Experimental Group

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the VLT Post-Test and VLT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the VLT Post-Test and VLT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)

Paired Samples Test was applied in order to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the total scores the students in the experimental group had from the VLT conducted before and after the vocabulary implementation period.

Table 3.9 Interpretation of the VLT Pre-Test / Post-Test Results of the Experimental Group

Test	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	r	t	df	p
Pre-Test	43	353.21	91.87	14.01	.75	-41.64	42	.000
Post-Test	43	742.16	69.23	10.56				

When Table 3.9 is observed, it can be seen that the arithmetic average of the students in the experimental group from the VLT Pre-Test is 353.21, the standard deviation is 91.87; the arithmetic average of the Post-Test is 742.16, and the standard deviation is 69.23. There is a statistically significant difference between the VLT Pre-Test – VLT Post-Test scores of the experimental group (t= -41.64, p<0.05). This result supports the claim presented in H_1 hypothesis. This situation was interpreted as "with regard to the VLT Pre-Test/Post-Test scores of the experimental group, focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence in vocabulary teaching affected the vocabulary size levels of the students in a positive way".

3.4.4 Findings and Remarks about the VLT Post-Test Scores (8. Hypothesis)

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the VLT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and VLT Post-Test scores of the control group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the VLT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and VLT Post-Test scores of the control group.)

In order to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the total post-test results of the students in the experimental and control groups, Independent Samples Test was conducted.

Table 3.10 Interpretation of the VLT Post-Test Results of the Experimental and Control Groups

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t	p
Control	45	481.87	60.46	9.01	-18.81	.000
Experimental	43	742.16	69.23	10.56		

When Table 3.10 is observed, it can be seen that the arithmetic average of the scores the 45 students in the control group had from the VLT Post-Test is 481.87, and the standard deviation is 60.46; on the other hand, the arithmetic average of the scores the 43 students in the experimental group had from the VLT Post-Test is 742.16, and the standard deviation is 69.23. There is a statistically significant difference between the VLT Post-Test scores of the experimental and control groups ($t=-18.81$, $p<0.05$). This result supports the claim presented in H1 hypothesis. This situation was interpreted as "in regarding to the vocabulary size levels of the students, focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence in vocabulary teaching increased the vocabulary size levels of the students more than the classical methods used in the traditional vocabulary teaching methods".

3.5 Results of the Productive Vocabulary Tests

In this section, the analysis of the results of the Productive Vocabulary Test which was conducted as a pre- and post test to the experimental and control groups was given in detail. First of all, it was observed if certain assumptions were realized to determine whether the data should be analyzed via parametric or non-parametric tests. One of these assumptions is that the data (test results) were to disperse in a normal distribution way. To see if the data dispersed in a normal distribution way, we used One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test.

Table 3.11 One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	Control Pre-PVT	Control Post-PVT	Experimental Pre-PVT	Experimental Post-PVT
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	.780	.801	.715	.815
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.577	.543	.685	520

a. Test distribution is Normal.

When Table 3.11 is observed, it can be seen that the total scores the students in the experimental and control groups had from the Productive Vocabulary Test conducted before and after the vocabulary implementation period disperse in a normal distribution way. Therefore, the data gathered from the research was analyzed with parametric tests.

3.5.1 Findings and Remarks about the (9. Hypothesis) PVT Pre-Test Scores

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$(There is no significant difference between the PVT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the PVT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)

In order to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the total PVT Pre-Test results of the students in the experimental and control groups, Independent Samples Test was conducted.

Table 3.12 Comparison of the PVT Pre-Test Scores of the Students in the Control and the Experimental Group with Independent Samples Test

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t	p
Control	45	5.09	2.18	.33	.69	.494
Experimental	43	4.77	2.20	.33		

When Table 3.12 is observed, it can be clearly seen that the arithmetic average of the scores the 45 students in the control group had from the PVT Pre-Test is 5.09, and the standard deviation is 2.18; on the other hand, the arithmetic average of the scores the 43 students in the experimental group had from the PVT Pre-Test is 4.77, and the standard deviation is 2.20. No statistically significant difference was found between the PVT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups (t= 0.69, p>0.05). This result supports the claim presented in H0 hypothesis. This situation was interpreted as "with regard to the PVT Pre-Test scores, the vocabulary production levels of the students in the experimental and control groups were equal to each other".

3.5.2 Findings and Remarks about the PVT Pre-Test – PVT Post-Test Scores (10. Hypothesis) of the Control Group

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$(There is no significant difference between the PVT Post-Test and PVT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the PVT Post-Test and PVT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)

Paired Samples Test was applied in order to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the total scores the students in the control group had from the PVT conducted before and after the vocabulary implementation period.

Table 3.13 Interpretation of the PVT Pre-Test / Post-Test Results of the Control Group

Test	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	r	t	df	p
Pre-Test	45	5.09	2.18	.33	.64	-1.65	44	.105
Post-Test	45	5.51	1.78	.27				

When Table 3.13 is observed, it can be clearly seen that the arithmetic average of the students in the control group from the PVT Pre-Test is 5.09, the standard deviation is 2.18; the arithmetic average of the Post-Test is 5.51, and the standard deviation is 1.78. There is no statistically significant difference between the PVT Pre-Test – PVT Post-Test scores of the control group (t= -1.65, p >0.05). This result supports the claim presented in H0 hypothesis. This situation was interpreted as "with regard to the PVT Pre-Test/Post-Test scores of the control group, the classical approaches used in the traditional vocabulary teaching methods had no effect on the vocabulary production of the students".

3.5.3 Findings and Remarks about the PVT Pre-Test / Post-Test Scores (11. Hypothesis) of the Experimental Group

• H_0: $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the PVT Post-Test and PVT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)

• H_1: $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the PVT Post-Test and PVT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)

Paired Samples Test was applied in order to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the total scores the students in the experimental group had from the PVT conducted before and after the vocabulary implementation period.

Table 3.14 Interpretation of the PVT Pre-Test / Post-Test Results of the Experimental Group

Test	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	r	t	df	p
Pre-Test	43	4.77	2.20	.33	.71	-17.62	42	.000
Post-Test	43	8.98	1.81	.28				

When Table 3.14 is observed, it can be seen that the arithmetic average of the students in the experimental group from the PVT Pre-Test is 4.77, the standard deviation is 2.20; the arithmetic average of the Post-Test is 8.98, and the standard deviation is 1.81. There is a statistically significant difference between the PVT Pre-Test – PVT Post-Test scores of the experimental group (t= -17.62, p<0.05). This result supports the claim presented in H1 hypothesis. This situation was interpreted as "with regard to the PVT Pre-Test/Post-Test scores of the experimental group, focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence in vocabulary teaching affected the vocabulary production levels of the students in a positive way".

3.5.4 Findings and Remarks about the PVT Post-Test Scores (12. Hypothesis)

• H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the PVT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and PVT Post-Test scores of the control group.)

• H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the PVT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and PVT Post-Test scores of the control group.)

In order to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the total post-test results of the students in the experimental and control groups, Independent Samples Test was conducted.

Table 3.15 Interpretation of the PVT Post-Test Results of the Experimental and Control Groups

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t	p
Control	45	5.51	1.78	.27	-9.07	.000
Experimental	43	8.98	1.81	.28		

When Table 3.15 is observed, it can be seen that the arithmetic average of the scores the 45 students in the control group had from the PVT Post-Test is 5.51, and the standard deviation is 1.78; on the other hand, the arithmetic average of the scores the 43 students in the experimental group had from the PVT Post-Test is 8.98, and the standard deviation is 1.81. There is a statistically significant difference between the PVT Post-Test scores of the experimental and control groups (t=-9.07, p<0.05). This result supports the claim presented in H1 hypothesis. This situation was interpreted as "in regarding to the vocabulary production levels of the students, focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence in vocabulary teaching increased the vocabulary production levels of the students more than the classical methods used in the traditional vocabulary teaching methods".

This chapter reported the analysis of the quantitative data gathered through the instruments of the study. According to the data analysis, focusing vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence are found to be effective in general language proficiency level, vocabulary richness and vocabulary production of the students (see Table 3.16). The following chapter will answer the research questions, discuss the findings, and present implications in the light of the results and the limitations of the study.

Table 3.16 Overall Results and Values of the Research Questions and Hypotheses

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	REALIZED HYPOTHESES	VALUES
R:1 Is there a significant difference in their general language proficiency levels between the students focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence (the experimental group) and those who are not (the control group) after the implementation of the activities?	1. $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the QPT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)	U = 953.500 P = .885
	2. $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the QPT Post-Test and QPT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)	Z = -3.051 P = .002
	3. $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the QPT Post-Test and QPT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)	Z = -5.657 P = .000
	4. $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the QPT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and QPT Post-Test scores of the control group.)	U = 553.50 P = .000
R:2 Is there a significant difference in their vocabulary size levels between the students in the experimental and the control group when we apply vocabulary activities in the classroom?	5. $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the VLT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)	T = 0.12 P = .904
	6. $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the VLT Post-Test and VLT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)	T = -12.44 P = .000
	7. $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the VLT Post-Test and VLT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)	T = -41.64 P = .000
	8. $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the VLT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and VLT Post-Test scores of the control group.)	T = -18.81 P = .000
R:3 Is there a significant difference in their vocabulary production levels after the implementation of the activities between the students exposed to the vocabulary activities and those who are not exposed to it?	9. $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the PVT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups.)	T = 0.69 P = .494
	10. $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ (There is no significant difference between the PVT Post-Test and PVT Pre-Test scores of the students in the control group.)	T = -1.65 P = .105
	11. $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the PVT Post-Test and PVT Pre-Test scores of the students in the experimental group.)	T = -17.62 P = .000
	12. $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$ (There is a significant difference between the PVT Post-Test scores of the experimental group and PVT Post-Test scores of the control group.)	T = -9.07 P = .000

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

4.1   General Results and Discussion

This section will answer the research questions of this study and discuss the findings in the light of the relevant literature.

The first research question was as follows: "Is there a significant difference in their general language proficiency levels between the students focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence (the experimental group) and those who are not (the control group) after the implementation of the vocabulary activities?"

In respect to the QPT Pre-Test results, no statistically significant difference was found between the students in the experimental and control groups. As a result, this situation was interpreted as "the general language proficiency levels of the students in the experimental and control groups were equal to each other." With regard to the QPT Post-Test scores, it was observed that there was a statistically significant increase in general language proficiency levels of the students both in the control group that studied vocabulary in traditional way within the curriculum and in the experimental group that studied vocabulary with enhancement activities in the 14-week implementation period within the curriculum.

The reasons of the slight significant increase that were seen in the control group were as follows;

1. First of all, the students in the control group also followed their usual curriculum in this fourteen-week long implementation period.

2. Secondly, since the textbooks that are used in the institution are based on an eclectic method, they include basic vocabulary activities in every unit.

From this perspective, a usual increase after a 14 – week long implementation period was expected in the control group.

To determine whether there was a statistically significant difference regarding the general language proficiency levels of the students in the experimental and control groups at the end of the intensive vocabulary implementation period, Mann-Whitney U Test was conducted. The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference in favor of the experimental group. In the light of these findings, it was concluded that regarding to the general language proficiency levels of the students, focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence in vocabulary teaching proved to be much more successful than the classical approaches used in the traditional vocabulary teaching. This result is also consistent with the results of the studies carried out by Ördem (2005), Büyükkarcı (2006), and Aksoy (2008). As Meara claims "All other things being equal, learners with big vocabularies are more proficient in a wide range of language skills than learners with smaller vocabularies, and there is some evidence to support the view that vocabulary skills make a significant contribution to almost all aspects of L2 proficiency" (1996, p.3).

The second research question was "Is there a significant difference in their vocabulary size levels between the students in the experimental and control groups when we apply vocabulary activities in the classroom?" The results indicated that with respect to the VLT Pre-Test results, there was no statistically significant difference between the students in the experimental and control groups. Therefore,

this situation was interpreted as "with regard to the VLT Pre-Test scores, the vocabulary size levels of the students in the experimental and control groups were equal to each other". In terms of the VLT Post-Test scores, it was observed that there was a statistically significant increase in vocabulary size levels of the students both in the control group that studied vocabulary in traditional way within the curriculum and in the experimental group that studied vocabulary with enhancement activities in the 14-week implementation period within the curriculum.

The significant increase in the vocabulary size levels of the students in the control group that studied vocabulary in traditional way within the curriculum turned out to be as expected because during the content analysis of the textbooks the students used in the curriculum, it was found out that 267 words in the target vocabulary list of the textbooks and the second one thousand most frequent words in English overlapped.

Independent Samples T Test was conducted to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference as regards to the vocabulary size levels of the students in the experimental and control groups at the end of the implementation period. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in favor of the experimental group. This situation was interpreted as "regarding to the vocabulary size levels of the students, focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence in vocabulary teaching increased the vocabulary size levels of the students much more than the classical approaches used in the traditional vocabulary teaching".

This result in the experimental group was foreseen because intensive vocabulary activities and gaining awareness about the words led to significant difference between the groups. Studying vocabulary was not adequate alone, recycle and

revisit strategy were also administered throughout the implementation period and this enhanced learning and remembering the vocabulary. The length of the implementation period was also effective in recycle and revisit strategy because if the length of the implementation period had been 3 or 4 weeks, this result might not have emerged positively. The literature related to this research question also supports this result by putting forward the idea that vocabulary size is sensitive to L2 proficiency development, meaning that there is a close link between vocabulary size and L2 proficiency (Zareva et al., 2005, 567–595). Zareva also found that vocabulary size increases as L2 proficiency develops. Thus, the development of L2 proficiency in relation to vocabulary learning should be understood as a function of the enlargement of vocabulary size and the degrees of vocabulary knowledge.

The third research question was "Is there a significant difference in their vocabulary production levels after the implementation of the activities between the students exposed to the vocabulary activities and those who are not exposed to it?" Taking into account the statistical data, no significant difference was found between the PVT Pre-Test scores of the experimental and control groups. This result was interpreted as "with regard to the PVT Pre-Test scores, the vocabulary production levels of the students in the experimental and control groups were equal to each other". As regards to the PVT Post-Test results, the figures revealed that there was a significant increase in vocabulary production levels of the students in the experimental group that were exposed to large amounts of vocabulary in 14-week implementation period. An increase in the vocabulary production levels of the students in the control group that studied vocabulary in traditional method was observed in terms of the PVT Post-Test results but it was seen that this increase was not statistically significant. To determine whether there was a statistically

significant difference regarding the vocabulary production levels of the students in the experimental and control groups at the end of the implementation period, Independent Samples T Test was administered. The statistics showed that focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence in terms of vocabulary enhancement activities result in a significant difference in favor of the experimental group and has a positive effect in terms of the number of accurate word use and overall vocabulary production level in vocabulary learning. Because repetition, recycle, revisit and memorization have been vital in acquiring lexical competence, which will change production for the better (Jiang, 2000, pp.64–65), this result clearly shows that the experimental group produced vocabulary more precisely than the control group because their level of retention became higher than the latter.

This study was conducted to determine whether studying vocabulary both in size and depth in lexical competence would increase the vocabulary richness of the students and enhance their production in foreign language classrooms. The results showed that focusing on vocabulary size and depth in lexical competence in special class hours devoted for vocabulary teaching was effective in boosting the general language proficiency, vocabulary size and vocabulary production levels of the students. The students who studied vocabulary during the intensive fourteen-week vocabulary implementation period with various kinds of enhancement activities attained significantly higher scores in the receptive (Cambridge Quick Placement Test, Vocabulary Levels Test), and productive (Productive Vocabulary Test) vocabulary tests than the students who did not engage with this kind of learning period and were taught vocabulary in limited class hours in traditional way. In addition to that, the students who were exposed to large amounts of vocabulary in fourteen-week intensive vocabulary implementation period increased their general

language proficiency and vocabulary size levels significantly, managed to use the target words productively and by learning the second one thousand most frequent words in English, they achieved to be efficient and effective language users in the target language. To conclude, specifically devoted class hours for vocabulary teaching within the curriculum proved to be valuable in helping language learners becoming a talented and proficient language users in the target language.

4.2 Implications of the study

The results of this study suggest that focusing on size and depth in lexical competence increases the language proficiency, vocabulary size and vocabulary production levels of the students in respect to the traditional vocabulary teaching methods administered in the EFL classrooms.

Another suggestion is that the students who were exposed to large amounts of vocabulary during the class hours specially devoted for vocabulary teaching within the curriculum achieved to be efficient and effective language users in the target language. Therefore, class hours specifically allotted for vocabulary teaching could be included in the curriculum of the institution and also, other vocational schools in EFL and even in ESL settings could adapt this program after the consideration of the needs of the students and expectations of the institutions, since they are found to be much more effective in students' vocabulary learning. Instructors may develop additional activities and tasks including the third thousand, five thousand and academic word lists and integrate these materials into the syllabuses of the courses.

Finally, in these devoted class hours for vocabulary, the words that will be studied (corpus) should be determined in advance and additional activities should be conducted for their teaching. Not a random but a corpus based vocabulary teaching according to the needs of the students and expectations of the institutions could be adopted.

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4.3   Suggestions for further research

In the light of the findings obtained from this study, the following suggestions were developed:

1. In the study, the vocabulary implementation period lasted 14 weeks. Further studies can be conducted to find out whether vocabulary size and vocabulary production levels of the students would differ in a positive or negative way, if the implementation period were shorter or longer.

2. Five kinds of different vocabulary activities (fill in the blank, matching-up, unscrambling, criss-cross, searching the word), were prepared and applied in the fourteen-week long implementation period. Further studies can be administered to find out which activity or activities proved to be more useful in increasing the language proficiency, vocabulary size and vocabulary production levels of the students in the experimental group.

3. No qualitative material was used and evaluated in the vocabulary implementation period in this study. Further studies which include the qualitative data (essays, compositions, etc.) besides the quantitative data might produce different results.

4. This study aimed to investigate whether there was going to be a significant difference in the general language proficiency, vocabulary size and vocabulary production levels of the students when they studied vocabulary through lexical competence. Due to the limited time frame, in-depth vocabulary tests were not used in the implementation period. Vocabulary learning might not only refer to sound-meaning pairings, but also incorporate something more than memorizing L1 equivalents, since, as pointed out by some L2 researchers (Nation, 1990, 2001; Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Gass, 1999; Bogaards, 2000), there might be various properties of lexical knowledge that L2 learners should have in order to

comprehend or produce the target language in a native-like way. The fact that L2 learners should have various types of lexical knowledge in turn indicates that they must have in-depth knowledge of a given L2 word. Therefore, further studies can be carried out to diagnose the vocabulary depth skills of the students in addition to the receptive ones.

5. Lastly, taking the limitations of the study into consideration, a similar research study could be conducted in a longer time frame, with different word lists, and with more participant students from different levels.

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APPENDIX I

The first 1000 words of the General Service List

a
able
about
above
accept
accord
account
across
act
actual
add
address
admit
adopt
advance
advantage
affair
afford
after
again
against
age
ago
agree
air
all
allow
almost
alone
along
already
also
although
always
among
amount
ancient
and
animal
another
answer
any
appear
apply
appoint
arise
arm
army
around
arrive

art
article
as
ask
association
at
attack
attempt
average
away
back
bad
ball
bank
bar
base
battle
be
bear
beauty
because
become
bed
before
begin
behind
being
believe
belong
below
beneath
beside
best
better
between
beyond
big
bill
bird
bit
black
blood
blow
blue
board
boat
body
book
born
both

box
boy
branch
bread
breadth
break
bridge
bright
bring
brother
build
burn
business
but
buy
by
call
can
capital
car
care
carry
case
catch
cause
centre
certain
chance
change
character
charge
chief
child
choose
church
circle
city
claim
class
clean
clear
clock
close
club
coast
cold
college
colour
come
command

common	disease	expect
company	distance	expense
compare	distinguish	experience
complete	district	experiment
concern	divide	explain
condition	do	express
connect	doctor	extend
consider	dog	eye
contain	door	face
content	double	fact
continue	doubt	factory
control	down	fail
corner	draw	fair
cost	dream	faith
could	dress	fall
council	drive	familiar
count	drop	family
country	dry	famous
course	due	farm
court	during	fashion
cover	each	fast
creature	ear	father
cross	early	favourite
crowd	earth	favour
cry	east	fear
current	easy	feed
custom	eat	feel
cut	edge	fellow
dance	effect	few
danger	effort	field
dare	either	figure
dark	else	fill
date	employ	find
daughter	end	fine
day	enemy	finger
dead	English	finish
deal	enjoy	fire
decide	enough	first
declare	enter	fish
deep	entire	fit
degree	equal	fix
deliver	escape	floor
demand	even	flower
describe	evening	follow
desert	event	food
desire	ever	for
destroy	every	force
detail	everywhere	foreign
determine	evil	forget
develop	example	form
die	excellent	former
difference	except	forth
difficult	exchange	fortune
direct	exercise	forward
discover	exist	free

102

friend	honour	level
from	hope	library
front	horse	lie
full	hot	life
further	hour	lift
future	house	light
gain	how	like
game	hullo	likely
garden	human	limit
gate	hurrah	line
gather	husband	listen
general	I	little
gentle	idea	live
get	if	local
give	impossible	long
glad	in	look
glass	inch	lose
go	include	lost
God	increase	lot
gold	indeed	love
good	independent	low
great	influence	machine
green	instead	main
ground	intend	make
group	interest	man
grow	into	manner
guard	introduce	manners
habit	iron	many
half	it	march
hall	its	mark
hand	join	market
handle	judge	marry
hang	just	mass
happen	keep	material
happy	kill	matter
hard	kind	may
hardly	know	me
have	lack	mean
he	lady	measure
head	land	meet
health	language	member
hear	large	memory
heat	last	mention
heaven	late	mere
heavy	law	metal
help	lay	middle
her	lead	might
here	learn	mile
hide	least	mind
high	leave	mine
hill	left	minister
his	length	minute
history	less	miss
hold	let	modern
home	letter	moment

103

money	operation	preserve
month	opinion	press
more	opportunity	pretty
moreover	or	prevent
morning	order	price
most	ordinary	print
mother	organize	private
motor	other	problem
mountain	otherwise	produce
mouth	ought	product
move	ounce	production
much	our	program
music	out of	programme
must	out	progress
my	over	promise
name	owe	proof
narrow	own	proper
nation	page	propose
native	pain	protect
nature	paint	prove
near	paper	provide
necessary	part	public
neck	party	pull
need	pass	purpose
neighbour	past	put
neither	pay	quality
never	peace	quarter
new	people	quiet
next	perfect	quite
night	perhaps	race
no	permanent	raise
none	permit	rank
nor	person	rate
north	picture	rather
not	piece	reach
note	place	read
nothing	plan	ready
notice	plant	real
now	play	reason
nowhere	please	receive
number	point	recent
object	political	recognize
observe	poor	record
occasion	popular	red
of	population	reduce
off	position	refuse
offer	possess	regard
office	possible	regular
often	post	relation
oil	pound	religion
old	poverty	remain
once	power	remark
one	practical	remember
only	prepare	repeat
open	present	reply

104

report	shave	state
represent	she	station
respect	shine	stay
rest	shoe	steal
result	shoot	steel
return	shore	step
rich	short	stick
ride	should	still
right	shoulder	stock
ring	show	stone
rise	side	stop
river	sight	store
road	sign	storm
roll	silence	story
room	silver	straight
rough	simple	strange
round	since	stream
rule	single	street
ruler	sir	strength
run	sister	stretch
rush	sit	strike
safe	situation	strong
sail	size	struggle
same	skill	study
save	sky	subject
saw	sleep	substance
say	slight	succeed
scale	slow	such
scarce	small	sudden
scene	smile	suffer
school	so	suggest
science	society	summer
sea	soft	sun
season	soil	supply
seat	some	support
second	son	suppose
secret	soon	sure
secretary	sort	surface
see	sound	surprise
seem	south	surround
seize	space	sweet
sell	speak	system
send	special	table
sense	speed	take
separate	spend	talk
serious	spirit	taste
serve	spite	teach
set	spot	tear
settle	spread	tell
several	spring	term
shadow	square	terrible
shake	stage	test
shall	stand	than
shape	standard	that
share	start	the

105

their
them
then
there
therefore
these
they
thing
think
this
though
thought
through
throw
thus
time
to
today
together
too
top
total
touch
toward/ s
town
trade
train
travel
tree
trouble
trust
truth
try
turn
type
under
understand
union
unite

university
unless
until
up
upon
use
usual
valley
value
various
very
view
village
visit
voice
vote
wait
walk
wall
want
war
warn
waste
watch
water
wave
way
we
weak
wear
week
welcome
well
west

what
when
where
whether

which
while
white
who
whose
why
wide
wife
wild
will
win
wind
window
wing
winter
wise
wish
with
within
without
woman
wonder
wood
word
work
world
worse
worth
would
write
wrong
year
yellow
yes
yesterday
yet
you
young

The second
1000 words
of the
General
Service List

abroad	aunt	borrow
absence	autumn	bottle
absolutely	avenue	bottom
accident	avoid	bound
accuse	awake	boundary
accustom	awkward	bow
ache	axe	bowl
admire	baby	brain
adventure	bag	brass
advertise	baggage	brave
advice	bake	breakfast
afraid	balance	breath
afternoon	band	bribe
agent	barber	brick
agriculture	bare	broad
ahead	bargain	brown
aim	barrel	brush
aeroplane	basin	bucket
alike	basket	bunch
alive	bath	bundle
aloud	bay	burst
altogether	beak	bury
ambition	beam	bus
amongst	bean	bush
amuse	beard	busy
anger	beast	butter
angle	beat	button
annoy	beg	cage
anxiety	behave	cake
apart	bell	calculate
apologize	belt	calm
applaud	bend	camera
apple	berry	camp
approve	bicycle	canal
arch	bind	cap
argue	birth	cape
arrange	bite	captain
arrest	bitter	card
arrow	blade	carriage
artificial	blame	cart
ash	bless	castle
ashamed	blind	cat
aside	block	cattle
asleep	boast	caution
astonish	boil	cave
attend	bold	cent
attract	bone	century
audience	border	ceremony

chain	cottage	disappoint
chair	cotton	discipline
chalk	cough	discuss
charm	courage	disgust
cheap	cousin	dish
cheat	cow	dismiss
check	coward	disturb
cheer	crack	ditch
cheese	crash	dive
cheque	cream	dollar
chest	creep	donkey
chicken	crime	dot
chimney	critic	dozen
Christmas	crop	drag
civilize	crown	drawer
clay	cruel	drink
clerk	crush	drown
clever	cultivate	drum
cliff	cup	duck
climb	cupboard	dull
cloth	cure	dust
cloud	curious	duty
coal	curl	eager
coarse	curse	earn
coat	curtain	earnest
coffee	curve	ease
coin	cushion	educate
collar	damage	efficient
collect	damp	egg
colony	deaf	elastic
comb	dear	elder
combine	debt	elect
comfort	decay	electricity
commerce	deceive	elephant
committee	decrease	empire
companion	deed	empty
compete	deer	enclose
complain	defeat	encourage
complicated	defend	engine
compose	delay	entertain
confess	delicate	envelope
confidence	delight	envy
confuse	department	especial
congratulate	depend	essence
conquer	descend	exact
conscience	deserve	examination
conscious	desk	excess
convenience conversation	despair	excite
cook	devil	excuse
cool	diamond	explode
copper	dictionary	explore
copy	dig	extra
cork	dinner	extraordinary
corn	dip	extreme
correct	dirt	fade

faint	girl	hut
false	glory	ice
fan	goat	ideal
fancy	govern	idle
far	grace	ill
farther	gradual	imagine
fat	grain	imitate
fate	grammar	immediate
fault	grand	immense
feast	grass	important
feather	grateful	improve
female	grave	indoors
fence	grease	industry
fever	greed	inform
fierce	greet	ink
fight	grey	in-law
film	grind	inn
firm	guess	inquire
flag	guest	insect
flame	guide	inside
flash	guilty	instant
flat	gun	instrument
flavour	hair	insult
flesh	hammer	insure
float	handkerchief	interfere
flood	harbor	international
flour	harm	interrupt
flow	harvest	invent
fly	haste	invite
fold	hat	inward/s
fond	hate	island
fool	hay	jaw
foot	heal	jealous
forbid	heap	jewel
forest	heart	joint
forgive	height	joke
fork	hesitate	journey
formal	hinder	joy
frame	hire	juice
freeze	hit	jump
frequent	hole	key
fresh	holiday	kick
fright	hollow	king
fruit	holy	kiss
fry	honest	kitchen
fun	hook	knee
funeral	horizon	kneel
fur	hospital	knife
furnish	host	knock
gallon	hotel	knot
gap	humble	ladder
garage	hunger	lake
gas	hunt	lamp
gay	hurry	latter
generous	hurt	laugh

lazy	mistake	paste
leaf	mix	path
lean	model	patient
leather	moderate	patriotic
leg	modest	pattern
lend	monkey	pause
lessen	moon	paw
lesson	moral	pearl
liberty	motion	peculiar
lid	mouse	pen
limb	mud	pencil
lip	multiply	penny
liquid	murder	per
list	mystery	perform
literature	nail	persuade
load	neat	pet
loaf	needle	photograph
loan	neglect	pick
lock	nephew	pig
lodging	nest	pigeon
log	net	pile
lonely	nice	pin
loose	niece	pinch
lord	noble	pink
loud	noise	pint
loyal	nonsense	pipe
luck	noon	pity
lump	nose	plain
lunch	noun	plaster
lung	nuisance	plate
mad	nurse	plenty
mail	nut	plough
male	oar	plural
manage	obey	pocket
manufacture	ocean	poet
map	offend	poison
master	omit	police
mat	onto	polish
match	opposite	polite
meal	orange	pool
meanwhile	organ	postpone
meat	origin	pot
mechanic	ornament	pour
medicine	overcome	powder
melt	pack	practice
mend	pad	praise
merchant	pair	pray
mercy	pale	preach
merry	pan	precious
message	parcel	prefer
mild	pardon	prejudice
milk	parent	president
mill	park	pretend
mis-	particular	pride
miserable	passage	priest

prison	resist	seldom
prize	responsible	sentence
probable	restaurant	severe
procession	retire	sew
profession	revenge	shade
profit	review	shallow
prompt	reward	shame
pronounce	ribbon	sharp
property	rice	sheep
proud	rid	sheet
pump	ripe	shelf
punctual	risk	shell
punish	rival	shelter
pupil	roar	shield
pure	roast	shilling
purple	rob	ship
push	rock	shirt
puzzle	rod	shock
qualify	roof	shop
quantity	root	shout
quarrel	rope	shower
quart	rot	shut
queen	row	sick
question	royal	signal
quick	rub	silk
rabbit	rubber	sincere
radio	rubbish	sing
rail	rude	sink
rain	rug	skin
rake	ruin	skirt
rapid	rust	slave
rare	sacred	slide
rat	sacrifice	slip
raw	sad	slope
ray	saddle	smell
razor	sake	smoke
recommend	salary	smooth
refer	sale	snake
reflect	salt	snow
refresh	sample	soap
regret	sand	socks
rejoice	satisfy	soldier
relieve	sauce	solemn
remedy	saucer	solid
remind	scatter	solve
rent	scent	sore
repair	scissors	sorry
replace	scold	soul
reproduce	scorn	soup
republic	scrape	sour
reputation	scratch	sow
request	screen	spade
rescue	screw	spare
reserve	search	spell
resign	seed	spill

spin	temper	trunk
spit	temperature	tube
splendid	temple	tune
split	tempt	twist
spoil	tend	ugly
spoon	tender	umbrella
sport	tent	uncle
staff	thank/s	unit
stain	theatre	unity
stairs	thick	universe
stamp	thief	upper
star	thin	upright
steady	thirst	upset
steam	thorn	upwards
steep	thorough	urge
steer	thread	vain
stem	threaten	veil
stiff	throat	verb
sting	thumb	verse
stir	thunder	vessel
stockings	ticket	victory
stomach	tide	violent
stove	tidy	virtue
strap	tie	vowel
straw	tight	voyage
strict	till	wage/ s
string	tin	waist
strip	tip	wake
stripe	tire	wander
stuff	title	warm
stupid	tobacco	wash
suck	toe	wax
sugar	tomorrow	wealth
suit	ton	weapon
supper	tongue	weather
suspect	tonight	weave
swallow	tool	weed
swear	tooth	weigh
sweat	tough	wet
sweep	tour	wheat
swell	towel	wheel
swim	tower	whip
swing	toy	whisper
sword	track	whistle
sympathy	translate	whole
tail	trap	wicked
tailor	tray	widow
tall	treasure	wine
tame	treat	wipe
tap	tremble	wire
tax	trial	witness
taxi	tribe	wool
tea	trick	worm
telegraph	trip	worry
telephone	true	worship

wound
wrap
wreck
wrist
yard
yield
zero

Oxford University Press
and
University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate

Name: ....

Date: ....

quick
placement
test

Version 1

This test is divided into two parts:

Part One (Questions 1 – 40) – All students.

Part Two (Questions 41 – 60) – Do not start this part unless told to do so by your test supervisor.

Time: 30 minutes

● RMIT English Worldwide

Instructions for use of the REW Quick Placement Test (QPT) Paper Version + Writing Task

Overview

The QPT and Writing Task are used to decide how many weeks ELICOS a student requires to meet their study / personal needs. The QPT is divided into two parts 1 & 2. Part 2 is only needed if the student scores 35 or more on Part 1. The overall QPT score determines which Writing Task the student should undertake.

Instructions

1. Student does the test in a quiet, supervised and secure situation no dictionaries allowed.
2. Agent prints out the QPT test booklet and answer sheet. All answers must go directly onto the answer sheet.
3. Agent issues student with Part 1 for 30 minutes (questions 1 – 40).
4. Agent removes the test in 30 minutes even if student has not finished. Do not allow the student to keep the test booklet.
5. Agent records student name and start and finish time of test on answer sheet.
6. Agent marks Part 1 using the marking template. You should photocopy the template onto an overhead projector transparency and keep it for use each time you mark a test.
7. Student does Part 2 only if score for Part 1 is 35 or more.
8. Agent writes score/s on answer sheet.
9. Agent chooses correct Writing Task based on test score below. Student only does one writing task.

Score for QPT	Give Writing Task	Time
0 – 15	A	30 minutes
16 – 25	B	30 minutes
26 – 39	C	40 minutes
40+	D	40 minutes

No dictionaries allowed!

10. Agent prints lined pages for the writing task (pages 5 & 6 of the writing test document) and issues student with the correct topic, informing the student of the finish time.
11. After collecting the Writing Task Agent completes the Cover Sheet.
12. Agent sends the following to REW:

> Cover sheet
> QPT Answer sheet – multiple choice
> Writing task page/s.

REW will reply to both the agent and to RMIT Admissions team within 48 hours (excluding weekends).

> **Students cannot gain direct entry to RMIT TAFE or University programs from the results of the QPT Placement Test. They can choose to do an IELTS or TOEFL test or undertake a minimum of 5 weeks English at REW and meet all course requirements for their level.**
>
> **Students can gain direct entry to VCE Year 11 or Foundation Studies programs from the results of an REW placement test.**

Part 1

- Where can you see these notices?
- For questions 1 to 5, mark one letter A, B or C on your Answer Sheet.

1
Please leave your room key at Reception.

A   in a shop
B   in a hotel
C   in a taxi

2
Foreign money changed here

A   in a library
B   in a bank
C   in a police station

3
AFTERNOON SHOW BEGINS AT 2PM

A   outside a theatre
B   outside a supermarket
C   outside a restaurant

4
CLOSED FOR HOLIDAYS

Lessons start again on the 8 th January

A   at a travel agent's
B   at a music school
C   at a restaurant

5
Price per night:

£10 a tent
£5 a person

A   at a cinema
B   in a hotel
C   on a camp-site

Questions 6 – 10

- In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the text below.
- For questions 6 to 10, mark one letter A, B or C on your Answer Sheet.

Scotland

Scotland is the north part of the island of Great Britain. The Atlantic Ocean is on the west and the

North Sea on the east. Some people (6) .... Scotland speak a different language called Gaelic.

There are (7) .... five million people in Scotland, and Edinburgh is (8) .... most

famous city.

Scotland has many mountains; the highest one is called 'Ben Nevis'. In the south of Scotland, there are

a lot of sheep. A long time ago, there (9) .... many forests, but now there are only a

(10) ....

Scotland is only a small country, but it is quite beautiful.

6	A	on	B	in	C	at
7	A	about	B	between	C	among
8	A	his	B	your	C	its
9	A	is	B	were	C	was
10	A	few	B	little	C	lot

Questions 11 – 20

- In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the texts.
- For questions 11 to 20, mark one etter A, B, C or D on your Answer Sheet.

Alice Guy Blaché

Alice Guy Blaché was the first female film director. She first became involved in cinema whilst

working for the Gaumont Film Company in the late 189Cs. This was a period of great change in

the cinema and Alice was the first to use many new inventions, (11) .... sound and colour.

In 1907 Alice (12) .... to New York where she started her own film company. She was

(13) .... successful, but, when Hollywood became the centre of the film world, the best

days of the independent New York film companies were (14) .... When Alice died in

1968, hardly anybody (15) .... her name.

11	A bringing	B including	C containing	D supporting
12	A moved	B ran	C entered	D transported
13	A next	B once	C immediately	D recently
14	A after	B down	C behind	D over
15	A remembered	B realised	C reminded	D repeated

UFOs – do they exist?

UFO is short for 'unidentified flying object'. UFOs are popularly known as flying saucers,

(16) .... that is often the (17) .... they are reported to be. The (18) ....

"flying saucers" were seen in 1947 by an American pilot, but experts who studied his claim

decided it had been a trick of the light.

Even people experienced at watching the sky, (19) .... as pilots, report seeing UFOs. In

1978 a pilot reported a collection of UFOs off the coast of New Zealand. A television

(20) .... went up with the pilot and filmed the UFOs. Scientists studying this

phenomenon later discovered that in this case they were simply lights on boats out fishing.

16 A because   B therefore   C although   D so

17 A look   B shape   C size   D type

18 A last   B next   C first   D oldest

19 A like   B that   C so .   D such

20 A cameraman   B director   C actor   D announcer

5

119

Questions 21 – 40

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.
- For questions 21 to 40, mark one letter A, B, C or D on your Answer Sheet.

21 The teacher encouraged her students .... to an English pen-friend.

    A should write   B write   C wrote   D to write

22 They spent a lot of time .... at the pictures in the museum.

    A looking   B for looking   C to look   D to looking

23 Shirley enjoys science lessons, but all her experiments seem to .... wrong.

    A turn   B come   C end   D go

24 .... from Michael, all the group arrived on time.

    A Except   B Other   C Besides   D Apart

25 She .... her neighbour's children for the broken window.

    A accused   B complained   C blamed   D denied

26 As I had missed the history lesson, my friend went .... the homework with me.

    A by   B after   C over   D on

27 Whether she's a good actress or not is a .... of opinion.

    A matter   B subject   C point   D case

28 The decorated roof of the ancient palace was .... up by four thin columns.

    A built   B carried   C held   D supported

29 Would it .... you if we came on Thursday?

    A agree   B suit   C like   D fit

30 This form .... be handed in until the end of the week.

    A doesn't need   B doesn't have   C needn't   D hasn't got

31 If you make a mistake when you are writing, just .... it out with your pen.

| **A** cross | **B** clear | **C** do | **D** wipe |

32 Although our opinions on many things .... , we're good friends.

| **A** differ | **B** oppose | **C** disagree | **D** divide |

33 This product must be eaten .... two days of purchase.

| **A** by | **B** before | **C** within | **D** under |

34 The newspaper report contained .... important information.

| **A** many | **B** another | **C** an | **D** a lot of |

35 Have you considered .... to London?

| **A** move | **B** to move | **C** to be moving | **D** moving |

36 It can be a good idea for people who lead an active life to increase their .... of vitamins.

| **A** upturn | **B** input | **C** upkeep | **D** intake |

37 I thought there was a .... of jealousy in his reaction to my good fortune.

| **A** piece | **B** part | **C** shadow | **D** touch |

38 Why didn't you .... that you were feeling ill?

| **A** advise | **B** mention | **C** remark | **D** tell |

39 James was not sure exactly where his best interests ....

| **A** stood | **B** rested | **C** lay | **D** centred |

40 He's still getting .... the shock of losing his job.

| **A** across | **B** by | **C** over | **D** through |

Part 2

Questions 41 — 50

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best fits each space in the texts.
- For questions 41 to 50, mark one letter **A, B, C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

The tallest buildings – SKYSCRAPERS

Nowadays, skyscrapers can be found in most major cities of the world. A building which was many

(41) .... high was first called a skyscraper in the United States at the end of the 19th

century, and New York has perhaps the (42) .... skyscraper of them all, the Empire

State Building. The (43) .... beneath the streets of New York is rock,

(44) .... enough to take the heaviest load without sinking, and is therefore well-suited

to bearing the (45) .... of tall buildings.

---

41 **A** stages   **B** steps   **C** storeys   **D** levels

42 **A** first-rate   **B** top-class   **C** well-built   **D** best-known

43 **A** dirt   **B** field   **C** ground   **D** soil

44 **A** hard   **B** stiff   **C** forceful   **D** powerful

45 **A** weight   **B** height   **C** size   **D** scale

SCRABBLE

Scrabble is the world's most popular word game. For its origins, we have to go back to the 1930s in the USA, when Alfred Butts, an architect, found himself out of (46) .... He decided that there was a (47) .... for a board game based on words and (48) .... to design one. Eventually he made a (49) .... from it, in spite of the fact that his original (50) .... was only three cents a game.

46 A earning   B work   C income   D job

47 A market   B purchase   C commerce   D sale

48 A took up   B set out   C made for   D got round

49 A wealth   B fund   C cash   D fortune

50 A receipt   B benefit   C profit   D allowance

Questions 51 – 60

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.
- For questions 51 to 60, mark one letter A, B, C or D on your Answer Sheet.

51   Roger's manager .... to make him stay late if he hadn't finished the work.

   A insisted   B warned   C threatened   D announced

52   By the time he has finished his week's work, John has hardly .... energy left for the weekend.

   A any   B much   C no   D same

53   As the game .... to a close, disappointed spectators started to leave.

   A led   B neared   C approached   D drew

54   I don't remember .... the front door when I left home this morning.

   A to lock   B locking   C locked   D to have locked

55   I .... to other people borrowing my books: they always forget to return them.

   A disagree   B avoid   C dislike   D object

56   Andrew's attempts to get into the swimming team have not .... with much success.

   A associated   B concluded   C joined   D met

57   Although Harry had obviously read the newspaper article carefully, he didn't seem to have .... the main point.

   A grasped   B clutched   C clasped   D gripped

58   A lot of the views put forward in the documentary were open to ....

   A enquiry   B query   C question   D wonder

59   The new college .... for the needs of students with a variety of learning backgrounds.

   A deals   B supplies   C furnishes   D caters

60   I find the times of English meals very strange – I'm not used .... dinner at 6pm.

   A to have   B to having   C having   D have

A vocabulary levels test: Version 1

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

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

You answer it in the following way.

1 business
2 clock ___6___ part of a house
3 horse ___3___ animal with four legs
4 pencil ___4___ something used for writing
5 shoe
6 wall

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

Try to do every part of the test.

Version 1   The 2,000 word level

1 birth
2 dust
3 operation ____ game
4 row ____ winning
5 sport ____ being born
6 victory

1 choice
2 crop ____ heat
3 flesh ____ meat
4 salary ____ money paid regularly for doing a job
5 secret
6 temperature

1 cap
2 education ____ teaching and learning
3 journey ____ numbers to measure with
4 parent ____ going to a far place
5 scale
6 trick

1 attack
2 charm ____ gold and silver
3 lack ____ pleasing quality
4 pen ____ not having something
5 shadow
6 treasure

1 cream
2 factory ____ part of milk
3 nail ____ a lot of money
4 pupil ____ person who is studying
5 sacrifice
6 wealth

1 adopt
2 climb ____ go up
3 examine ____ look at closely
4 pour ____ be on every side
5 satisfy
6 surround

1 bake
2 connect ____ join together
3 inquire ____ walk without purpose
4 limit ____ keep within a certain size
5 recognize
6 wander

1 burst
2 concern ____ break open
3 deliver ____ make better
4 fold ____ take something to someone
5 improve
6 urge

1 original
2 private ____ first
3 royal ____ not public
4 slow ____ all added together
5 sorry
6 total

1 brave
2 electric ____ commonly done
3 firm ____ wanting food
4 hungry ____ having no fear
5 local
6 usual

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Version 1 The 3,000 word level

1 belt
2 climate
3 executive
4 notion
5 palm
6 victim
_____ idea
_____ inner surface of your hand
_____ strip of leather worn around the waist

1 acid
2 bishop
3 chill
4 ox
5 ridge
6 structure
_____ cold feeling
_____ farm animal
_____ organization or framework

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

1 boot
2 device
3 lieutenant
4 marble
5 phrase
6 vein
_____ army officer
_____ a kind of stone
_____ tube through which blood flows

1 apartment
2 candle
3 draft
4 horror
5 prospect
6 timber
_____ a place to live
_____ chance of something happening
_____ first rough form of something written

1 betray
2 dispose
3 embrace
4 injure
5 proclaim
6 scare
_____ frighten
_____ say publicly
_____ hurt seriously

1 encounter
2 illustrate
3 inspire
4 plead
5 seal
6 shift
_____ meet
_____ beg for help
_____ close completely

1 assist
2 bother
3 condemn
4 erect
5 trim
6 whirl
_____ help
_____ cut neatly
_____ spin around quickly

1 annual
2 concealed
3 definite
4 mental
5 previous
6 savage
_____ wild
_____ clear and certain
_____ happening once a year

1 dim
2 junior
3 magnificent
4 maternal
5 odd
6 wear
_____ strange
_____ wonderful
_____ not clearly lit

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MEASURING LEARNERS' PRESENT LEVEL OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

There is a close connection between vocabulary size, coverage of the vocabulary in a text, and the ease a learner will have in coping with the language of the text. The most frequent 2000 word families of English provide 80% to 95% coverage of a text depending on what kind of text it is. The 570 word families of the *Academic Word List* can provide an additional 4% coverage of newspapers and 8.5% to 10% coverage of academic text. Building on the most frequent 2000 words of English, the 3rd 1000 most frequent words can provide around 4.3% coverage, with the coverage of each successive 1000 words continuing to drop.

The boundary between high frequency words and low frequency words is best made after the 2000 word level, although learners with academic purposes should also include the *Academic Word List* in their high frequency words. The high frequency words deserve repeated attention from the teacher, the learners and the course book. The low frequency words do not deserve teaching time although learners should continue learning them after they have control of the high frequency words. The teacher's focus with the low frequency words should be to provide training in the strategies for coping with and learning these words. These strategies include guessing from context, learning from word cards, using word parts, and dictionary use.

Because of the different treatments that teachers should give to high and low frequency words, it is thus very important to know where learners are at in their vocabulary learning.

> The goal of this workshop is to introduce participants to one way of finding this out – the Vocabulary Levels Test. By the end of this workshop participants should understand why it is important to know learners' present level of vocabulary knowledge, understand the design of the Vocabulary Levels Test and how to administer and score it, understand how to interpret the results, and be able to begin to plan a program based on the results of the test

Understanding the Vocabulary Levels Test

> Task 1: Understanding the Vocabulary Levels Test
>
> Before reading this section look at the Vocabulary Levels Test, noting how many sections it has, how many words are tested in each section, and how to answer the test.
> What would be the quickest way of marking the test?
> If the test made use of the learners' first language, what part of each block of items would be written in the learners' first language?

To understand how the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) was made, it is necessary to imagine a frequency list of the word families of English ranked from the most frequent word, *the*, to the least frequent words. This list is then divided up into levels of 1000 words. So the first level contains the 1000 most frequent word families, the second level contains the second most frequent 1000 word families and so on.
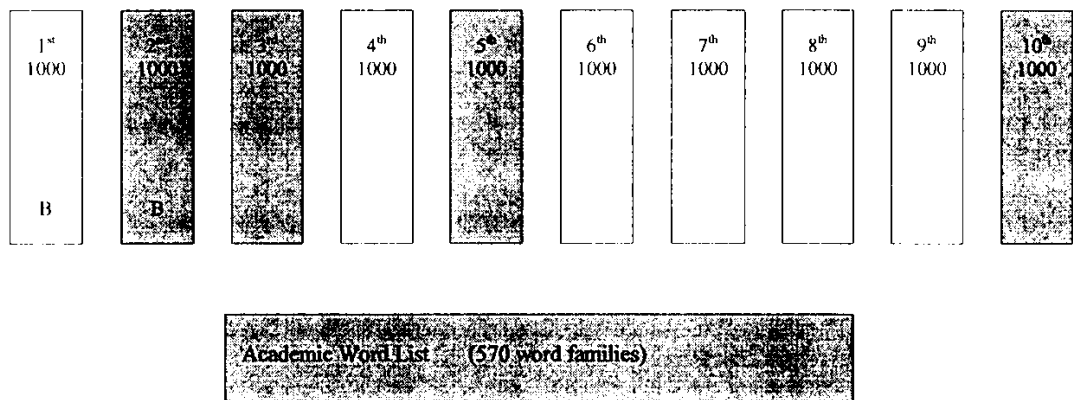
B= these levels are available in bilingual versions.

There are two versions of the monolingual VLT. Each one was made in the following way.

1 Five levels were chosen for testing – the 2nd 1000 word level, the 3rd 1000 word level, the 5th 1000 word level, the academic word level, and the 10th 1000 word level. The 1st 1000 word level was not chosen because it was not possible to provide the meanings of these words using more frequent words. However, the 1000 and 2000 levels are now available in bilingual versions for the following languages – Thai, Vietnamese, Mandarin (simplified and traditional), Korean, Japanese, Indonesian and Tongan. There are no reliability statistics available for these bilingual versions. The academic word level is based on the *Academic Word List*. In the diagram above the levels which are filled in are the ones that were chosen for testing in the monolingual version.

2 A representative sample of 60 words was taken from each of the five levels. Because the words were a representative sample, a learner's score at each level represents the proportion of all the words known at that level. So, if a learner scores 15 out of 30 on the 2nd 1000 level, that means that 50% or 500 out of 1000 words are known at that level.

3 The 60 words at each level were grouped into blocks of six words according to part of speech.

4 The words in each block were then checked to make sure that they were not similar in form or related in meaning. This was done so that the distractors in each block were not distracting. That is, if the learners had partial knowledge of a word, they should be able to choose the correct answer. The aim of the VLT is to get an accurate as possible record of what the learners know even of the words that they have not yet fully learned.

5 Three words in each block of six were randomly chosen as the words to be tested. The other three in the block were the distractors.

6 Definitions were made for the target words using words from the most frequent 1000 words of English for the 2nd 1000 words, and words from the 1st 1000 and 2nd 1000 words for all the remaining levels. The definitions thus made use of words that were more frequent than the words being tested.

7   The two versions of the test were checked for reliability and validity (Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham, 2001).

When learners sit the VLT they should be helped to become familiar with the item type and the time allowed for the test should not be limited. When scoring the test, the scores for each level and the total score should be recorded. The scores for each level are essential for interpreting the results of the test.

Interpreting the VLT

We have seen how the VLT was made and how it can be scored. We will now look at what these scores mean.

What is an adequate score on any particular level? When can we say that a learner knows enough of the words at a certain level and can now focus on the next level? Answering these questions is a matter of judgement. To make this judgement it is necessary to look at the score for each level in terms of the total words known and not known at that level.

Task 2: Interpreting Vocabulary Levels Test results

Answer these questions three times for the 2nd 1000 level, the 5th 1000 level and the AWL level.

1   If a learner scores 15 out of 30 at this level,
    a.   How many words in total are known at this level?
    b.   How many are not known?
    c.   Would you be happy with this degree of knowledge at this level?

2   If a learner scores 21 out of 30 at this level,
    a.   How many words in total are known at this level?
    b.   How many are not known?
    c.   Would you be happy with this degree of knowledge at this level?

3   If a learner scores 24 out of 30 at this level,
    a.   How many words in total are known at this level?
    b.   How many are not known?
    c.   Would you be happy with this degree of knowledge at this level?

4   If a learner scores 27 out of 30 at this level,
    a.   How many words in total are known at this level?
    b.   How many are not known?
    c.   Would you be happy with this degree of knowledge at this level?

Here are the answers for the 2000 word level. Do the other levels.

1a 500, 1b 500, 1c No. Too many unknown words

2a 700, 2b 300, 2c No. Too many at this high frequency level.

3a 800, 3b 200, 3c No. Too many at this high frequency level.

4a 900, 4b 100, 4c Yes. Not too many to pick up while working on the next level.

Applying the results

The learners should gain a satisfactory score on the 1000 level before they work on the words at the 2000 level or other vocabulary. If the learners will study in English in upper secondary school, university, or a technical institute, they should study the vocabulary in the Academic Word List, after they gain a satisfactory score at the 2000 level.

Techniques and procedures for high frequency vocabulary

Indirect:

Reading of graded readers (Oxford Bookworms, Longman Fiction, Macmillan Rangers, Heinemann Guided Readers, Penguin Readers etc)

Listening to stories, student talks

Pair and group activities such as split information activities, opinion based tasks, where the wanted vocabulary has been put in the written input to the activity

Direct:

Intensive reading

Using vocabulary learning strategies as for low frequency words

Individualized vocabulary exercises such as matching activities, collocation exercises, and guided cloze

Teaching of new vocabulary related to texts, topics, themes, and tasks

Peer vocabulary teaching activities

Activities like semantic mapping, associational grids, collocation activities and fluency tasks to develop ready access to known vocabulary

Strategies for low frequency vocabulary

1   Guessing from context using textual clues

2   Learning 2L-1L word pairs out of context from vocabulary cards and using mnemonic techniques such as the keyword technique to help this

3   Using the most frequent prefixes and perhaps roots to help <u>remember</u> vocabulary. The meaning of the word part is incorporated in the definition of the word e.g. an <u>expedition</u> goes out to look at new lands

4   Using a dictionary

Task 3: <u>Applying VLT results</u>

What programme of vocabulary expansion would you advise for each of the following learners who sat the Vocabulary Levels Test? What questions would you ask the learners before you made a decision about the programme? What level most needs attention?

	2000	3000	5000	AWL	10,000	Total
T	13	13	0	0	0	26
R	22	15	7	7	3	54
P	25	17	12	22	3	79
E	30	30	25	5	8	98
W	30	29	27	27	13	126
Z	30	30	30	29	23	142

For an example let us look at R. 22 at the 2000 level means that 733 are known and 267 not known. Maybe a bit more work at this level, perhaps graded reading, would be useful. After that if R wants to do academic study, she should be working on the vocabulary of the AWL.

Productive Vocabulary Levels Test Version A

Complete the underlined words as in the following example.

He was riding a <u>bi____</u>.

He was riding a <u>bicycle</u>.

THE 2,000 WORD LEVEL

1 They will restore the house to its <u>orig____</u> state.

2 My favourite <u>spo____</u> is football.

3 Each room has its own <u>priv____</u> bath and WC.

4 The <u>tot____</u> number of students at the university is 12,347.

5 They met to <u>ele____</u> a president.

6 Many companies were <u>manufac____</u> computers.

7 In AD 636 an Arab army won a famous <u>vict____</u> over another army.

8 The lakes become ice-free and the snow <u>mel____</u>.

9 They managed to steal and <u>hi____</u> some knives.

10 I asked the group to <u>inv____</u> her to the party.

11 She shouted at him for <u>spoi____</u> her lovely evening.

12 You must spend less until your <u>deb____</u> are paid.

13 His mother looked at him with love and <u>pri____</u>.

14 The wind <u>roa____</u> through the forest.

15 There was <u>fle____</u> and blood everywhere.

16 She earns a high <u>sal____</u> as a lawyer.

17 The sick child had a very high <u>tempe____</u>.

18 The <u>bir____</u> of her first child was a difficult time for her.

THE 3,000 WORD LEVEL

1 They need to spend less on <u>adminis</u>____ and more on production.

2 He saw an <u>ang</u>____ from Heaven.

3 The entire <u>he</u>____ of goats was killed.

4 Two old men were sitting on a park <u>ben</u>____ and talking.

5 She always showed <u>char</u>____ towards those who needed help.

6 He had a big house in the Cape <u>Prov</u>____.

7 Oh Harold <u>darl</u>___, I am sorry. I did not mean to upset you.

8 Judy found herself listening to the last <u>ec</u>___ of her shoes on the hard floor.

9 He cut three large <u>sli</u>____ of bread.

10 He sat in the shade beneath the <u>pa</u>___ trees.

11 He had a crazy <u>sch</u>____ for perfecting the world.

12 They get a big <u>thr</u>____ out of car-racing.

13 At the beginning of their journey they <u>encoun</u>____ an English couple.

14 Nothing <u>illus</u>____ his selfishness more clearly than his behaviour to his wife.

15 He took the bag and <u>tos</u>___ it into the bushes.

16 Every year she looked forward to her <u>ann</u>____ holiday.

17 There is a <u>defi</u>____ date for the wedding.

18 His voice was loud and <u>sav</u>___, and shocked them all to silence.

THE 5000-WORD LEVEL

1 Some people find it difficult to become independent. Instead they prefer to be tied to their mother's ap___ strings.

2 After finishing his degree, he entered upon a new ph___ in his career.

3 The workmen cleaned up the me___ before they left.

4 On Sunday, in his last se___ in Church, the priest spoke against child abuse.

5 I saw them sitting on st___ at the bar drinking beer.

6 Her favorite musical instrument was a tru___.

7 The building is heated by a modern heating appa___.

8 He received many com___ on his dancing skill.

9 The government raised extra rev_____ through tax..

10 At the bottom of a blackboard there is a le___ for chalk.

11 After falling off his bicycle, the boy was covered with bru___.

12 The child was holding a doll in her arms and hu___ it.

13 We'll have to be inventive and de___ a scheme for earning more money.

14 The picture looks nice; the colours bl___ really well.

15 Nuts and vegetables are considered who___ food.

16 The garden was full of fra___ flowers.

17 Many people feel depressed and gl___ about the future of the mankind.

18 She ski_____ happily down the path.

THE UNIVERSITY WORD LIST LEVEL

1 The <u>afflu</u>____ of the western world contrasts with the poverty in other parts.

2 The book covers a series of isolated <u>epis</u>____ from history.

3 Farmers are introducing <u>innova</u>____ that increase the productivity per worker.

4 They are suffering from a vitamin <u>defic</u>____.

5 There is a short term <u>oscill</u>____ of the share index.

6 They had other means of acquiring wealth, <u>pres</u>____, and power.

7 The parts were arranged in an arrow-head <u>configu</u>____.

8 The learners were studying a long piece of written <u>disco</u>____.

9 People have proposed all kinds of <u>hypot</u>____ about what these things are.

10 The giver prefers to remain <u>anony</u>____.

11 The elephant is <u>indig</u>____ to India.

12 You'll need a <u>mini</u>____ deposit of $20,000.

13 Most towns have taken some <u>eleme</u>____ civil defense precautions.

14 The presentation was a series of <u>sta</u>____ images.

15 This action was necessary for the <u>uli</u>____ success of the revolution.

16 He had been <u>expe</u>____ from school for stealing.

17 The lack of money depressed and <u>frust</u>____ him.

18 The money from fruit-picking was a <u>suppl</u>____ to their regular income.
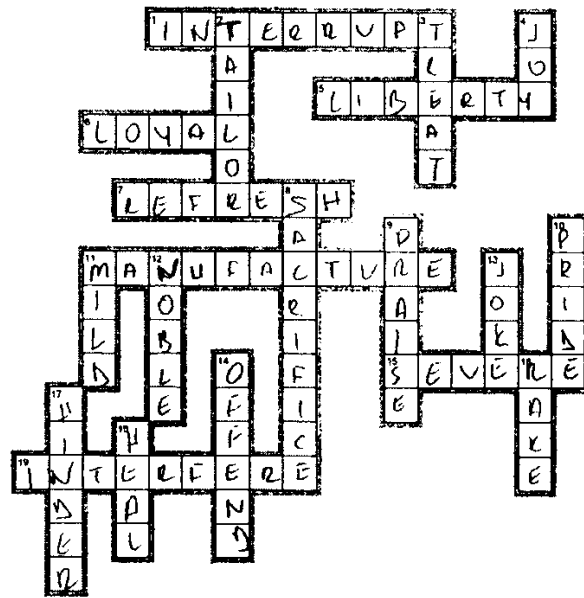
THE 10000-WORD LEVEL

1 He wasn't serious about art. He just da___ in it.

2 Her parents will never acq___ to such an unsuitable marriage.

3 Pack the dresses so that they won't cre___.

4 Traditionally, men were expected to nu___ women and children.

5 Religious people would never bl___ against God.

6 The car sk___ on the wet road.

7 The politician delivered an arrogant and pom___ speech.

8 The Romans used to hire au___ troops to help them in their battles.

9 At the funeral, the family felt depressed and mo___.

10 His pu___ little arms and legs looked pathetic.

11 A vol___ person will change moods easily.

12 The debate was so long and tedious that it seemed int___.

13 Drink it all and leave only the dre___.

14 A hungry dog will sa___ at the smell of food.

15 The girl's clothes and shoes were piled up in a ju___ on the floor.

16 Some monks live apart from society in total sec___.

17 The enemy suffered heavy cas___ in the battle.

18 When the Xmas celebrations and rev___ ended, there were plenty of drunk people everywhere.

Name: _Uğur SENER 2370_

BOOST UP YOUR VOCABULARY

Please complete the crossword puzzle below

advertise   bone   calculate   devil   explode   flesh   guide   hammer   imagine   jealous   kick   lazy

multiply   nurse   obey   purple   review   soap   threaten   witness

Across:

1. terrorize
4. a colour made by mixing red and blue
5. strike with the foot
6. evil spirit
8. increase in number
10. make publicly known
13. substance used in washing things
15. soft substance of animal bodies
17. each of the hard parts making up the skeleton
18. person who shows others the way to work
20. unwilling to work

Down:

2. person trained to look after sick or injured people
3. think mathematically
7. expand and break with a bad noise
9. tool with a head for hitting things or driving nails in
11. think, suppose
12. person who sees or hears something
14. suspicious, envious
16. reconsideration
19. do what is commanded

CRISS-CROSS

Handwritten note (top right):
30. 03. 2011
GARSAMBA
mustafa SIR
2 40U

Word bank

HEAL   HINDER   INTERFERE   INTERRUPT   JOKE   JOY   LIBERTY   LOYAL   MANUFACTURE

MILD   NOBLE   OFFEND   PRAISE   PRIDE   RAKE   REFRESH   SACRIFICE   SEVERE   TAILOR

TREAT   TOIL

Across

1. break the continuity of
5. freedom *Liberty*
6. dependable, faithful *Loyal*
7. restore the vigour of by food, drink, or rest *refresh*
11. make or produce on a large scale by machinery *m...*
15. strict, harsh *Severe*
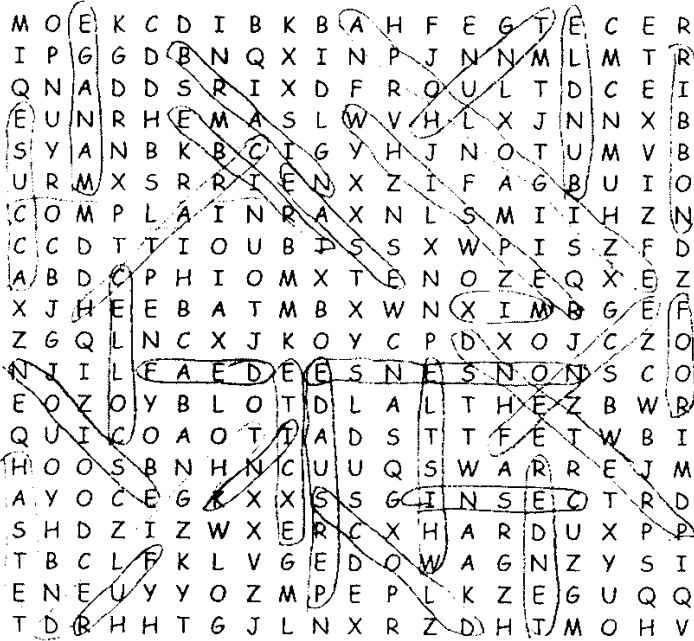19. take part in others' affairs without right or invitation *Interfere*

Down

2. maker of men's clothes *tailor*
3. give medical treatment to

4. deep feeling of pleasure
8. offer, kill *Sacrific*
9. express approval or administration of *praise*
10. feeling of pleasure or satisfaction about one's actions *pride*
11. gentle *manufacture*
12. aristocratic, of excellent character *noble*
13. thing said or done to cause laughter *joke*
14. displease *offend*
16. tool with prongs for gathering of leaves *rake*
17. delay progress of *hinder*
18. make or become healthy after injury or illness *heal*

FIND THEM UP

Search the words and mark them please

```
M O E K C D I B K B A H F E G T E C E R
I P G G D B N Q X I N P J N N M L M T R
Q N A D D S R I X D F R O U L T D C E I
E U N R H E M A S L W V H L X J N N X B
S Y A N B K B C I G Y H J N O T U M V B
U R M X S R R I E N X Z I F A G B U I O
C O M P L A I N R A X N L S M I I H Z N
C C D T T I O U B D S S X W P I S Z F D
A B D C P H I O M X T E N O Z E Q X E Z
X J H E E B A T M B X W N X I M B G E F
Z G Q L N C X J K O Y C P D X O J C Z O
N I I L F A E D E S N E S N O N S C O
E O Z O Y B L O T D L A L T H E Z B W R
Q U I C O A O T A A D S T T F E T W B I
H O O S B N H N C U U Q S W A R R E J M
A Y O C E G X X S S G I N S E C T R D
S H D Z I Z W X E R C X H A R D U X P P
T B C L P K L V G E D O W A G N Z Y S I
E N E U Y Y O Z M P E P L K Z E G U Q Q
T D R H H T G J L N X R Z D H T M O H V
```

· ACCUSE	· APOLOGIZE	· BRAIN
· BUNDLE	· COMPLAIN	· COLLECT
· DEAF	· DELIGHT	· EXCITE
· EASE	· FENCE	· FUR
· HASTE	· HUNT	· INK
· INSECT	· MANAGE	· MIX
· NONSENSE	· NOISE	· PERSUADE
· PRETEND	· RIBBON	· ROOF
· SCOLD	· SCRATCH	· TENDER
· TRIBE	· WHISPER	· WHISTLE

FIND THEM UP 2

Abdullah GÜNERİ
2-A 2401

Search the words and mark them please


```
          B V Z U Q                          B C P B W
        E J K G A Q L                      Y H N M Y V N
      B O M P S K W H I P              W H O M D E Z R V D
    H A Q I Q Y P I L V E J          P L S P F Z M I Z B O V
    C T F U B W S W T Q M N S      R X M K P A R I A H D P E
  X Q V J H B C I R Y C T H Y O T Y Z U T R H T T S Q F Z R D
  U C T P T J S P O L V H C A H R C G J W Y C G B K V P C B Y
  F P H K R D N U Q F B T E G E E V G Y W N N C R I L Z K W X
  Z Q L W C P B T H W T P E N C I L B N E L H V B L N G I C Z
  C Q Z S G S R X B S N W O P M K P O S L Y C A L K B C A Q T
  H A L U D D E F Y F G I N E E H S L U F Z P C M L O Z T D G
  Q W E J L A D A I T X A Y L S A X Z I X N I M C A I Y J O
  F F U M O N K E Y C K N F I E F J P F B Y L S E T O W J J
  V Y D E U F C I G G F W L C S P O L I C E A V G T G G O
  J B U F R A D G M H C E O T B U C F Z Q N M H G A I K F
  O Z J F S G I T K R C A R C G D R Z R H Z F L K Z Q
  A V M T K S B O O N F I A S E M D W L M O C E G
    O L S P Q D Q V E T C N R I H T R Q L K Q
    W X I D J X N I S I U X G M W M I Y J S
    W A H R A I N V T E F G E C R G D T
      T G Z G P E W Y V V Y O Y N Z V T
      D B B D S T D L L Y J Z H Z
      J X D T H S P F M G K J
      S T Q P F D A Y T F
        O I W W U G J G
        L L N H K A
          T L Q M
            C N
```

✓ AUNT	✓ BREAKFAST	✓ CAT
✓ DICTIONARY	✓ ELECTRICITY	✓ FALSE
✓ GIRL	✓ HAIR	✓ ILL
✓ KITCHEN	✓ LESSON	✓ MONKEY
✓ OCEAN	✓ ORANGE	✓ PENCIL
✓ POLICE	✓ RAIN	✓ SENTENCE
✓ TALL	✓ VERB	

① If you don't know a word, you can look dictionary up.

② Watch out! The black cloudy is coming. It's going to rain anyways.

③ Monkey is yelling in the zoo.

④ Everyone wants to have a beautiful girlfriend.

⑤ This lesson we're watching "madagaskar".

Name _____

MATCH THEM UP 2

Write the letter of the correct match next to each problem.

1. _b_ ambition (n)   a. place (a dead body) in the earth or a tomb

2. _e_ argue (v)   b. dislike greatly

3. _c_ borrow (v)   c. get temporary use of (a thing or money)

4. _a_ bury (v)   d. manufacture or production of goods

5. _h_ committee (n)   e. exchange views or opinions, esp. angrily

6. _s_ companion (n)   f. of the colour between black and white

7. _i_ decrease (v)   g. new. not stale or faded

8. _t_ elastic (adj)   h. group of people appointed for a special function

9. _g_ fresh (adj)   i. reduce, diminish

   j. squeeze between two surfaces, esp. between finger and
10. _f_ grey (adj)   thumb

11. _b_ hate (v)   k. thing lent, esp. money

12. _d_ industry (n)   l. fall or come gradually downwards

13. _k_ loan (n)   m. man who has control of people or things

14. _m_ master (n)   n. something given or received in return for a service or merit

15. ____ perform (v)   o. injury inflicted in return for what one has suffered

16. _j_ pinch (v)   p. strong desire to achieve something

17. ____ revenge (n)   q. act, sing, esp. in public

18. _n_ reward (n)   r. grain from which flour is made

19. _l_ sink (v)   s. person who accompanies or associates with another

   t. able to go back to its original length or shape after being
20. _r_ wheat (n)   stretched

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Name _Suat JuVA_ _2410_

UNSCRAMBLE THESE WORDS 2

Please unscramble the words below

1. HAEC _ACHE_   2. EPAPL _APPLE_

3. BEACNAL _BALANCE_   4. ACKE _CAKE_

5. PIACTNA _CAPTAIN_   6. YCNEMROE _CEREMONY_

7. NIDRNE _DINNER_   8. KFRO _FORK_

9. TFURI _FRUIT_   10. AREGGA _GARAGE_

11. POTLAHSI _HOSPITAL_   12. GASSEME _MESSAGE_

13. UOMES _MOUSE_   14. EDNPSEIRT _PRESIDENT_

15. UTEASNARTR _RESTAURANT_   16. EIRC _RICE_

17. RHITS _SHIRT_   18. EOHENETPL _TELEPHONE_

19. ELABRLMU _UMBRELLA_   20. EWRHTAE _WEATHER_

· I had fish for dinner today.
· The whole family was present at the wedding ceremony.
· You bring the forks and I'll bring the glasses.
· You should wait for the fruit to ripen before picking them.
· I had to take my car to the garage so the mechanic could fix the tire.

FIND THEM UP 3

```
        M B D                           V M S
      S K V R J C                     G Z M V Z T
    T X I Y A O G K O             B C R D M H N I Q
    Q W A S T E E H I .   .       V G M U E E L K N
    M S H C N U L V H W       R R W C S N E P U Z
    W U K J I H O T E L       M O A O A X O U Y
    A K I L T C G A W B X     X R P N L V R M H V N
      K M X I T S Y B A A H   H Z P B E K S S O K
      N S J M B O K E F S O Z S N M M Q H G O
        B I R L R C C T K O N A F O E
          O H G O U E E C V
        O U I P G A M L R T L A H
      Z C C O R U R N X O N Z W D R
    W Y H K M A P C C O N J H O L I D A Y
    V Z Z E O P J S R O S S I C S O I M L D Z
    D P N R H S T O M A C H A M R V N C U W I
  I E K R M N D E S K K G W R A O R X X S A O O
  W H O V O U K T M   Q M G   A S D G Z J S Z Q
  B W A K Z A B C L   G C E   S W A E N X H E G
  U F E M A L E F     O N     W B R L N E P N
  R A L L O D A       D F     B Z O K I W T
    O G P P Y         U F S     C Q H F I
      F V Y           L R G       C O V
                      S T S
                      Y A B
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· AFTERNOON	· AERO	· PLANE
· BASKET	· BROWN	· CAMERA
· CHICKEN	· DESK	· DOLLAR
· EGG	· FEMALE	· HOLIDAY
· HOTEL	· LUNCH	· MILK
· MODEL	· NOSE	· NOUN
· ORGAN	· PEN	· PHOTOGRAPH
· RADIO	· SCISSORS	· STOMACH
· TOMORROW	· WASH	

I'm going to ... with my girlfriend tomorrow.

I ... to New York by Plane

I ... to rest in my holiday

... , I ... drinking milk every day.

... lunch.

Name _Gajaday LiMAN_ 2416

FILL IN THE BLANKS 3

Use the words in the list below to complete the sentence

1. He _____ that he had stolen the money.

2. He showed great __Courage__ and determination in the war.

3. Thousands of gallons of crude oil were __dived__ into the ocean.

4. She __Swept__ the floor with a broom.

5. The baby __sucked__ at its mother's

6. She __prayed__ to God for an end to her sufferings.

7. The interior of the church was __plain__ and simple.

8. Don't __worry__ about me. I'll be all right.

9. When his husband died in the accident, she became a __widow__

   at the age of 35

10. A man has been __arrested__ in connection with the robbery.

11. We __freezes__ into the river to cool off.

12. She fell and __Spilled__ her ankle.

13. I wanted to leave school but my mother didn't _____

14. 'Give me one more chance', he __begged__

15. He __earns__ about $40000 a year.

16. When a computer screen _____ you cannot move any of the

    images on it.

17. The sun sank below the __horizon__

18. Successful candidates will be __approve__ for interview next week.

19. She knows how to make life _____ for her employees.

20. They __roasted__ a chicken for the party.

+ begged dike...
+ sucked emm...
+ worry ...
+ dived delr...
+ spilled ...
+ swept ...
+ approve...
+ prayed ...
+ arrested ...
+ freezes ...
+ horizon ..., Gevien.
twisted ...
miserable ...
+ roasted ...
+ widow ...
+ earns ..., dimel
invited ...
+ plain ...
+ courage ...
confessed ...

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SINAV CEVAP FORMU

Ahmet Demir
2u26

30.06.2011

YUMUSAK
KURSUN KALEM
VE
SILGI
KULLANINIZ

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name   : Mert TOPKARAOĞLU

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EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION

Master's Degree (M.A)   : Maltepe University, Department of Foreign Languages
                            Education English Language Teaching (with thesis)
                                                                    2009 - 2013

Bachelor's Degree (B.A)   : Marmara University, ELT Department   1994 - 1998

High School   : Mustafa Kaya Anatolian High School   1990 - 1994

High School   : Özel Ortadoğu High School   1987 - 1990

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

NCO Vocational School   : Altınova / Yalova

English Instructor   2010 –

KEMK Courses Command   : Altınova / Yalova

English Instructor   August, 2005 – August, 2010

Navy Lang. School Command : Altınova / Yalova

                              01 August, 2005 – 31 August, 2005

Naval High School Command : Heybeliada / İstanbul

English Instructor   April, 1999 – August, 2005

COURSES / SEMINARS / CONFERENCES

Officer Information Support and Orientation Course	Ankara
	April, 2010
STANAG 6001 Language Testing Course	Garmisch / Germany
	June, 2009
Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) Seminar	Copenhagen / Denmark
	October, 2009
Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) Seminar	Bucharest / Romania
	October, 2008
Advanced English Language Instructor (AELIC) Course	San Antonio/Texas, USA
	August, 2007
Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) Conference	Budapest / Hungary
	May, 2006
Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) Seminar	Tallinn / Estonia
	October, 2006
Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) Seminar	Sofia / Bulgaria
	October, 2005

FOREIGN LANGUAGE

English   (Advanced)

German   (Intermediate)

COMPUTER SKILLS

Proficient in MS Windows Vista and 8, MS Office Programs (Word, Excel, PowerPoint)