

GAZİ UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE EFFECT OF USING CONTEXTUAL VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES
ON DEVELOPING PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE OF UNIVERSITY
PREPARATORY CLASS STUDENTS

M.A. THESIS

By
Fatma Duygu BORA

Ankara
June, 2013

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TEZ ONAY SAYFASI

Eđitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü M¼d¼rl¼ę¼'ne

Fatma Duygu BORA'ya ait “¼niversite Hazırlık Sınıfı Öğrencilerinin Bağlam İçerisinde Kelime Öğrenmelerinin Aktif Kelime Daęarcıęını Geliştirme Üzerine Etkisi” adlı alışma/...../..... tarihinde, j¼rimiz tarafından Yabancı Diller Eđitimi Anabilim Dalında Y¼KSEK LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiřtir.

Adı Soyadı

İmza

Başkan:

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¼ye (Tez Danıřmanı): Yrd. Do. Dr. Neslihan ÖZKAN

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF USING CONTEXTUAL VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES ON DEVELOPING PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE OF UNIVERSITY PREPARATORY CLASS STUDENTS

BORA, Fatma Duygu

M.A., Department of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Neslihan ÖZKAN

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The aim of this present study is to investigate the effect of using contextual vocabulary learning strategies such as guessing or inferring technique on developing active, productive, vocabulary knowledge. It aims to focus on whether guessing technique to learn new vocabulary items is helpful to use them actively in writing, as well as recognizing when encountered in a text.

This study was applied with 40 pre-intermediate level students; 20 for experimental, and 20 for control group; who were at preparatory class at a state university to learn English as a foreign language. Descriptive statistical values were interpreted and a t-test was applied in order to see whether there was significant difference between the experimental and the control group.

In this study, 4 reading texts were chosen in the coursebook and the students in the experimental group were encouraged to guess the meaning of unknown words by referring to certain clues in the text after the training sessions about contextual vocabulary learning strategies. However, the ones in the control group learnt the words with other traditional

techniques such as memorizing or listing. At the end of each reading texts, the students were asked to write a short text with a parallel topic as a post-reading activity. The writings of the students were analyzed to see whether they used the newly-learnt words or not.

According to the analysis of the results, the students who learnt new vocabulary items with contextual vocabulary learning strategies are more able to remember and produce them actively in a written context. However, if they consult to traditional techniques such as listing the words with their first language definitions and memorizing, they become less successful while using the same words.

Key Words: Language teaching, vocabulary learning strategies, guessing technique, productive vocabulary, active words.

ÖZET

ÜNİVERSİTE HAZIRLIK SINIFI ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN BAĞLAM İÇERİSİNDE KELİME ÖĞRENMELERİNİN AKTİF KELİME DAĞARCIĞINI GELİŞTİRME ÜZERİNE ETKİSİ

BORA, Fatma Duygu

Yüksek Lisans, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü

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Bu çalışmanın amacı tahmin ya da yazılı metnin içinden anlamını çıkarma gibi bağlamsal kelime öğrenme stratejilerini kullanmanın aktif kelime dağarcığını geliştirmeye etkisi olup olmadığını incelemektir. Çalışma, kelimenin anlamını tahmin ederek bulma tekniğinin bu kelimeyi, bir okuma parçasında görüldüğünde anlamının hatırlanmasının yanı sıra, yazarken de aktif olarak kullanılıp kullanılmadığını ölçmeye odaklanmıştır.

Bu çalışma, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenmek üzere bir devlet üniversitesinin hazırlık sınıfında okuyan, 20'si kontrol, 20'si deney grubu olmak üzere orta seviyeden 40 öğrenciye uygulanmıştır. Çalışmanın analizinde, betimleyici istatistiksel değerler yorumlanmış ve deney grubu ile kontrol grubu arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını görmek amacıyla bir t-test uygulanmıştır.

Bu araştırmada, öğrencilerin ders kitabından 4 adet okuma parçası seçilmiş ve deney grubundaki öğrencilere öncelikle kelime tahmin etme konusunda eğitim verilmiş, sonrasında okuma parçalarındaki yeni kelimeleri, belirli ipuçlarına dayanarak anlamlarını tahmin ederek öğrenmeleri sağlanmıştır. Kontrol grubundaki öğrenciler ise kelimeleri ezber tekniği gibi

geleneksel yöntemlerle öğrenmişlerdir. Her bir okuma parçasının işlenmesinden sonra, her iki gruba da ‘okuma sonrası’ aktivitesi olarak, okuma parçasının konusunda kendilerinin kısa bir paragraf yazması istenmiştir. Öğrencilerin yazdıkları kısa metinler, yeni öğrendikleri kelimeleri kullanıp kullanmadıklarını anlamak için analiz edilmiştir.

Verilerin analizine göre, yeni kelimeleri bağlamsal kelime öğrenme stratejileri ile öğrenen öğrencilerin, onları yazarken daha aktif olarak kullanabildikleri ve hatırlayabildikleri ortaya çıkmıştır. Ancak, ezber ya da ana dilde karşılıklarını yazarak listelemeleri gibi geleneksel yöntemlere başvurlarsa, bu kelimeleri kullanmada daha başarısız oldukları ortaya çıkmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Dil öğretimi, kelime öğrenme stratejileri, tahmin tekniği, aktif kelime dağarcığı

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with the background of the study which is followed by the statement of problem. Then, it goes on with the definition, significance and aim of the study. In the next part, the limitations of the study are mentioned. Finally, the definition of the terms is given.

1.2 Background of the Study

“While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.” (Wilkins, 1972: 111).

Words of a language are like bones of a human. It is an undeniable fact that vocabulary learning is one of the most problematic areas in language learning. The studies pursued on first language education (L1) and foreign language learning (FLL) indicate that learning vocabulary is an essential part in language learning (Grabe, 1991). At this point, what Nation (2001) claims is that vocabulary is not an isolated part of a language; but it is one of the parts of integrated language skills. Thus, it is important to consider all aspects of a word and ‘knowing’ a word.

Vocabulary knowledge can be divided into two categories, namely *receptive (passive)* and *productive (active)*. Understanding the meaning of a word is considered as among the knowledge of receptive vocabulary, and it is generally associated with

reading and listening skills in a language. However, if a word can be actively used in speaking and writing, it can be regarded as productive vocabulary knowledge (Schmitt, 2000). Nation and Waring (1997) claims that learners need to have the knowledge of at least 3000 frequently used words as any text is composed of about 95% of them. Moreover, they argue that language teachers need to focus on the frequently used words in order to infer the meanings of unknown words in the text based on different strategies.

Guessing strategy is one of the most widely used strategies in learning vocabulary. Its contributions to vocabulary development have been put forward by many scholars (Askov & Kamm, 1976; Jenkins, Matlock & Slocum, 1989). These studies have one point in common to argue: vocabulary knowledge cannot be improved by treating words as isolated items. They need to be integrated with other language skills. For example, Askov and Kamm (1976) trained students on inferring the meaning of unknown words by basing on the already-known words and other contextual clues. At the end of the study, it was revealed that the learners in the experimental group were more successful in developing vocabulary knowledge than the ones in control group.

In another research made by Jenkins, Matlock and Slocum (1989), the learners in experimental group were trained about contextual vocabulary learning strategies, while the ones in the control group were directly given the definition of the words. At the end of the study, it was found out that the experimental group was more successful both in vocabulary development and in their retrieval in the long term.

There are not many related studies about the effect of contextual vocabulary learning on developing productive vocabulary knowledge. A similar study was pursued by Crow and Quigley (1985). They compared two techniques in developing receptive vocabulary knowledge, which turned out that the activities in which learners are not actively involved contribute more to the development of receptive vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, it may be revealed that the activities in which learners are actively involved help them to develop their productive vocabulary knowledge.

1.3 The Statement of Problem

Vocabulary is usually learnt through traditional techniques by university preparatory class students. What is meant by ‘traditional techniques’ are that students tend to make lists for the Turkish equivalences of unknown words and try to memorize them. However, such techniques cause short-term memorizations and create disruptions in using them actively in a long term of language learning process. Learners face with difficulties in adapting their vocabulary knowledge into writing or speaking skills. Thus, this technique is insufficient in developing productive language skills such as writing or speaking although knowing a language requires mastering all skills.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Although certain studies have been done on language teaching, students still encounter with certain difficulties. The lack of pedagogical implications of teachers, the reluctance of students, and insistence on using traditional techniques and ignoring the effective ones can be the reasons of unsatisfying learners. What is more, the challenges in learning vocabulary are among them. Especially, university school students, who have only one step beyond of performing their occupations, need to learn the language in such a way that they will be able to retrieve the word knowledge in the long term. Despite learning the meanings, the learners do not manage to actively use them, which leads to coming up with different strategies. Contextual vocabulary learning is also one of them.

The findings of this study will contribute to research on contextual vocabulary learning strategies in developing productive vocabulary knowledge. In addition, it will help the language teachers to direct their learners for better vocabulary learning strategies so that they can remember and use what they have learnt.

1.5 Aim of the Study

The more importance has been given to language teaching process, the easier the challenges in vocabulary development have been realized. One of the strategies put forward in this area is the contextual vocabulary learning.

The main aim of this study is to help language learners to infer the meaning of an unknown word and develop their vocabulary based on a context by relating new words with their experiences or existing knowledge instead of using isolated memory-based techniques. Thus, the learners are aimed not only to store the words but also to use them actively.

This study aims to answer the following research question:

1. Does using contextual vocabulary learning strategies instead of isolated listing technique help learners to develop their productive vocabulary knowledge?

1.6 Limitations of the Study

This study is planned to be pursued with 40 students, 20 in experimental and 20 in control groups, who study in English preparatory class in Zonguldak Karaelmas University, which has re-named in 2012-2013 as Bülent Ecevit University, in 2011-2012. Therefore, the first limitation is the number of the students. The data obtained from a larger group would have given more reliable results.

The second limitation is the differences in educational background of the students. In others words, despite the similarity in their language proficiency level, there are some inequalities in their educational backgrounds regarding the language learning experiences they had in high school. Moreover, although the departments they are going to study in the following year are mostly in common, there are still varieties such as the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Faculty of Engineering, Faculty of Health.

In this study, it is aimed to teach the learners how to use context to learn new words, thus, the results about using this technique are going to be handled at the end of the study. The study may also lead to some undesirable results because the researcher is the only one who is going to pursue the study.

1.7 Assumptions

When looked into the proficiency levels of the university preparatory class students in English language, it is observed that the learners have difficulty in using what they have learnt as well as their low level. The university preparatory class students are used to integrating traditional techniques into their language learning process and they have little idea about how to use contextual strategies to develop their vocabulary knowledge.

It is assumed that the students can be trained about the contextual vocabulary learning strategies and how to use them. Thus, they can use these strategies in order to develop their vocabulary knowledge.

1.8 Definition of the Terms

Contextual Vocabulary Learning Strategy: It is kind of strategy that helps learners to realize an unknown word in a paragraph, article or any kind of text and infer its meaning. Using this strategy requires guessing the meaning of the unknown word based on the sentence, paragraph or text in which that word is mentioned. While guessing, the learners make use of certain clues in the sentence or the text. Learning a word in context creates a chance for the learner to discover it, thus, making it permanent rather than temporary.

Productive (Active) Vocabulary: Receptive, or active, vocabularies are the ones used actively by the learners in the process of language learning. There are some differences in the encountered words during reading or listening, and writing or speaking. Each word that is faced with while reading or listening may not be used while speaking or writing. The term *productive* has been preferred in this study instead of *active* due to its extensive use in the literature.

Receptive (Passive) Vocabulary: Those are the rarely-used words in writing and speaking although their meanings are understood and known in reading and listening. It is thought that the receptive vocabulary knowledge is larger than the productive one both in L1 and in foreign language. If a learner definitely knows the meaning of a word, but does not produce it, it is clear that the word is categorized under the term of receptive vocabulary. Turning a receptive word into productive one is a challenging

process in language teaching. In order to achieve this, it is necessary to actively use the word in writing or speaking in addition to having an idea about its meaning. The term *receptive* has been preferred in this study instead of *passive* due to its extensive use in the literature.

English as a Foreign Language (EFL): It means teaching English to individuals who do not use English as a mother tongue.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on several aspects of vocabulary and the ways to learn it. First, it focuses on the frame of knowing a vocabulary, and then moves to the different aspects of it by analyzing the meaning of productive and receptive vocabulary. In the following parts, vocabulary learning strategies are classified and explained in detail. Afterwards, the relation between the contextual vocabulary learning and developing the size of productive vocabulary is discussed. Finally, the topic is made concrete by referring to related studies.

2.2 What Is To Know A Word?

“Words are not isolated units of language, but fit into many interlocking systems and levels. Because of this, there are many things to know about any particular word and there are many degrees of knowing.” (Nation, 2001: 23).

It is a well-known fact that communication fails due to lack of vocabulary knowledge. The message can be conveyed despite grammar or pronunciation mistakes; however, it is much harder to understand if the wrong word is used (Lightbown & Spada, 2006: 96). In a poll of ESL students at UCLA, “68 percent indicated that they considered inadequate vocabulary to be the main single contributor to [comprehension] problems” (Crow & Quigley, 1985, p. 499). Therefore, the knowledge of vocabulary is thought as an essential part in learning a language. However, it is necessary to point out what is meant by “knowing a word”.

In first language and second language research in literature, various attempts have been made to clarify what is meant by “vocabulary knowledge” (Cronbach, 1942; Nation, 1990, 2001; Qian, 1998, 1999; Richards, 1976). Mezynski (1983, p. 265) noted that “word meanings can be ‘known’ to varying degrees. Depending on the task, a person could perform adequately with relatively imprecise knowledge. In other situations, a much finer notion of the word’s meaning might be required”.

An early definition about knowing a word was made by Cronbach (1942) who divided vocabulary knowledge into two categories: knowledge of word meaning (generalization, breadth of meaning, and precision of meaning) and levels of accessibility to this knowledge (availability and application). However, this kind of definition was lacking other levels of knowing a word such as morpheme, pronunciation, collocation etc. Later on, Richards (1976) presented different assumptions involved in vocabulary knowledge. These assumptions are frequency, register, syntax, derivation, association, semantic features, and polysemy. Compared to Cronbach’s assumptions, these are more inclusive because they integrate morphological and syntactic aspects with word frequency and register characteristics of the words. However, pronunciation, spelling and collocation were still not mentioned as in Cronbach’s definition.

Vocabulary knowledge usually involves the knowledge of several different areas such as pronunciation, spelling, collocation, contextual suitability etc. Several researchers (Richards, 1976; Ringbom, 1987; Nation, 2001) states this case as the sum of interrelated “subknowledges”- knowledge of the spoken and written form, morphological knowledge, knowledge of word meaning, collocational and grammatical knowledge, and connotative and associational knowledge. Several other researchers assume that vocabulary knowledge consists of progressive steps of knowledge, starting with identifying a word and ending with the ability to use it appropriately in free production (Faerch et al., 1984; Palmberg, 1987). However Palmberg (1987) adopted a different path from Faerch et al. in defining vocabulary knowledge. He mentioned potential vocabulary; the words that the learner may understand based on his first language recognition, which is called cognates, though he has not encountered before. This kind of component is called as “known” in vocabulary knowledge in addition to active and passive ones.

Henriksen (1999) proposed that vocabulary knowledge consists of three continua:

- a) Precision of knowledge
- b) Depth of knowledge
- c) Receptive to productive knowledge

The first dimension, precision of knowledge, reflects the varieties in vocabulary knowledge. The second dimension involves the factors identified in the depth of vocabulary knowledge. The third and the last dimension, reception and production, perceives the vocabulary knowledge in two ways: the knowledge that is only stored in the memory and identified when encountered, and the knowledge that involves both identification and correct use of vocabulary. It was meant to bring a different perspective to traditional active passive continuum with such a division. While the first two are related to knowing a word, the third one reflects how well the learner can access and use the word. This shows that according to Henriksen (1999) if one cannot use the word, it does not mean that he does not know that word; it only means that he has not reached the proficiency or adequate control over the word.

Following Henriksen's division, the depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge became the focus of attention to be studied on. Recently, it has been claimed that vocabulary knowledge can be regarded as having two main principles: breadth and depth (Qian, 1998; Read, 1988; Wesche & Paribakht, 1996). Breadth of vocabulary refers to the size of the words the meaning of which is known. Depth of vocabulary knowledge refers to how well one knows a vocabulary in certain contexts. For example, in speaking, the depth of vocabulary can be illustrated with the pronunciation, intonation, collocation or choosing the correct one among synonyms. In addition, Qian (1999) includes meaning, register, frequency, morphological, syntactic, and collocational properties as the components of the depth of vocabulary knowledge. The breadth and depth considerations have brought a different perspective to vocabulary knowledge. It has enabled to think about not only the sole meaning but also different branches of vocabularies regarding to the skills of language. Especially, unlike the breadth of vocabulary knowledge which is usually studied on, the depth of vocabulary has been a significant issue in vocabulary teaching. Meara (1996) and Laufer and Nation (2001) have also suggested that the automaticity of access to a word, or fluency are essential components of vocabulary knowledge. Following this idea, they even developed a test that try to measure the fluency, or the depth, of vocabulary knowledge.

Qian's (2002) recent framework presents four dimensions which are comprised of all types of definitions mentioned so far (Cronbach, 1942; Henriksen, 1999; Nation, 2001; Read, 1988; Richards, 1976; Wesche & Paribakht, 1996):

- a) Vocabulary Size: The number of words the meanings of which are known.
- b) Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge: The knowledge of all characteristic features of a word such as collocational, phonemic, morphemic, syntactic, semantic, frequency etc.
- c) Lexical Organization: The storage of words in the mental lexicon.
- d) The Automaticity of Receptive-Productive Knowledge: The steps of knowing a word, identifying it when encountered, storing in mind, using in free production considering structural and semantic features.

Nation (2001) has also described lexical knowledge as taxonomy of components. He proposed a set of 18 questions classified into three categories, each containing receptive and productive aspects, to know a word:

Table 1- Receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge Nation (2001) considering "form"

Aspects	Receptive	Productive
Spoken Language	What does the word sound like?	How is the word pronounced?
Written Language	What does the word look like?	How is the word spelled?
Word Parts	What parts are recognizable in this word?	What word parts are needed to Express meaning?

Table 2- Receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge of Nation (2001) considering “meaning”

Aspects	Receptive	Productive
Form and meaning	What does this word form signal?	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
Concept and referents	What is included in the concept?	What items can the concept refer to?
Associations	What other words does this make us think of it?	What other words could we use instead of this one?

Table 3- Receptive and Productive Vocabulary Knowledge of Nation (2001) considering “Use”

Skills	Receptive	Productive
Grammatical functions	In what patterns does the word occur?	In what patterns must we use this word?
Collocations	What words or types of words occur with this one?	What words or types of word must we use instead of this one?
Constraints on use (register, frequency...)	Where, when and how often would we expect to meet this word?	Where, when and how often can we use this word?

Laufer (1990) proposed a slightly different taxonomy of components of word knowledge, including *form*, *meaning*, and *relations with other words*. He emphasized phonological, graphic and morphological knowledge with *form*; referential, associative, pragmatic use with *meaning*; and paradigmatic and syntagmatic use with *relation with others words*.

In short, it is not such a simple fact to know a vocabulary. As many researchers have pointed out, it is also important to have an idea about the usage of the vocabularies and the relation among one another.

This part has given detailed information about what is meant by “knowing a word” and its aspects. The next part will explain receptive and productive means of vocabulary knowledge.

2.3 Receptive and Productive Vocabulary Knowledge

The meaning of receptive and productive vocabulary is actually conveyed by the words themselves. Receptive refers to receiving the language input from listening and reading, called receptive skills. On the other hand, productive refers to using and producing language forms in speaking and writing to express our thoughts, called productive skills. The terms passive (for listening and reading) and active (for speaking and writing) are sometimes used as synonyms for receptive and productive (Meara, 1990; Corson, 1995; Laufer, 1998). However, some researchers like Crow (1986) reject using these terms as the term “passive” brings the idea that the individual is passive during listening or reading. However, while reading, awakening the background knowledge and linking it to the text shows that it is not an actual passive activity.

The distinction between receptive and productive vocabulary has been made by many researchers so far in defining vocabulary knowledge. Nation (2001, p. 38) describes receptive vocabulary as the one perceived while listening or reading and retrieving its meaning; productive vocabulary as the one used for expressing a meaning through speaking or writing and retrieving and producing the appropriate spoken or written form. He describes their difference by using the word *underdeveloped* as an example. In terms of receptive knowledge, the word *underdeveloped* involves:

- being able to recognize the word when it is heard.
- being familiar with its written form so that it is recognized when it is met in reading.
- recognizing that it is made up of the parts *under-*, *-develop-* and *-ed* and being able to relate these parts to its meaning.
- knowing that *underdeveloped* signals a particular meaning
- knowing what the word means in the particular context in which it has just occurred.
- knowing the concept behind the word which will allow understanding in a variety of contexts

- knowing that there are related words like *overdeveloped*, *backward* and *challenged*
- being able to recognize that *underdeveloped* has been used correctly in the sentence in which it occurs
- being able to recognize that words such as *territories* and *areas* are typical collocations
- knowing that *underdeveloped* is not an uncommon word and it is not a pejorative word (Nation, 2001: 26)

On the other hand, the same word, *underdeveloped*, requires the points mentioned below in terms of productive knowledge and use:

- being able to say it with correct pronunciation including stress
- being able to write it with correct spelling
- being able to construct it using the right word parts in their appropriate forms
- being able to produce the word to express the meaning “underdeveloped”
- being able to produce the word in different contexts to express the range of meanings of *underdeveloped*
- being able to produce synonyms and opposites for *underdeveloped*
- being able to use the word correctly in an original sentence
- being able to produce words that commonly occur with it
- being able to decide to use or not use the word to suit the degree of formality of the situation (At present *developing* is more acceptable than *underdeveloped* which carries a slightly negative meaning.) (Nation, 2001: 28).

When analyzed Nation’s explanations in detail, it can easily be realized that productive knowledge is more difficult than receptive one. There are several reasons for this. First, “the amount of knowledge” affects this case. It means productive learning is more difficult due to requiring extra learning of new spoken or written output patterns (Nation, 2001). The second factor is “practice”. Both receptive and productive vocabularies require practice at a certain degree (DeKeyser & Sokalski, 1996). However, productive one usually needs less practice in learning environment. Thus, this leads to difference between receptive and productive sizes. The last factor is

“motivation”. The learners may not produce necessary vocabulary because of variety of reasons such as socio-cultural. This is caused by the lack of motivation to use certain words.

Corson (1995, p. 44) who prefers the terms active and passive vocabulary instead of productive and receptive ones, brings a different explanation. According to him, passive vocabulary includes active vocabulary and three other kinds of vocabulary-words that are only partly known, low frequency words, and words that are avoided in active use.

Bright and McGregor (1970, p. 19) make a distinction between receptive and productive use of vocabularies by referring to first language acquisition. They state that the words are recognized by encountering with them for many times in different contexts and collocations before they come to the tip of the learner’s tongue or pen.

Schmitt and McCarthy (2006, p. 85) relate productive or active vocabulary and receptive or passive vocabulary to vocabulary knowledge in order to explain their meanings. They claim that knowing a word has degrees starting from the most elementary level, which includes visual recognizing, length etc. ending at a ‘higher’ level, which may be production of that word. Therefore, receptive vocabulary can be defined as the beginning point of knowing a word whereas productive one is the level of knowledge which is as close as possible to the high degree of familiarity. This idea shows parallelism with the definitions named by Faerch et al. (1984) who explain lexical knowledge as a continuum from a vague familiarity with a word form (identifying it in the language context) and ending with the ability to use the word correctly in free production.

Laufer and Paribakht (1998) categorize learners’ recognition vocabulary as passive and productive as active. However, they further divide active vocabulary into free active vocabulary (that is, words learners voluntarily choose to use) and controlled active vocabulary (words learners can use if required).

Though many researchers have come up with various definitions for the receptive or passive and productive or active vocabulary, they all agree on a point: Receptive is the type of vocabulary knowledge that is recognized when encountered and identified when listened or read, whereas productive is the type of vocabulary that is accessed and actively used in writing or speaking.

2.3.1 The Relation Between Receptive and Productive Vocabulary

The first distinction about receptive and productive vocabulary has been made by defining them. Another debated issue is the relation between productive and receptive vocabularies. A better understanding of the relationship between passive and active vocabulary can importantly help both pedagogy and second language acquisition research (Laufer & Paribakht, 1998). Whether receptive or productive one is large in size is one of the most studied areas. The relationship between an L2 learner's passive and active vocabularies remains interesting but unexplored; statements about this relationship have been vague and unsubstantiated (Laufer & Paribakht, 1998). According to researchers, the storage of receptive vocabularies has been claimed to be larger than that of productive ones (Aitchison, 1989; Chanell, 1988; Fraser et al., 1963; Laufer, 1998). Laufer's (1998) longitudinal study shows that learners' L2 receptive vocabulary developed to a higher extent than their productive vocabulary.

This idea may traditionally be intuitive; however, it is usually based on the fact that language users, especially children, can understand novel utterances before they produce them. To illustrate, Clark (1993) states that comprehension precedes production and that children can understand words before they can produce them. Similarly, Meara (1990) suggests that receptive and productive vocabulary are "qualitatively different" in that you can assess receptive vocabulary only when appropriate external stimulation is available, whereas productive vocabulary does not require any external stimulus, but can be activated by other words. However, Nation does not agree on this idea by stating that language use is not associationally driven, but, more basically, is meaning driven. He also claims that even seeing an object can be enough to stimulate the use of L2 word; linking with other words is not always the only way. However, according to Melka (1997) the distance between receptive and productive vocabulary is along a continuum. He views that although reception may precede production, the gap between them is not large and it varies and shifts according to linguistic and pragmatic factors. It should be taken into consideration that vocabulary knowledge is not an all-or-nothing phenomenon and some aspects may have become productive, while others remain at the receptive level (Laufer, 1998).

2.4 Vocabulary Learning

“When students travel, they don’t carry grammar books; they carry dictionaries” (Krashen, as cited in Lewis, 1993).

In the early 1980s, research on vocabulary was neglected, which was harshly criticized. Later on, the importance of developing vocabulary knowledge in learning a language was highlighted, especially during the arousal of Communicative Language Teaching. Wilkins (1972) points out that learning vocabulary is as important as learning grammar because if there is a lexical mistake in using the language, despite the high level of grammar, it cannot be assumed as native-like speaking ability. Moreover, Allen (1983) emphasized that “lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; communication breaks down when people do not use the right words”. Thornburry (2002, p. 114) stated, “If you spend most of your time studying grammar, your English will not improve very much. You will see most improvement if you learn more words and expressions. You can say very little with grammar, but you can say almost anything with words.” These ideas reflect the significance of using the correct vocabulary for effective communication as well learning them. So, vocabulary development needs to show parallelism with mastering syntactical items in the new language.

From the late 1980s, vocabulary has become the area that attracted researcher’s interest to study on. It has been discovered that vocabulary learning is a problematic issue, especially in the production of the language like in writing or speaking. Researchers have realized that learners mostly encounter with difficulties, both in receiving and in producing, because of inadequate vocabulary, and even when they are at high level of proficiency in target language, they still need to learn new lexical items (Laufer, 1986; Nation, 1990). Riazi and Alavi (2004) claim that vocabulary is a central factor in development of language proficiency involving pronunciation, spelling, meaning and grammatical properties of the lexical item. Nation (1990, p. 24) states “learners of English as a foreign language need a productive knowledge of at least 3000 high-frequency English words in order to be able to cope with university reading tasks”.

The limited vocabulary knowledge and how to develop it is a matter of concern and it needs to be handled for vocabulary learning process. Since language teaching developed with various methods and approaches, new ideas to improve vocabulary knowledge have been put forward by many researchers and studies. Following these studies, some techniques have also been offered, called vocabulary learning techniques

in order to cope with the problems faced in language learning process. Therefore, the following part investigates the strategies as well as focusing on learning in context and out of context.

2.4.1 Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Everyone has their own way of learning vocabulary. While some language learners prefer to keep long lists of new vocabulary, generally with their equivalences in their mother tongue, others favor organizing their vocabulary according to their topic, word category or word frequency. Sometimes learners may find it useful to use vocabulary cards, pictures or real objects and test themselves to check whether they have learnt. All of these techniques have advantages and limitations in their own ways. As it has been mentioned before, knowing a word involves knowing a great deal about it such as its frequency, form, syntactic and situational limitations, its semantic mapping, spelling, collocations, pronunciation etc. (Nation, 1990; Richards, 1976). Therefore, learning vocabulary requires more than giving a definition, thus adopting some strategies. What is necessary for all learners is that they know not only the meaning but also the production of the vocabulary they have learnt. Considering this, it is important to train them about the effective way of learning the vocabulary.

Vocabulary learning strategies are one part of language learning strategies which in turn are part of general learning strategies (Nation, 2001). However, the term language learning strategies is an umbrella that usually refers to vocabulary learning strategies. Many researchers (Cohen, 1987; Cook, 2001; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Hogben & Lawson, 1986; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 1997; Weaver & Cohen, 1987) have studied on those strategies and their categorization especially since the late 1970s.

Nation (2001, p. 217) defines the vocabulary learning strategies by considering students' strategies preferences and states that "a strategy needs to a) involve choice, that is, there are several strategies to choose from; b) be complex, that is, there are several steps to learn; c) require knowledge and benefit from training; and d) increase the efficiency of vocabulary learning and vocabulary use".

2.4.1.1 Cohen's Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Cohen (1987) divided the strategies to learn vocabulary into four groups:

Rote repetition: Repeating the word and its meaning until it seems to have stuck.

Structure: Analyzing the word with its roots, prefix, suffix and inflections to understand its meaning.

Semantic strategies: Studying the synonyms to create a link among the words, clustering by topics, or linking the word to the sentence in which it was found.

The use of mnemonic devices: Creating a cognitive link for an unknown word by means of cognitive mediator.

2.4.1.2 Hogben and Lawson's Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Hogben and Lawson (1996) divided the strategies into four categories. For the categorization, they based on the information obtained through their students' vocabulary learning.

Repetition

- reading of related words
- simple rehearsal
- writing of word and meaning
- cumulative rehearsal
- testing

Word feature analysis

- spelling
- word classification
- suffix

Simple elaboration

- sentence translation
- simple use of context
- appearance similarity

- sound link

Complex elaboration

- complex use of context
- paraphrase
- mnemonic

2.4.1.3 Weaver and Cohen's Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Cohen and Weaver (1997) categorized the vocabulary learning strategies as follow:

Categorization: Categorizing the new words according to parts of speech, meaning, formal vs. informal usage, alphabetical order etc.

Key word mnemonics: Creating a link between the new word item and a native language word or phrase that sounds similar to it.

Visualization: Using mental images, photos, pictures, charts, and graphs or drawing pictures for new word item.

Rhyme/rhythm: Making up songs

Language transfer: Using prior knowledge of native, target, or other language structure

Repetition: Repeating words for many times to develop pronunciation and spelling, trying to practice the words, writing new sentences, making up stories using as many words as possible, reading texts involving new words, using new words in conversation

2.4.1.4 Schmitt's Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Schmitt (1997) distinguished the strategies into two main groups:

Discovery strategies: They are the strategies used to determine the meaning of new words when encountered for the first time. This group includes determination and social strategies. The former one, determination strategy, is used “when faced with discovering a new word's meaning without recourse to another person's expertise” (1997, p. 205). Analyzing parts of speech, affixes and roots, checking for L1 cognate, analyzing pictures and gestures, guessing from textual context, using dictionary, word lists and flashcards are subcategories of discovery strategy.

The latter one, social strategy, is used to understand a word “by asking someone who knows it” (1997, p. 210). Asking teacher for L1 translation, paraphrase or synonym, asking teacher for a sentence including the new word, asking classmates the meaning and discovering the meaning cooperatively are among discovery-social strategies.

Consolidation strategies: These are the strategies to consolidate the meaning of words when encountered again. Consolidation strategies have four subcategories:

Consolidation and social strategies: Studying and practicing meaning in a group, teacher’s checking students’ flashcards or word lists for accuracy, interacting with native speakers.

Consolidation and memory strategies: Studying word with pictures, imagining, word’s meaning, connecting word to a personal experience, associating the word with its coordinates, connecting the word to its synonyms and antonyms, using semantic mapping, grouping words together, using new words in sentences, studying word spelling and sound, using keyword method, paraphrasing word meaning, using cognates, using physical action.

Consolidation and cognitive strategies: Verbal/written repetition, using word lists, using flashcards, note-taking, using vocabulary section in textbooks, putting foreign language labels on objects, keeping vocabulary subjects.

Consolidation and metacognitive strategies: Using foreign language media, testing oneself with word tests, using spaced word practice, skipping/passing new word, and continuing to study new word over time.

2.4.1.5 Gu and Johnson’s Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Gu and Johnson (1996, p. 650-651) divided the strategies into six based on the students’ responses to self-reporting questionnaire.

Guessing Strategies

- Using background knowledge/wider context
- Using linguistic cues/immediate context

Dictionary Strategies

- Dictionary strategies for comprehension

- Extended dictionary strategies
- Looking-up strategies

Note-taking Strategies

- Meaning-oriented note-taking strategies
- Usage oriented note taking strategies

Rehearsal Strategies

- Using word lists
- Oral repetition
- Visual repetition

Encoding Strategies

- Association/Elaboration
- Imagery
- Visual encoding
- Auditory encoding
- Using word-structure
- Semantic encoding
- Contextual encoding

Activation Strategies

- This strategy means memorizing list of facts by linking them to familiar words or numbers by means of an image
- Remembering vocabulary lists by picturing them certain places
- Creating an acoustic or image link between new word and a word in L2 that sounds similar

2.4.1.6 Nation's Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Nation (2001) came up with a general classification for vocabulary learning strategies. He categorized them considering the needs, sources and process of learning.

According to Nation (2001), vocabulary learning strategies are divided into three groups:

Planning

Planning includes choosing what to focus on and when to focus on. In other words, because using different strategies is effective for different types of vocabularies, it is important to plan the best strategy for the best aspect of the words. Moreover, repetition plays an important role in learning vocabulary, so it should also be included for the memorization of the items.

- choosing words
- choosing the aspect of word knowledge
- choosing strategies
- planning repetition

Sources

Source means finding information about words. Analyzing word parts is a useful strategy because the learner may be familiar with the affixes or the root of the words, which makes it easy to remember. Guessing from context is another important strategy because it enables learners to remember the word in a context. Moreover, using references or parallels can be useful for learning vocabulary.

- analyzing the word
- using context
- consulting a reference source in L1 and L2
- using parallels in L1 and L2

Processes

Processes are establishing vocabulary knowledge. Noticing is one of the most common ways to learn and record new words. Retrieving helps to link the word meaning with its form and is superior to noticing. Generating is the production of the word in certain context.

- noticing
- retrieving

- generating

2.4.1.7 Cook's Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Cook (2001, p. 66) divided the vocabulary learning strategies into two groups:

Strategies for understanding the meaning of words

- Guessing from the situation or context
- Using a dictionary
- Making deductions from the word form
- Linking to cognates (Finding similarities in words of two different languages)

Strategies for acquiring words

- Repetition and rote learning
- Organizing words in the mind
- Linking to existing knowledge

It is clear that though there are various researchers mentioning the strategies under different categories, they all have common points. To illustrate, while Cook (2001) divides the strategies into two groups, Cohen and Weaver (1997) mentions them one by one although both classifications have the same strategies such as repetition, categorization etc. Another example can be the similarity between Nation's (2001) and Hogben and Lawson's (1996) classification. The *source* category in Nation's taxonomy which involves analyzing word parts, using parallels with other languages is handled under the title of '*word feature analysis*' in Hogben and Lawson's (1996) classification.

Though the researchers show differences in categorization, most of them state the same strategies for vocabulary development. In the following part of this chapter, contextual strategies will be handled in detail due to the focus of this study.

2.4.2 Learning Vocabulary in Context

The importance of vocabulary learning and its role in communication have been emphasized so far. Alternative ways have been presented by different researchers to facilitate vocabulary development. One of these ways is contextual strategies which

includes the techniques of guessing the meaning, analyzing word parts and context clues which are mentioned by many researchers (Cohen, 1987; Cook, 2001; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Hogben & Lawson, 1996; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 1997) under different titles. For example, Cohen (1987) puts these techniques under different categorizations as *structure* and *semantic strategies* while Schmitt (1997) classifies them under one heading as *discovery-determination* strategies. Nation (2001), whose categorization is similar to Schmitt's (1997) in terms of contextual vocabulary strategies, classifies the techniques as *sources* which have both word analysis and guessing strategy. Likewise, Cook (2001) has the category of *strategies for understanding the meanings of words* which include both studying the word chunks and guessing from the context. The other researchers categorizing separately the techniques of contextual vocabulary learning, like Cohen (1987), are Hogben and Lawson (1996). They mention the word analysis under the title of *word feature analysis*. Moreover, they present the use of context under two different titles as *simple use* and *complex use*. Lastly, Gu and Johnson (1996) create a category named *guessing strategies*, which handle them separately.

Many scholars have discussed the importance of context (Johns, 1997; Meara, 2002; Nagy, 1997; Nation, 2001; Read, 2000). They claim that words cannot be assigned with meanings in isolation by the speakers. Meaning is created from the connection between words in a context. Meara (2002, p. 400) points out that "context can radically change the meaning of words, making familiar words opaque and unfamiliar words completely transparent". Aksoy (2006) states that contextual vocabulary acquisition is the acquisition of a meaning for a word in a text by reasoning from textual clues and prior knowledge, including language knowledge and hypotheses developed from prior encounters with the word, without external sources of help such as dictionaries or people. It is the task of finding out the meaning of a word by the learner who has no outside source of help.

"Teaching one word at a time out of context is the worst way of teaching vocabulary, with rapid forgetting almost guaranteed" claims Frank Smith, the author of "The Book of Learning and Forgetting". According to Smith, people assimilate new vocabulary words from context the first time they meet them, "provided that the gist of the material being read is both interesting and comprehensible. Within five more encounters, the word and its conventional meaning are usually firmly established in the mind of the reader".

Many language professors argue about the effectiveness of contextualized vocabulary teaching rather than learning words in lists. Oxford and Scarcella (1994) observed that while word lists enable students to memorize vocabulary for tests, students are more likely to forget rapidly. McCarthy (1990) argues that a word is best assimilated and remembered when learnt in a meaningful context.

Learning vocabulary in context is probably the most useful technique because it gets students to work out the meanings of words for themselves. Teachers need to think of a clear context when the word is used, and either describe it to the students or give them extra sentences for further explanation. In guiding students for contextual learning, it is important to include already-known words apart from the target word in the context. Because if the context still creates gaps about the definition of the target word, it is difficult for students to infer its meaning.

According to Aksoy (2006), teachers of English should teach new terms in context of a meaningful subject-matter lesson, and facilitate student discussion that centers on use of the new term. At some point, students should actively produce the new term themselves in a sentence within the context.

Having students to look up definitions and write separate sentences with the new words is a traditional practice of learning vocabulary. It is based on the idea that students need to think of an appropriate context in which the word can be used. This helps students to use the word actively and create a relation with their minds.

2.4.2.1 Guessing From The Context

As in first language acquisition, it is impossible to teach all vocabulary also in second language. The learners need to pick them up from books, TV or conversations. There is not enough time to teach thousands of words one by one in class. Nagy and Anderson (1984, p. 304) say that “even the most ruthlessly systematic direct vocabulary instruction could neither account for a significant proportion of all words children actually learn, nor cover more than a modest proportion of the words they will encounter in school reading materials”. Therefore, learners need to adopt the strategy for guessing unknown words successfully.

Contextual guesswork can be defined as making use of the context in which the word appears to derive an idea of its meaning, or in some cases, guess from the word itself, as in words of Latin origin. Knowledge of word formation, e.g. prefixes and

suffixes, can also help guide students to discover meaning. Teachers can help students with specific techniques and practice in contextual guesswork, for example, the understanding of discourse markers and identifying the function of the word in the sentence (e.g. verb, adjective, noun).

Guessing from context is thought to be a useful skill as it can be used by learners both in and outside the classroom setting (Shokouhi, 2010). Although there are some other ways to deal with unknown words as mentioned in previous sections, it is important for learners to have methods that they can apply on their own, outside the instructional setting (Read, 2004). Nation (2001) also identifies it as one of the three principal strategies for handling unknown words. Guessing from context requires guessing the meaning of a novel vocabulary word based on the connections between known and unknown components in the text (Parel, 2004), which is called ‘inferencing’ by Nassaji (2006). Inferencing is a “thinking process that involves reasoning a step beyond the text, using generalization, synthesis, and/or explanation” (Hammandou-Sullivan, 2002, p. 219). Therefore, a learner who needs to guess the meaning of an unknown vocabulary has to make inference because it requires going through such a thinking process.

Carton (1971) was the first researcher who studied on lexical inferencing. According to him, inferencing involved the use of what is familiar to understand the meaning of unfamiliar. In other words, contextual inferencing is the process of making “informed guesses” about the meanings of unfamiliar words in the text with the help of linguistic cues.

The first thing to do when encountered a new word is to ignore it. If it is essential to understand the whole text, it will come again. If the learners meet the word for the second or more time and communication breaks, they need to try to guess its meaning. Coady (1979) has argued that the successful language learner employs a psycholinguistic guessing approach. However, it is important to consider that the learner needs to know about the 95% of words in the text in order to be able to guess the meanings of unknown words correctly. Otherwise, the text will be too difficult to make successful guessing more likely. The percentage of known and unknown vocabulary is one of the most important factors that determine the difficulty of the text and it affects the ability to guess an unknown word’s meaning (Schmitt, 2000, p. 152). Therefore, it is important to use this strategy not at the beginning or elementary levels but at pre-intermediate ones.

Contextual guessing has several advantages. It is a good way to deal with a lot of words, it can lead to vocabulary learning and it does not cause much misunderstanding in reading process (Nation, 2001). The time problem can also be overcome with the help of contextual inferencing (Clarke & Nation, 1980). As mentioned before, it is not possible to focus on and teach externally all types of words in the lesson. Furthermore, getting students to look up the definitions is another time consuming activity for language classrooms. Therefore, both the time problem is solved and the students become more autonomous in learning vocabulary. In addition, the disadvantage of using dictionary is not limited with waste of time. Because dictionaries present a variety of definitions, it can create problems for students to place the exact meaning of the word. The reading process is also interrupted. Therefore, contextual inferencing is an effective way of both using time efficiently and having a smooth language learning process.

However, it is generally known that inferencing is a complicated process, and it cannot be assumed that learners will automatically be successful. In addition to the necessity of knowing enough of the words in a text, a number of factors affect the success of inferencing. The next part will introduce the contextual information that needs considering in making inferences.

Contextual Information

Contextual information plays an important role in the strategy of guessing and inferencing the meaning of an unknown word in vocabulary development. When the learner encounters with the unknown word, this leads to misunderstanding and interruption in reading process. Contextual information helps the learner to overcome this situation. In addition, learners may face with a word that is ambiguous and make use of the context to disambiguate multiple meanings of the word (Grabe, 2009).

The learner needs to focus on correct contextual clues and use them effectively in order to infer the meaning of an unknown word. Different researchers have come up with different taxonomies for understanding contextual clues (Bengeleil & Paribakht, 2004; Carton, 1971; Nagy cited in Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997).

The first taxonomy was put forward by Carton (1971: 45) who defined *inferencing* as “a term involving the use of attributes and contexts that are similar... in recognizing what is *not* familiar”. He made a three-way categorization of main cue-

types: *intralingual*, *interlingual* and *extralingual* cues. The *intralingual* category included cues from L2 such as plural, tense markers or suffixes. The learners need to deeply analyze the context in order to use these cues, thus promoting further search in the text. Therefore, this kind of cues requires mastery to some degree in the target language. The second type of cues, *interlingual* ones, includes learner's existing knowledge on L1 or another language. Cognates or phonological transformations can be good examples for this category. The last type of cues, *extralingual* ones, includes world and target culture knowledge based on cues. This helps students to associate the objects and events in the real world with the context.

Another researcher who developed taxonomy on contextual information for inferencing was Nagy (cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 1997). His taxonomy includes linguistic knowledge, world knowledge and strategic knowledge. *Linguistic knowledge* includes information about the context and learner's knowledge on target language as in Carton's (1971) *intralingual* category. Like Carton (1971), Nagy claims that the extent of inferencing depends on the learner's knowledge on the structures. He handles syntactic knowledge, vocabulary knowledge and word schemas as parts of linguistic knowledge. The syntactic knowledge provides learners with significant information about word's meaning. Although the mappings between semantic categories and syntactic structures are complex, they supply sufficient information for the learners. For instance, learner's knowledge about the word's part of speech creates a big advantage on his ability to make inferencing. Word schemas include all possible meanings of a word in a context. Although a word may have infinite numbers of meanings, the learner can come up with the most suitable one for the text. Vocabulary knowledge is also important because the learner needs to have an idea about the meanings of the words around the unknown one. In that sense, syntactic knowledge, word schemas and vocabulary knowledge play important roles for the linguistic knowledge of the learner.

According to Nagy, *world knowledge* is also essential for the learners to infer the meaning of an unknown word. Because world knowledge helps the learner to have an idea about the context, the learner can easily understand what the words refer to in the world. To illustrate, a guess about the meaning of a word about *economics* is limited with the learner's knowledge about this topic.

Lastly, what Nagy (cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 1997) finds useful for inferencing is strategic knowledge, which shows slight difference from Carton's (1971). It involves conscious control over cognitive resources and involves the learner's

conscious attempts to derive the meaning of an unknown word from the context. Therefore, the learner uses the information in the context in a strategic way, which may lead to instruction to some extent.

When Carton's and Nagy's taxonomies are compared, it is easy to realize that the former's is based on text characteristics whereas the latter refers to the characteristics of the learner. However, they have some points in common; the linguistic knowledge the learner needs to analyze and the world knowledge the learner needs to have to have an idea about the context. The point they contrast is that while Carton states the use of L1, Nagy emphasizes the conscious attempts of the learner. On the whole, they both care about the importance of both the text and the learner.

Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004) developed different taxonomy based on a study they carried out. In their study, they examined the effect of EFL learners' L2 reading proficiency on the knowledge sources and context clues they use. As a result of a reading comprehension test, 17 participants were divided into two groups in accordance with their reading proficiency levels, intermediate and advanced. The Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) (Paribakht & Wesche, 1996) was used in order to determine the participants' knowledge of the target words. Then, 26 unknown target words were given to guess their meanings. Think-aloud strategy was used while the participants were inferring the meanings. At the end of the study, it was turned out that both groups used almost the same contextual clues to infer the meaning of unknown words. However, the intermediate group used multiple sources, and various combinations of knowledge sources and context clues, more than the advanced group. Based on the results of this study, they developed a taxonomy by classifying them according to their common attributes:

I. Linguistic sources

A. Intralingual sources

1. Target word level
 - a. word morphology
 - b. homonymy
 - c. word association
2. Sentence level
 - a. sentence meaning
 - b. syntagmatic relations

- c. paradigmatic relations
 - d. grammar
 - e. punctuation
- 3. Discourse level
 - a. discourse meaning
 - b. formal schemata
- B. Interlingual sources
 - 1. Lexical knowledge
 - 2. Word collocation
- II. Non-linguistic sources
 - A. Knowledge of topic
 - B. Knowledge of medical terms

Bengeleil and Paribakht's (2004) taxonomy is similar to Carton's (1971) because they both include almost the same sources. However, while Bengeleil and Paribakht divides into two groups, linguistic and non-linguistic, Carton has three main groups, intralingual, interlingual and extra-lingual. The linguistic category of Bengeleil and Paribakht involves what Carton mentions as interlingual and intralingual. Moreover, Carton emphasizes the effect of other languages in inter-lingual sources. Likewise, in Bengeleil and Paribakht's taxonomy, the lexical knowledge, which is the sub-category of interlingual sources, involves the use of native language as well as the cognates from other languages.

What can be understood from the discussions above, contextual inferencing strategies, the clues and knowledge sources have been studied for a long time. It is necessary to state that teachers of foreign language need to give information about the contextual guessing strategies considering the challenges that the students face in learning vocabulary (Schulz, 1983). This idea is supported by Nation (2008: 64) who states that "guessing from context is such a widely applicable and effective strategy that any time spent learning and perfecting it, is time well-spent".

Training in Contextual Inferencing Strategies

Despite not being so essential to understand the meaning of every single word in a text, it is sometimes necessary to get what is meant by a word item. Guessing the meaning of an unknown word is a useful strategy and regarded as a key vocabulary

learning skill (Schmitt, 2000). “The ability to deduce the meaning through guessing strategy is one of the most useful skills of the expert reader.” (Bright & McGregor, 1970, p. 31). It is helpful both to remember the word in the long term and to deal with the low-frequency vocabulary in written texts. Therefore, language learners should be trained about how to deal with authentic texts in the real world (Schulz, 1983). Although the main objective to make the students get used to guessing strategy is to attain the highest level of achievement in comprehension and lowest level of frustration while reading (Nagy, 1997), this study aims to help learners to actively use the words they have inferred from the context.

Various researchers (Clarke & Nation, 1980; Honeyfield, 1977; Seibert, 1945; Sternberg and Powell, 1983) have proposed certain steps to infer the meaning of an unknown word in a context. The participants in this study have been trained about the strategies presented by Clarke and Nation. They state the steps as in the following:

Step 1: Look at the unknown word and decide its parts of speech. Is it a noun, a verb, an adjective or an adverb?

Step 2: Look at the clause of sentence containing the unknown word. If the unknown word is a noun, what adjectives describe it? What verb is it near? That is, what does this noun do, and what is done to it?

If the unknown word is a verb, what nouns does it go with? Is it modified by an adverb?

If it is an adjective, what noun does it go with?

If it is an adverb, what verb is it modifying?

Step 3: Look at the relationship between the clause or sentence containing the unknown word and other sentences or paragraphs. Sometimes this relationship will be signaled by a conjunction such as *but*, *because*, *if*, *when* or by an adverb such as *however*, *as a result*. Often there will be no signal. The possible types of relationship include cause and effect, contrast, inclusion, time exemplification, and summary. Punctuation may also serve as a cue. Semicolons often signal a list of inclusion relationships; dashes may signal restatement of explanation. Reference words such as *this*, *that*, and *such* also provide useful information.

Step 4: Use the knowledge you have gained from Steps 1-3 to guess the meaning of the word.

Step 5: Check that your guess is correct.

- a. See that the part of speech of your guess is the same as the part of speech of the unknown word. If it is not the same, then something is wrong with your guess.
- b. Replace the unknown word with your guess. If the sentence makes sense, your guess is probably correct.
- c. Break the unknown word into its prefix, root, and suffix, if possible. If the meanings of the prefix and root correspond to your guess, good. If not, look at your guess again, but do not change anything if you feel reasonably certain about your guess using the context.

(Clarke & Nation, 1980; also in Nation, 1990)

Grellet's (1994) claim about using a dictionary seems to prove the method proposed by Clarke and Nation (1980). She tells that learners need to be encouraged to infer the meaning from the context instead of using dictionary immediately. The time that is spent on using dictionary should be used for guessing the meaning from the context. Based on this idea, he claims, it is very important to gain the skill of inferring the meaning from the context from the very beginning. Whatever the level of learners' is, the need for training learners in inferring word meanings from context is obvious as this will improve learners' ability to use the context (Nation, 2008).

As can be realized from the steps, looking at the word part is not one of the first things to consider unlike many language teachers prefer. Clarke and Nation feel that it is better as a confirmation procedure, in which a mistaken reading of the root and affixes will not lead the learner astray from the beginning of the process (Schmitt, 2000, p. 154). We need to notice that the process is a paramount which adds more to the preceding ones.

2.4.2.2 Studies on Learning Vocabulary in Context

The studies about learning vocabulary in context have been analyzed in two parts, as the ones pursued in foreign countries and the ones made in Turkey. The following part states the researches made in different countries.

The Studies Made by Foreign Researchers

The few studies of guessing words from context indicate that a large proportion of the unknown words can be successfully dealt with in this way. However, it is

important to train students about the strategies because they need to be aware of the process they will go through. Prince (1996) states that training learners to employ metacognitive strategies as well as the contextual inferencing ones is of paramount importance in helping them to make successful derivations.

Seibert (1945) carried out two studies to show the effectiveness of guessing word meaning from context. In the first study, university teachers with knowledge of French and Latin but with no previous knowledge of Spanish tried to guess the meanings of the main words by using etymology and context. 60% to 90 % of the main words were guessable. However, Seibert (1945, p. 300) noted that “without context to check the meaning of the words etymology, when faulty, may be a dangerous tool”. The second study was pursued by a modified cloze-test in English with freshman university students whose native language was English. First, the teachers were applied as a pre-test to check the words whether the words were guessable. On average, 60% of the blanks were correctly filled by the students.

In Ames’s study (1966) 60% of unknown words which were chosen on a random basis were guessed correctly by his doctoral level students. Likewise, Liu and Nation (1985) followed a study with 59 teachers of English who were attending to diploma course with proficiency in English. A short passage the words of which were not in the General Service List of English Words (West, 1953) and replaced with nonsense words were given to the participants. These nonsense words were almost the same length as the words they were replaced with and were given a suitable suffix if the original word contained one. To illustrate, the word *dominance* was replaced with *benalment* etc. After the short text, the long one whose words were also changed was given to students. They were asked to replace the words with the equivalences from their mother tongue or to paraphrase them. The results showed that 85% of the unknown words were inferred correctly from the context.

Another study was made about training the learners for guessing strategy and level of achievement by Walters (2006). He tried to find out the effectiveness of three training methods of teaching how to guess the meanings in the context. These strategies were general strategy to infer the meaning from the context while reading, training to recognize context clues and interpret them, and providing practice with cloze exercises supported by feedback. All of the experimental groups had better scores than control group and no significant difference occurred among them. However, it turned out that

strategy training was totally effective in the use of context to derive the word's meaning.

Clarke and Nation's study (1980) focused on the effectiveness of using four steps for guessing the meanings of words from context. These steps were defining the parts of speech, looking at the immediate grammar, studying the wider context, and guessing the word and checking the guess. Their study was more like an analysis rather than measurement. According to Clarke and Nation (1980) those steps were totally useful for students in inferencing the meaning of unknown words in a reading text because they realized that learners were able to apply them successfully after working on several passages. However, they also emphasized that it is important for the learners to have a certain amount of vocabulary knowledge; that is, to be at a considerable level at the target language.

Another study was pursued by Kern (1989) who focused on the effectiveness of training the learners on inferring word meaning from context. The study was applied to 53 intermediate French learners. The experimental group received instruction on how to make use of context to infer word meanings, whereas the control group only followed the regular course schedule. To measure the word inference achievement, the students were presented a list of words in which they had to identify the unknown words. In the end, their word inference scores were calculated according to the number of words they regarded as known or unknown in the reading text. The study revealed that strategy instruction on word inference from context was totally effective for students to understand the unknown vocabulary in context.

Similarly Shokouhi and Askari (2010) studied with one hundred students from Iran to examine the effectiveness of contextual guessing strategy (CGS) on vocabulary development. The participants were randomly divided into two groups as 'context' and 'non-context' ones, the formal experimental and the latter control. The experimental group received CGS instruction whereas the control group was given direct explanations of the words. According to the results of pre- and post-tests, the group which was given CGS instruction was more successful in vocabulary development than the one receiving only direct instruction.

One of the detailed studies was made by Kuhn and Stahl (1998) who reviewed 14 studies trying to teach children to be more effective at learning words from context. According to their analysis, in nearly all of the studies, treatments were successful at improving children's skills for deriving word meaning from context (Askov & Kamm,

1976; Buikema & Graves, 1993; Carr & Mazur-Stewart, 1988; Jenkins, Matlock & Slocum, 1989; Sampson, Valment & Allen, 1982; Patberg, Graves & Stibbe, 1984; Sternberg, 1987).

Jenkins, Matlock and Slocum (1989) compared the effects of two different strategies on vocabulary development, individual word meanings and deriving word meanings from context. The group assigned for word inference was given general strategy training which emphasized using contextual clues. This general strategy was named as *SCANR* with acronyms (Substitute a word, Ask if this substitution is appropriate for all context, Need a new idea?, Revise your idea). The other group only received instruction on the meanings of individual words. At the end of the study, it turned out that the group given strategy instruction performed better in post-test than the one receiving individual word explanation.

Buikema and Graves (1993) gave their students a 5-day- training on deriving word meanings from context using context clues. They used word riddles and riddle metaphor to help students derive words from context. Later on, they realized the effectiveness of training on word inference and incidental word learning with the help of an unexpected vocabulary test.

More recent approaches have moved away from specific lists of processes to a more general modeling of learning words from context (Kuhn & Stahl, 1998). An example is Goerss et al.'s (1994) training program in which students were given general guidelines on how to derive words meanings from context and were told to think-aloud while reading texts with non-sense words inserted in a one-to-one tutoring session. The instruction was for both general knowledge about the context and specific contextual clues. They emphasized that not the exact meaning of the words is necessary; it is important to get whatever is tried to be conveyed as a message with that word. They found out great improvement in students' dealing with context, but because they had no control group, they could not compare its effectiveness with practicing alone.

Based on the constructivist approach recently, L2 learners consistently make use of word inference from context and rely mostly on guessing both locally and globally (Graesser, Singer & Trabasso, 1994). According to this idea, students also use their schemata actively while deriving word meanings. Furthermore, according to Nassaji (2004) it is asserted that there must be adequate background knowledge of the learner to make successful inferences about the word meaning.

The results of those studies indicate that L2 learners can benefit from the training or direct instruction on how to guess the meanings of unknown words in context by using contextual clues. They will be able to overcome vocabulary development problem in the long-term with this strategy. Therefore, it is necessary to include teaching of the strategies for contextual vocabulary learning into our curriculums. However, the studies made so far are useful to show that guessing strategy is essential to *learn* a word. The literature does not have detailed studies on the *production* of words learnt by contextual guessing strategies. We do not have an idea about the effectiveness of inferred words on writing or speaking skills of the learners. This study is going to look into this and aims to put forward the achievement in using the inferred words actively in writing.

The Studies Made by Turkish Researchers

Although contextual vocabulary learning strategies are among the most popular research topics around the world, there are very few studies made by Turkish researchers. Moreover, almost all of them follow the same path in their studies and relate the contextual vocabulary learning with reading skill.

Kafes (1998) is an earlier researcher who studied on the effectiveness of guessing strategy on reading comprehension. He claimed that if the learners used guessing strategy for the unknown words in a text instead of the direct instruction of the teacher, they would be more successful in comprehending the reading text. Thus, he pursued his study with two groups of 23 EFL intermediate level students, as the control group and the experimental group. Both groups read eight texts from a reading book. While the control group was directly given the meaning of unknown vocabulary, the experimental group was guided for making inference and guessing its meaning from contextual clues. The groups were presented multiple choice, open-ended, and vocabulary guessing questions as pre and post-tests. Although, the pre-tests of both groups were almost at the same achievement level, at the end of the study, it turned out that the experimental group had higher scores than the control group in the post-test. The learners using guessing strategy for the unknown words both comprehended the text in a better way and learnt the new vocabulary.

Another study was made with 51 EFL learners at a university by İstifçi (2009). 26 of the participants were at intermediate level while 25 of them were lower-intermediate level students. The aim of the study was to find out the inferencing strategies that the learners used in order to guess the meaning of unknown word in a reading text. Moreover, that study focused on whether there was a significant difference in the preferences of the learners for strategies in terms of their proficiency levels. As for the data treatment of the study, the learners were presented four reading texts which involved plenty of unknown words. They were asked to scan the text, underline any unknown words and guess their meanings. After this process, they wrote about how they inferred the meaning of unknown words. At the end of the study, it turned out that the higher level of learners were more successful in guessing the correct meaning of the unknown words. They considered the text as a whole and used everything as a clue such as all the words in the passage, grammatical knowledge, parts of speech, word association knowledge etc. However, low-intermediate level learners forgot about the text and focused on the possible meanings of the unknown word. That is to say, they did not achieve to consider the wider text. This result claimed that their strategy preference in guessing also showed difference. Intermediate level learners used everything that can be helpful for them to reach the possible meaning of the unknown word in the text, whereas low-intermediate level learners only focused on the word by ignoring the rest of the sentence or text.

Another research was made by Baturay (2007) based on context in vocabulary teaching. Baturay's study (2007) approached vocabulary teaching in context from a different perspective. The context was used not to teach the words, but to recognize its effect on remembering newly-learnt words. Due to developing contribution of technology in language teaching, the researcher studied with web-based instruments. The aim of her study was to "find out the effectiveness of web-based multimedia annotated vocabulary learning in context model and in spaced repetitions on vocabulary retention" (Baturay, 2007). In other words, she claimed to discover whether the vocabulary presented in a web-based environment in various contexts with certain intervals helps learners to remember those words in the long-term. The participants were 69 EFL students at a university. They were responsible for recognizing the newly-learnt words in different contexts and do certain exercises about them. The web-based vocabulary learning exercises were enriched by the researcher, like audible online dictionary, pictures and animations, interactive exercises such as gap-filling, cloze and

multiple choice tests, games, and puzzles. At the end of the study, it came out that different contexts were helpful for learners to internalize the words and remember them in the long term.

Another different aspect of contextual vocabulary learning was analyzed by Kulaç (2011). She made a research on the attitudes of the pre-intermediate level EFL learners towards contextual vocabulary learning strategies, namely the guessing technique. Moreover, she associated the attitudes towards guessing technique with the attitudes towards reading in English. The participants were 82 university level students. Data were obtained with pre and post-tests. A pre-test to study on the attitudes towards reading in English and unknown words was presented before training the learners for contextual vocabulary strategies. The pre-test resulted in the negative attitudes of the learners towards both reading and unknown words. As in most of the studies, the learners were trained about how to infer the meaning of an unfamiliar word during reading, how to refer to contextual clues and reach their possible meanings. After the training session, the learners were encouraged to use these techniques. When the same attitude questionnaires were given to the learners and analyzed, it turned out that training learners about contextual vocabulary learning technique had a positive effect on the low attitudes of the learners.

When all studies are analyzed in detail, it can easily be realized that contextual vocabulary training is an essential part of English language teaching process. Its benefits range from ensuring high motivation attitudes of students towards certain skills, developing vocabulary knowledge in target language to integrating the language learning process with current trends like web-based language teaching. Moreover, it is useful for the productive aspect of language. Because knowing a word is not limited with knowing its meaning, spelling or pronunciation, but it also means using that word correctly in an appropriate context. Thus, the next part handles how contextual vocabulary learning strategies help to use these words actively in the target language.

2.4.3 Contextual Vocabulary Learning and Productive Vocabulary

As mentioned before, productive vocabulary is the one which is used actively in productive skills of a language, namely speaking and writing. However, it is not easy to develop the capacity of one's productive vocabulary unlike the receptive one. Various researchers (Laufer, 1998; Lee & Muncie, 2006; Meara & Fitzpatrick, 2000) have

attempted to see the development in both productive and receptive vocabulary sizes. However, the studies revealed that receptive vocabulary size is generally larger than the productive one.

There are a number of ways to enlarge the vocabulary size in learning a foreign language. Contextual vocabulary learning is also one of them. However, all vocabulary learning strategies do not address to develop the skill of producing them. claims that receptive vocabulary can be gained through receptive activities such as memory games, drawing pictures or labeling objects etc., whereas productive vocabulary can be developed by productive activities such as writing new sentences or dealing with cloze tests. Although, Meara and Fitzpatrick (2000, p. 20) claim that “the words that a learner produces tend to be so context-specific that it is difficult to calculate from a small sample the true size or range of the learner’s productive vocabulary”, being parallel with this study, very few studies (Duin, 1983; Lee, 2003; Lee & Muncie, 2006) focus on the importance of contextual vocabulary teaching to develop productive vocabulary size. This may be because of the lack of tests to measure the productive vocabulary size. It is generally tried to be measured with the help of tests where the students have to fill in a word in context, usually with two or three letters given (Lee & Muncie, 2006).

To illustrate, Wu (2003) made a study to find out the importance of context in teaching collocations. He applied a monolingual test at a university. Most of the attendants had difficulty in choosing the correct combination of two (or more) lexical items. Although the attendants were allowed to apply the test as “take-home”, the results were still discouraging. Then, Wu (2003) followed a contextual way in teaching collocations and the test was conducted again. At the end of the study, it was revealed that the learners were more able to both match the collocations in ‘verb+noun’ form, and use them actively in open-ended questions in a meaningful way.

Another study was made by Lee and Muncie (2006). They aimed to reveal the improvement in the production of target vocabulary. The study was applied to 59 secondary school ESL intermediate-level learners. As the procedure of the study, first, the students viewed a video of the 80-minute film in class. Then, they were given a cloze vocabulary test without the help of translators or dictionaries. After the test, the students read a text about the movie they watched. As the teacher read the text, she explained the relevant vocabulary, paying particular attention to target words and phrases. However, the teacher did not give an explicit explanation about the meanings of target words, but she gave instructions to elicit the meaning by negotiating with the

students. After elicitation, the teacher gave the same test again, and the students gained higher scores than the previous one. Moreover, the teacher conducted a writing activity in post-reading section. The students were asked to write a short paragraph about the end of movie. It was revealed that the students mostly used the words they learnt from the elicitation activity while reading.

Duin (1983) has also conducted the same study with Lee and Muncie (2006). He agreed on the idea that explicit vocabulary instruction to elicit meaning is important to achieve greater use of contextually appropriate words.

In Lee's (2003) study, he aimed to find out the effectiveness of teacher's instruction to make elicitation in vocabulary teaching and applying writing as a follow-up activity. It was found out that very few recognized vocabularies were used by the learners in writing without teacher's instruction. However, in the experimental group, most of the learners who worked cooperatively with the teacher to learn the vocabularies by inferring were able to use them correctly during writing.

The importance of making receptive vocabulary productive one is usually emphasized by the researchers (Arnaud and Savignon, 1997; Coady, 1997; Henriksen, 1999). Despite being very few, the relevant studies revealed that contextual vocabulary teaching can help learners to use the target words actively in productive skills, especially in writing. This can be achieved with the help of the teacher's instruction to make elicitation about the meaning of words. Therefore, learners will not only store the words as receptive ones, but also use them actively.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter concentrates on the way the research has been carried so as to focus on the relation between contextual vocabulary learning and using the words productively. Beginning by stating the purpose of the study based on the research questions, this chapter gives detailed information about the participants and the setting in which the study was pursued. Then, data collection and analysis procedures are identified.

3.2 Purpose of the Study

The present study aims to reveal that the words learned with contextual strategies instead of isolated ones are among the productive vocabulary knowledge of the learners. In other words, the learners are more likely to actively use the words they learn with the help of context. In addition, it is aimed to find out that contextual vocabulary learning helps learners to recall the words in the long term by eliminating the risk of short-term memorization. This study seeks to answer the following research question:

1. Does using contextual vocabulary learning strategies instead of isolated listing technique help learners to develop their productive vocabulary knowledge?

3.3 Setting and Participants

42 pre-intermediate level learners of English took part in the study as participants, 21 of them in experimental and 21 of them in control group. The students were attending the preparatory program of Bülent Ecevit University, which was previously called Zonguldak Karaelmas University during the implementation of this study. The study was conducted in the spring term of academic year 2011-2012.

All of the students were at the same proficiency level, which is granted by the Proficiency Exam that was administered at the beginning of the school year by the institution. These students had been receiving 28 hours of instruction on English language through the coursebook *Touchstone* (McCarthy, McCarten & Sandiford: 2009). The coursebook has four different levels, three of which are introduced to our students due to the targeted level at the end of the semester. Each book has 12 units which contain four modules. Each module focuses on certain skills. Lesson A and B aims to teach a new grammatical structure in a contextual and inductive way. Lesson C presents conversation strategies that the learners may encounter during daily speech. Lastly, Lesson D in every unit presents a reading text, vocabulary exercises and writing assignment related to the text, which has been used for this study. The coursebook mainly points out the importance of communication and using the target language contextually in teaching.

As for the background of the students, they generally graduated from regular High School Programs in different parts of Turkey. Most of them had received English instruction before they attended to the prep class at university. They were not proficient enough for the requirements of their departments, though; so, they had to attend to the preparatory program due to the regulations of the university.

The preparatory program contains 22 hours of main course in which all skills are handled based on the coursebook. There is no separate writing or reading course. Apart from the main course, students are supported with computer assisted laboratory classes for six hours. Learners are provided with online exercises including all skills following the new topics. In addition to the main course and lab classes, students have two hours of video course where they are totally exposed to daily conversation and they can find the chance to improve their skills with the help of exercises related to the videos.

3.4 Treatment and Data Collection

In line with the aim of this study, the quantitative research design was preferred. Students' coursebook was used for the reading texts as it includes various words to learn, in order to be successful in mid-term exams. The texts of the learners which were written as post-reading activity were the instruments of the present study as they were analyzed to see the rate of active words learnt by guessing.

The study was applied in two groups, namely experimental and control. The treatment of this study lasted for five weeks. Before the application process, the experimental group was trained about contextual vocabulary learning strategies and was supported with necessary contextual exercises for one week (See Appendix 1). The following part gives information about the steps adopted to guide the learners for inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words.

3.4.1 Training Learners for Contextual Guessing

As many researchers (Buikema and Graves, 1993; Clarke and Nation, 1980; Goerss et al., 1994; Walters, 2006) did in their studies, this study also focused on training learners about guessing strategy. For the training session of this study, Clarke and Nation's (1980) steps were mainly based on for the learners because they include a well-established synthesis of the others'.

The learners were firstly taught to consider the parts of speech of the unknown word. Clarke and Nation (1980, p. 212) defines this process with the sentence of "Who does what to whom?" For example, in the following sentence quoted from the reading text presented to the students,

Alicia released her first CD.

the verb "released" is unfamiliar to the students and it was among the words to infer from the context. The challenge for inference can be achieved with the help of the formula

Alicia	Verb	Her first CD
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Alicia did something about her first CD. Because that the CD's being the first one is highly emphasized here, the verb gives some kind of information which is related to being the first CD.

Such a way is not definitely enough to reveal the exact meaning of the word. However, it makes the learner familiar with the possible meanings of the words such as "make" or "let go" etc. Because the students cover its meaning with the help of a supporting phrase, "release the first CD", it will be harder for them to completely forget the meaning of that word.

Second, as Clarke and Nation's (1980) next step, the learners were trained about focusing on the grammar of the sentence. Cause and effect, condition, contrast, classification or exemplification can be based on to make inference. The following sentence is from another reading text presented to the students and involving an unknown word:

I got detention lots of time from the manager because I was late for school every morning.

This sentence contains a cause-effect relation and "get detention" was taken as an unknown word. The learners were provided the following strategy to guess:

There are two different clauses in the sentence which are bounded one another meaningfully. Since this involves a cause and effect relation and the unknown word is in the effect part of the sentence, it will be helpful to try to cover the meaning of the other clause, involving the cause. What do you get from the manager if you are always late for school? It is clear that it is something negative. The meaning can be "an angry sentence", "a written statement" or "a kind of warning" etc. All of these are sufficient for the understanding of what is tried to be given as a meaning in the context.

Third step for inference from the context is that the learners were trained about the sentences before and after the sentence that involves the unknown word. The semantic clues can be helpful to guess the meaning. This is expressed with the term of "wider context" by Clarke and Nation (1980). For example, in the following sentence taken from coursebook, the students were guided to infer the meaning by analyzing the proceeding sentence:

Actors can be very demanding, but not Matt Damon. He's extremely polite and easygoing.

“Demanding” was considered as unknown word in this sentence. The next sentence has a contrastive relation with the sentence of unknown word. This contrast helps to infer the meaning by considering the words “polite” and “easygoing”. In other words, it is clear that “demanding” means something opposite of “polite, easygoing”. It can be “rude”, “strict”, or “hard to please” etc. Thus, the following sentence is useful for the inference of unknown word.

As for the last two steps of Clarke and Nation (1980), the learners were asked to make guesses by mainly considering those three steps and check it. Checking was made by replacing the guessed word with the unknown one and re-reading the sentence in order to see whether it maintains the meaning or not.

During the treatment of the study, the learners were introduced to reading text and necessary background knowledge was assured as well as the warm-up procedure, in both groups. The texts were about *Ways to Relax*, *Teenage Years*, *Introducing Someone* and *Home Habits*. Later, the learners were asked to read the text and underline the unknown words at the same time. After reading, the learners were asked about the words they did not know. Because the proficiency of the learners was the same, the words both groups underlined were almost the same, too. In the experimental group the learners were encouraged to infer the meaning of the word from the context based on certain clues such as the parts of speech, the references, synonyms or antonyms in the text. Moreover, they were encouraged to learn those words in the way they encountered in context.

For instance, the first reading text was chosen from Touchstone 2. The title of the text was *Ways to Relax* and there were seven unknown vocabularies for all of the students. In the experimental group, the learners used guessing strategies to infer the meaning while the words were directly taught in learners' native language in the control group. One week after the comprehension of the text and teaching new words, both groups were asked to write a short paragraph about the “*Relaxation Techniques*” and their texts were analyzed whether they used the target words or not.

To exemplify, the students used certain strategies to guess the meaning of the word *extremely* from the text *Ways to Relax*. The text including that target word was:

“*If you are extremely tired, then it’s possible you are stressed.*” (Touchstone 2, 2010: 28)

On encountering this word, the students focused on the part of speech. As they already knew the meaning of *tired* and realized the suffix *-ly*, they could easily find out that it was an adverb. Later, as Clarke and Nation (1980) pointed out, the learners focused on the *If* clause and the following part of the sentence, which directed them to infer the meaning as *very* or *really*.

Another example to guess the meaning can be *varied* from the text *Teenage Years*. The text which included this word was:

“*What kind of music did you listen to?*

My tastes were varied- I was a classical violinist, but I listened to punk rock and new wave music.” (Touchstone 2, 2010: 50).

In this context, the students knew the meanings of *tastes*, *classical*, *punk*, *rock* and other words which point out that *varied* means something *different* or *several*. The strategy they used to guess the meaning was sentence level according to Bengueleil and Paribakht’s (2004) taxonomy. They made use of the sentence and clause giving a clue about the meaning of the word.

However, in the control group, the meanings of the words were directly maintained for the learners and they memorized those words with out-of context strategies. One week later the application of reading text, the learners were asked to write a short paragraph the topic of which is parallel with the one in their coursebook.

One week after the comprehension of the text and teaching new words, both groups were asked to write a short paragraph about the “*Relaxation Techniques*” and their texts were analyzed whether they used the target words or not.

3.5 Data Analysis

The data were analyzed by the researcher by looking into the writing texts produced by the students. The researcher found out how many of the words learnt from

context were used by the experimental group. Apart from the researcher, two independent researchers looked into the data collection and data analysis process. Moreover, the texts produced by the control group, the number of words they learnt out-of-context and memorized in isolated ways were also analyzed. Thus, the effectiveness of contextual vocabulary learning was aimed to be found out.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents information about the effectiveness of contextual vocabulary learning strategies on producing newly-learnt target words. There were 42 students at the same level, 21 in the experimental and 21 in the control group.

This study addressed the following question:

1. Does using contextual vocabulary learning strategies instead of isolated listing technique help learners to develop their productive vocabulary knowledge?

4.1 The Results

The data was analyzed with SPSS 15.0. In this context, descriptive statistical values were interpreted and a t-test was applied in order to see whether there was significant difference between the experimental and the control group.

In this study, the students were asked to write four different paragraphs related to the reading texts in which they encountered unknown words. “*Relaxation Techniques*”, “*Teenage Years*”, “*Introducing Someone*” and “*Home Habits*” were used as titles depending on the topics of the reading texts. The number of the target words to learn was 7 in “*Relaxation Techniques*” and “*Teenage Years*”, and 6 in “*Introducing Someone*” and “*Home Habits*”. The experimental group studied those words by using guessing strategy and contextual clues, whereas the control group studied them by

listing technique. Therefore, 26 target words stated in four different reading texts and produced in four paragraphs were analyzed by being evaluated as a scale. The validity of the scale was determined with the help of an expert. As for the reliability, Kuder Richardson-21 was calculated and found $KR-21=,86$.

4.2 Findings

4.2.1 Findings on the Frequency of the Words Used in the Study

Table 1 indicates that there is a significant difference between the experimental and the control group from the aspect of frequencies of the words, which is in favour of the experimental group. Depending on the teaching technique conducted with the experimental group, when the frequency of use was analyzed, the highest increase was found for the words “fluently”, “born and raised”, “get detention”, “sheet”, “varied” and “demanding”.

Table 4- Frequency of the Target Words

Word	Control Group (f)	Experimental Group (f)	Increase (f)
common	9	17	8
concentrate	13	20	7
Irritable	6	19	13
relaxation	6	19	13
extremely	6	16	10
Pamper	3	17	14
occasional	8	17	9
difficulty	10	19	9
be unsure of	4	16	12
Varied	0	17	17
fashion rebel	4	13	9

Anxiety	8	15	7
in trouble	5	18	13
get detention	1	19	18
born and raised	0	19	19
supportive	13	21	8
demanding	2	18	16
Fluently	0	20	20
Release	0	12	12
grooming	6	19	13
Sheet	2	19	17
throw away	9	16	7
turn off	11	17	6
alphabetize	0	13	13
Save	4	15	11
Neat	12	18	6

Note: f: The number of the students using the target words

4.2.2 The Findings of the Control and the Experimental Group for “Relaxation Techniques” Paragraph

According to Table 2, the frequency of 7 words used in “Relaxation Techniques” paragraph written as a post-activity is higher in the experimental group ($\bar{X}=5.95$) than the control one ($\bar{X}=2.47$).

Table 5- T-test Results of the Findings for “Relaxation Techniques” Paragraph of the Experimental and the Control Group

Groups	N	$\bar{X}$	SS	Sd	t	P
Control	21	2,4762	2,08852	20	-7,541	,000
Experimental	21	5,9524	,66904			

The mean difference due to the teaching technique conducted with the learners was found significant in favor of the experimental group ($t_{(20)}=-7.541$; $p<.001$).

4.2.3 The Findings of the Control and the Experimental Group for “Teenage Years” Paragraph

According to Table 3, the frequency of the words used by the experimental group ($\bar{X}=5.57$) is higher than that of used by the control group ($\bar{X}=1.52$).

Table 6- T-test Results of the Findings for “Teenage Years” Paragraph of the Experimental and the Control Group

Groups	N	$\bar{X}$	SS	Sd	t	p
Control	21	1,0000	,63246	20	-17,815	,000
Experimental	21	5,1905	,81358			

As a result of the t-test, the mean difference identified in favor of the experimental group was statistically found meaningful ($t_{(20)}=-17.815$; $p<.001$).

4.2.4 The Findings of the Control and the Experimental Group for “Introducing Someone” Paragraph

According to Table 4, the frequency of the words used by the experimental group for the task of “Introducing Someone” ($\bar{X}=5.19$) is higher than that of used by the control group ($\bar{X}=1.00$).

Table 7-T-test Results of the Findings for “Introducing Someone” Paragraph of the Experimental and the Control Group

Groups	N	$\bar{X}$	SS	Sd	t	P
Control	21	1,0000	,63246	20	-17,815	,000
Experimental	21	5,1905	,81358			

As a result of the t-test, the mean difference identified in favor of the experimental group was statistically found meaningful ($t_{(20)}=-17.815$; $p<.001$).

4.2.5 The Findings of the Control and the Experimental Group for “Home Habits” Paragraph

According to the data in Table 5, the frequency of 6 words in “Home Habits” task is higher in the experimental group ($\bar{X}=4.66$), than in the control group ($\bar{X}=1.80$).

Table 8- T-test Results of the Findings for “Home Habits” Text of the Experimental and the Control Group

Groups	N	$\bar{X}$	SS	Sd	t	p
Control	21	1,8095	1,12335	20	-10,954	,000
Experimental	21	4,6667	,79582			

4.2.6 Findings of the General Scale Scores of the Experimental and the Control Groups

In this section, the frequency of 26 target words used in 4 different texts was analyzed. According to Table 6, the frequency of target words are much higher in the experimental group ($\bar{X}=21.38$), than in the control group ($\bar{X}=6.80$).

Table 9-T-test Results of the Findings for General Scale Score of the Experimental and the Control Group

Groups	N	$\bar{X}$	SS	Sd	t	p
Control	21	6,8095	2,71328	20	-23,380	,000
Experimental	21	21,3810	1,85678			

4.3 Discussion of The Findings

Before focusing on the research question, it is better to discuss the effectiveness of contextual vocabulary learning strategies in language learning process. Because the texts that students produced clearly included the words they learnt by guessing strategy, it can be revealed that contextual vocabulary learning strategy is a beneficial way of developing vocabulary knowledge. This idea is also supported by most of the researchers who made classifications on vocabulary learning strategies (Cohen, 1987; Cook, 2001; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Hogben & Lawson, 1996; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 1997; Weaver & Cohen, 1997). Though each of them defines guessing technique under a different classification, all of them emphasize its importance in learning vocabulary.

With the help of the guessing strategy, the learners have the chance to see the unknown word in a written context which helps them to analyze it from many perspectives such as its meaning or grammatical form. This idea is also supported by Shokouhi and Askari (2010) who underline the importance of context with the study they pursued with 100 students and revealed that learning which occurs with contextual guessing strategy is more efficient and effective. In their study, they claim that “seeing the word in a written context can provide more syntactic, semantic and pragmatic information in creating a well-specified semantic representation.” (Shokouhi & Askari, 2010, pp. 85). That is, when the unknown words are encountered in a context, especially in a written one, it is much easier and more beneficial to find their meaning as the learner consider both their grammar such as parts of speech, and their alternative meanings (synonym, antonym etc.). Thus, it is essential for the learners to be instructed with contextual cues so that they can derive the meaning of unknown words. Clarke and Nation (1980) are also among the scholars who made a study on the effectiveness of contextual vocabulary learning instruction. On discovering that guessing is an important element in vocabulary development, they stated that “guessing meanings from context is a valuable one and is a useful prerequisite for other activities.”

During the application of this study, the students certainly had various difficulties while using guessing strategy, but they could be overcome with the help of training session and the guidance of teacher. One of them was considering only part of the context rather than the all of the cues available for them. They focused only on the sentence which involving the unknown word; however, considering the text as a whole

helped them to use any clue to infer the meaning. Another difficulty was that, sometimes, they could not understand the meaning of the sentence which had the unknown word. In such cases, the teacher helped the learners to comprehend the sentence in a better way by attracting their attention to key structures in the sentence.

Jenkins, Matlock and Slocum (1989) also looked into the effectiveness of strategy instruction on deriving word meanings from context. Their study came out that strategy training is an essential part for guessing technique. In Askov and Kamm's (1976) study the experimental group which was trained on paying attention to 'cause-effect' relation in the sentences to derive the meaning demonstrated more significant success than the control group which was given 'direct meaning'.

Although most of the studies show the effectiveness of contextual guessing instruction, Kuhn and Stahl (1998) came out with a different result. In their study, they gave instructions to the control group whereas the experimental group did repeated practices. In the end, they discovered that no difference was seen between 'treatment' and 'practice' groups. They claimed that "students benefit as much repeated practice opportunities as they do from specific instruction. In other words, even if the students are not given specific instruction about guessing strategy, they can be given the facility to implement it in different contexts. Therefore, either as practical or as theoretical, the students need to be intrigued with contextual vocabulary learning strategies.

As mentioned before, contextual vocabulary learning strategies help learners to develop their existing vocabulary knowledge. This idea is consistent with various researchers. In their study Nash and Snowling (2006) also found out "the context method was a more effective intervention programme than the definition method." Though they pursued their study with children, their results are in the same way as in the current study because children were able to derive and express more meanings from written context than those in the definitions group. Clarke and Nation (1980) also emphasize using context in vocabulary teaching in their article and present different ideas on how to use guessing technique to develop vocabulary knowledge.

Despite not being analyzed directly, the results of this study also show that the students learn and remember the words best with the help of guessing technique. Thus, it should be an indispensable part of vocabulary learning process. Instead of direct definitions of words, it is more efficient to use context and contextual cues while

learning vocabulary. Nattinger (1988; cited in Lawson & Hogben, 1996, pp. 106) state that “guessing vocabulary from context is the most frequent way we discover the meaning of new words”. Although various techniques are used to find out what a word means, guessing from context is the most common one. Moreover, Oxford and Scarcella (1994; cited in Lawson & Hogben, 1996, pp. 105) express that “By far the most useful vocabulary learning strategy is guessing from context”.

In addition to the classifications, the benefits of instructions and its importance on vocabulary development; contextual vocabulary learning techniques maintain better learning environments for the learners. The studies made by various Turkish researchers can be pointed as evidence to the effectiveness of guessing strategy from different perspectives (Kafes, 1998; Kulaç, 2011). Kafes (1998) put forward guessing strategy result in better scores in reading comprehension tests while Kulaç (2011) proved that it helped learners to be more motivated and have better attitudes towards reading comprehension texts.

There are plenty of studies that are not consistent with the results of the current study. Yılmaz (2007) compared two different vocabulary learning strategies: teacher-provided key word method and the context method. He studied with 84 elementary level students in order to find out which method is more effective. He divided the students into two groups, and trained one of them to use the context method, whereas the other one was guided by their teachers to use keyword method. At the end of the study it turned out that teacher-provided keyword method was more effective in learning new vocabulary items than the context method. This result may be inconsistency with the current study due to the level of the students. As stated in previous chapters, Clarke and Nation (1980) emphasized that it is important for the learners to have a certain amount of vocabulary knowledge; that is, to be at a considerable level at the target language.

Another study that is not compatible with the current one was made by Jenkins et al. (1989). They found teaching definitions are more effective than the context method, and claim that “when the teacher focused students’ attention on the meanings of specific words, the students were more likely to learn and retain the word meanings than when the teacher focused students’ attention on deriving those word meanings from sentence context” (Jenkins, Matlock & Slocum, 1989, pp. 228). Despite claiming the effectiveness of individual word meaning, they still teach the unknown word in a

context. They do not compare ‘definition method’ with ‘the context method’ alone. Therefore, context is still an essential part of teaching words, even not with guessing strategy.

Another opposing study was pursued by Sariçoban and Başibek (2012) to investigate the effects of using mnemonics technique providing some keywords to students and context method on the retention of the vocabulary items. They made their research with 84 upper-intermediate level of learners who were divided into two groups. One of the groups was trained about using contextual cues, whereas the other group was taught how to use mnemonics. At the end of the study, it turned out that mnemonics were more effective in teaching new words than the context method. This difference may be because of the individual differences that the learners bring to their learning environment (Başbay, 2008). Their previous learning experiences, background knowledge, learning styles, sex, intelligence or motivation are all factors affecting the learning process.

The research question of this study investigated the effects of contextual vocabulary learning strategies on developing productive vocabulary knowledge. In other words, the effectiveness of learning vocabulary in context instead of isolated form was evaluated in terms of its reflection on students’ writing skills as a part of productive language. The findings revealed that contextual vocabulary learning strategies helped learners to use what they learnt more actively rather than the memorizing the words by listing them. The learners who used guessing strategy were more integrated with the language learning and using process because they both employed an effective strategy and got the responsibility of their own learning process. The texts they wrote included more previously-unknown words.

The findings of this study showed a significant parallel with certain precedent studies (Duin, 1983; Lee, 2003; Lee & Muncie, 2006; Wu, 1996). The first related study was made by Duin (1983). He pursued a research with 50 fourth grade and 55 sixth grade students in order to find out the effect of elicitation on the correct usage of vocabulary. A pre-test narrative writing assignment, a 10-word vocabulary pretest and posttest, a vocabulary instructional booklet with teacher’s guide and a posttest narrative writing assignment were used as materials. As part of the study, the students in the experimental group learnt a set of 10-words by eliciting their meanings with the help of

explicit instruction of teacher. Those words were related to the topics of the posttest writing assignment. The results indicated that explicit vocabulary instruction to elicit meaning is significant for the correct usage of the words during writing. In other words, it came out that if the learners use guessing or inferring technique for the unknown words, they are more able to use those words in cloze tests or sentence completion.

Another research that supports the findings of this study was made by Lee and Muncie (2006). Their study was applied to 59 secondary school ESL intermediate-level learners in order to reveal the improvement in the production of target vocabulary. As the procedure of this study, firstly, the students watched an 80-minute scene of a movie in class. Then, a cloze vocabulary test about the words in the scene was given to them. During the test, they were not allowed to use any translators or dictionaries. Following the test, the students were presented a text about the movie they watched. As the teacher read the text, she explained the relevant vocabulary, paying particular attention to target words and phrases involved in the first cloze vocabulary test. However, she did not give the meaning of the words directly, but gave instructions for the learners to elicit the meanings of the target words. After the elicitation, the students were given the same vocabulary test again, and they got higher scores. The effect of this technique from the productive aspect was evaluated by assigning a writing activity to the learners in the post-reading section. The learners were asked to write a short paragraph about the end of the movie. This activity came out with the result that the students mostly used the words they learnt from the elicitation activity while reading, which supports the findings of the current study.

Moreover, Lee (2003) aimed to find out vocabulary use in writing of 65 secondary school intermediate ESL learners. The learners were presented a reading text about bull fighting. Later on, they were asked to write a composition entitled “A Cruel Sport”. This was a pre-test writing assignment which involved only 13.19% of target vocabulary as active. This assignment was followed by the instruction of inference technique after which productive usage increased significantly to 63.62%. Therefore, the point that is in common with the current study is that very few recognized words were used by the learners in writing without teacher’s instruction. However, the group working with teacher cooperatively for guessing strategy managed to use the words correctly in their writing.

A different aspect of learning and using words with the help of guessing technique was approached by Wu (1996). He studied on the importance of context in teaching collocations. First, the learners were presented a monolingual completion test in order to survey their collocational competence. It was clear that most of them had difficulty in choosing the correct combination. However, his study revealed that “specialized user-friendly collocational dictionaries for encoding functions are more helpful in teaching collocations rather than general-purpose ones” (Wu, 1996). Therefore, the learners succeeded in both matching the collocations in ‘verb+noun’ form and use them actively in open-ended questions in a meaningful way.

As Nagy (cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 1997) pointed out training learners for contextual vocabulary learning strategy leads learners to make conscious attempts to derive the meaning of an unknown word from the context and to have conscious control over cognitive resources. In addition, Schmitt (2000) stated that guessing the meaning of an unknown word is a useful strategy and regarded as a key vocabulary learning skill. This study came up with the result that training learners about how to use contextual strategies is an essential issue to develop vocabulary knowledge. In the studies applied in various geographical and cultural settings, the students were successful in using guessing strategy as long as they were trained. To illustrate, in their studies, Buikema and Graves (1993) Clarke and Nation (1980), Goerss et al. (1994), and Walters (2006) underlined the importance of training students about contextual guessing strategies in developing vocabulary knowledge. The common point of these studies with the current one is that all of them trained the students and gave significant information about the ways of guessing the meaning of unknown words from the context. At the end of their studies, the majority of the learners were able to infer the meaning of unknown words.

Despite not being totally the same of the current study, Buikema and Graves (1993) also made a research to see the benefits of guessing strategy. However, they studied with different group of participants. They applied their study with children. Buikema, a high school teacher, developed a 5-day-program aiming to teach learners using context clues. She began with word riddles to help her students infer the meaning of unknown words from context. With the test they applied, Buikeman and Graves (1993) found out that the words were learnt more effectively by guessing strategy rather than incidental learning, which supports the results of current study.

What Goerss et al.'s (1994) has in common with the current study is that they followed a training program for the learners to teach guessing strategies. The learners were given a reading text with unfamiliar words. After giving the guidelines, they were asked to use context clues and think-aloud about the meaning of the unknown words. What was focused on here is that the learners were taught to derive possible meanings rather than the exact ones. In other words, it was not necessary to get the full meaning, but to get what information is tried to be conveyed. As a result, they found growth in learning from context among the students they worked with.

This study is mostly based on Clarke and Nation's (1980) due to training, which tried to find out the effectiveness of certain steps on guessing strategy. They defined five steps in order to train learners about inference: (1) determining the parts of speech, (2) focusing on the grammar of the sentence, (3) focusing on the sentence before and after the sentence with the unfamiliar word, (4) making a guess and (5) checking the guess. They found out that as long as the level of the learners is appropriate, they are able to infer the meaning of unknown words successfully using those steps.

The study Walters (2006) pursued shows a significant parallelism with the current study from the aspect of revealing students' ability to infer the meaning from context and reading comprehension. That study looked at three training conditions with 44 ESL learners as participants: training participants to use a general strategy for inferring meaning when encountered unknown words during reading; training participants to recognize and interpret specific context clues in order to reveal the meaning of unknown word; and providing practice opportunities with cloze exercises followed by feedback. The learners were trained about the strategy presented by Clarke and Nation (1980), which was described above. Following Clarke and Nation's (1980) strategy, the learners were trained about contextual clues such as parts of speech, contrasting words, conjunctions, grouping, examples, pronouns etc. That these steps were also followed in the current study is another common point with Walter's (2006) study. As a result of the study, it came out that strategy instructions and training on contextual clues helped learners to infer the meaning of unfamiliar word from the context. What is different from the current study is that the participants of Walter's (2006) study were asked to complete cloze exercises after each training session, while, in the current study, the participants were asked to write a new paragraph as a post-reading activity. This is because of the difference in the aims of both studies. However,

despite not clearly stated, Walter's (2006) study also shows the ability to produce the unknown words learnt by contextual inferring because cloze exercises are among the productive language skills. Thus, what is tried to be claimed with this study is also supported by Walter's (2006) study.

Another common point of this study with the previous ones is contextual vocabulary learning strategies help learners to develop their vocabulary knowledge. Walters (2006) found out that three experimental groups which used contextual guessing strategy were more successful in vocabulary test than the control group which used its own memorizing strategy. In addition, Shokouhi and Askari (2010) made a research on two groups as teaching vocabulary 'in context' and 'out-of context'. The results showed that the group that learnt the words 'in context' was more successful than the 'out-of context' group. Another study pursued by Jenkins, Matlock and Slocum (1989) also revealed that the group given instruction about contextual vocabulary learning strategies performed better in post-test than the one receiving individual word explanation.

Lastly, though it was not among the target research topics, this study also showed that guessing strategy helps learners to become more autonomous. In other words, the learners become more integrated with the language learning process, get their own responsibility to learn the unknown words and overcome the challenge. Thus, they are also able to develop metacognitive skills, which lead them to find their own ways in learning vocabulary. This result is also supported by Prince (1996) who states that training learners to employ metacognitive strategies as well as the contextual inferencing ones is of paramount importance in helping them to make successful derivations.

When analyzed in detail, the studies stated in literature show parallelism in certain points with the current study. The first point supported by previous studies (Buikema & Grave, 1994; Clarke & Nation, 1980; Goerss & et. al., 1994; Watson, 2006) is that training learners about contextual guessing strategy is a significant part of inference technique. When the learners are trained about those strategies, such as contextual clues, grammatical cues, sentences related to the sentence involving the unknown word etc. they achieve the first step of gaining the ability to being familiar to the unknown words. Another point supported by previous researchers (Duin, 1983; Lee,

2003; Lee & Muncie, 2006; Wu, 1996) is that when the learners gain the ability to infer the meaning of unknown words, they are able to use them actively in the target language. In other words, they do not only receive those words, but also produce them. This is because they do not memorize the meanings, but learn them. Thus, they can actively use these words in the productive skills of the language such as writing or speaking.

The results of this study aim to make language teachers and instructors bring a new aspect in vocabulary teaching and using actively. It also offers suggestions to improve pedagogical implications.

4.4 Conclusion

Considering the overall results, the frequency of the target words in the paragraphs was found much higher in the experimental group than the control group. In addition, those findings were evaluated significantly ($t_{(20)}=-23.380$; $p<.001$). As a result of this evaluation, it can be concluded that it is more effective to use contextual vocabulary learning strategies to learn new words and use them actively, as in the experimental group.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the study, discussion and implications for practice and further research.

5.1 Summary of the Study

This study was applied in order to find out the effectiveness of contextual vocabulary learning strategies on developing productive vocabulary knowledge. In other words, vocabulary learnt by guessing from context based on certain clues is more helpful while using the language actively such as in writing.

The study was conducted with 40 students, 20 for experimental and 20 for control group. The experimental group was trained about guessing strategies and encouraged to use them during reading activities whereas the control group learnt the unknown words by listing method. At the end of each reading text, both groups were asked to write a short paragraph as a post-reading activity about the topic of the text. To illustrate, the learners were asked to write a text about their teenage life after reading a paragraph about the life of a teenager. On analyzed their texts, it was easily recognized that the experimental group was more effective in using the words learnt by guessing strategies. However, the control group was less successful while using the same words as they learnt by memorizing.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

The results of this study suggest that developing productive vocabulary knowledge depends on using contextual vocabulary learning strategies. It has been proved that listing technique leads failure in using the words actively in writing, whereas guessing or inference technique makes students learn the vocabulary more effectively, which helps to use them in productive skills.

In order to help foreign language learners to use their vocabulary knowledge actively in the best way, the use of contextual vocabulary learning strategies needs to be emphasized. Students should be trained about how to guess the meaning of an unknown word based on certain contextual clues. As mentioned in the previous chapter, contextual clues include synonyms, antonyms, paraphrasing, parts of speech etc. Thus, the students should be helped about finding those clues such and using them to infer the meaning of the unknown word.

There may be some situations in which learners may have difficulty in adopting guessing technique. In such cases, teachers need to consider the individual differences and integrate the guessing strategy with different techniques, if necessary. As Zaid (2009) stated, learners need to deal with the unknown words in natural context, whereas direct instruction does still have considerable effects on students' vocabulary learning. Therefore, sometimes, it may be necessary to combine both strategies, by teaching the words individually and practicing it in example sentences or excerpts from readings.

During the implementation of contextual vocabulary learning strategies, the teacher's role should only be a guide for students. After the learners are trained about how to guess the meaning, they should be given the responsibility to learn the words. Therefore, they become more autonomous and motivated towards reading texts. They do not feel any anxiety about comprehension or unknown words. The teacher may answer the questions about the use of strategy, help them to realize clues when they get stuck, but never give the correct meaning.

Learners mostly complain about knowing all types of vocabulary, but not being able to use them actively in speaking or writing process. This is because they do not actually learn the words, but memorize them. While memorizing, they use listing technique in which native language translations are written as an explanation of

unknown word. However, if the learners use contextual vocabulary learning strategies, they can produce the words more effectively in writing or speaking. Because those strategies help learners to see in what context the words are used. Thus, when it is their turn, the students put the correct word into correct place in a sentence and are able to express what they mean. Contextual vocabulary learning strategies lead students to learn the words instead of memorizing, thus use them actively in another context.

What this study emphasizes is that although foreign language learners develop different ways to learn new vocabulary items, they perform much better in their active usage if they learn those words with guessing technique. On the other hand, the learners preferring to use listing technique to learn any vocabulary item fail to use it actively during writing or speaking as they memorize instead of learning. Guessing or inference technique, namely contextual vocabulary learning strategies enable learners to discover the meaning of an unknown word and realize how it is used in a context. This leads the learners not only to learn how to deal with unknown words in a text but also to use them meaningfully in a context. Therefore, foreign language learners need to be trained about how to see contextual clues such as synonyms, antonyms, parts of speech etc. and encouraged to use them in order to reveal the meaning of unknown vocabulary. The study clearly shows that using contextual clues to infer the meaning of an unknown word helps the learners to comprehend and use it actively. After maintaining the correct and efficient ways of guessing technique, the learners need to be taught how to use their existing vocabulary knowledge in their writings. Lee (2003, p. 551) states that ESL learners have to be shown how to use their store of recognition vocabulary and new vocabulary in a production task, and how lexical variation affect the quality of their writing.

In sum, the relationship between contextual vocabulary learning strategies and students' success in developing productive vocabulary knowledge has clearly emerged in this study. The results indicated the effectiveness of guessing technique on using those words actively in writing. Furthermore, considering the success gained through the use of contextual vocabulary learning strategies, it came out that the learners develop autonomy in language learning process. They can focus on the unknown vocabulary, adopt the strategy, infer the meaning and use it in appropriate context to practice. Another point is that the more learners are able to deal with the unknown words, the less anxiety and the more motivation they feel towards the texts and learning

vocabulary which is a challenging process in language learning to communicate in a written or spoken way. On the contrary, the students who are lacking necessary vocabulary knowledge feel anxious towards language learning process because they cannot easily express themselves in target language. When they try to learn the words in a traditional method, listing technique, they memorize and forget easily, which distracts them from learning the language. They fail in communication due to not being able to use the correct words. Therefore, the students should be trained and encouraged to learn contextual vocabulary learning strategies to develop their productive vocabulary knowledge.

If we do not consider the productive side of guessing strategy, it is still beneficial for learners in their language learning process. To illustrate, Honeyfield (1977) claims there is insufficient time to teach all vocabulary necessary for reading. The ability to guess the meaning of unknown words from context helps learners to develop their vocabulary knowledge and do more extensive reading for language learning.

Moreover, despite its advantageous sides, looking up dictionary for unknown words is a time-consuming way of learning. However, guessing strategy saves time and allows learners to continue reading without interruption. Therefore, students should be fostered to use guessing strategy where possible during reading. This will also help them to develop reading efficacy (Clarke & Nation, 1980).

Another benefit of contextual guessing strategy on reading was underlined by a Turkish researcher (İstifçi, 2009). High level students can be trained about inferring strategies, which can be assured by giving reading strategy training. According to Kern (1989), middle and high ability readers are more able than low ability readers in inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words, and it is better to teach them word derivations and contextual inference than to teach them long lists of vocabulary items. Thus, the learners can be maintained different authentic materials to read and guess the meaning of unknown words in these texts which also have the motivating effect in the classroom (Shokouhi & Askari, 2010, p. 87).

Lastly, textbook designers should consider the result of this study and avoid providing glossary for students for each vocabulary item. Some words need to be presented in reading texts with necessary contextual cues so that students will make use

of contextual vocabulary learning strategies. If the text is a misleading one for the target words or does not contain necessary contextual clues for the learners, the teacher should provide supplementary tasks or contexts involving those words.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Study

This study is not, however, without limitations. First, it is hard to generalize the data due to the limited number of participants to the study. This study was applied to 40 foreign language learners, 20 for the experimental and 20 for the control group. Thus, the number of the participants could be increased in order to get a more generalized result.

Moreover, that study was an experimental one. The attitudes of the students were ignored during the research. Thus, further research can be followed to collect the data by interviews, think aloud process and diaries.

Lastly, more attention could be paid on individual differences. The factors influencing language learning process as individual differences can be culture, age, gender, background knowledge or motivation. Therefore, such variables could give more effective result, which helps teachers to realize the benefits of contextual vocabulary learning strategies from different perspectives.

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APPENDIX 1

STRATEGY TRAINING MATERIALS (FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP): CONTEXT CLUES SHEET

Name:

Date:

Guessing the meaning of new vocabulary

No one knows all the words they come across. Even native speakers often find unknown words. Of course, as you build your vocabulary, you will know more words. However, you can still deal with the words that you do not know when you encounter them in a reading text or in any context. There are several ways to figure out words you do not know. There are several ways to find the meaning of words you don't know, such as looking them up in a dictionary, or using the context.

Using the context means looking at the sentence or the paragraph around the unknown word. Below are the steps to follow while trying to deal with an unknown word.

Step 1 – Decide what part of speech the unknown word is. This will help you to make sure your guess is the right kind of word.

Step 2 – Look at the grammar of the sentence. This will help you to decide how important the word is, and what its job is in the sentence. It will also help you to use the other words in the sentence to make guesses about the unknown word.

Step 3 – Look at the sentences before and after the sentence with the unknown word. Pay attention to important words.

Step 4 – Make a guess about what the unknown word means, or a substitute word for the unknown word.

Step 5 – Check your guess –

- Is it the right part of speech?
- Substitute your guess into the sentence – does it make logical sense?

Remember, if you use the strategy consistently, it will become faster and more

automatic, and you will get better at it! Don't be afraid to check your guess in the dictionary, to check how well you are using the strategy. You don't have to find the exact meaning of the unknown words all the time, it is OK if you have an idea about the word that helps you understand the sentence or text.

Here are several context clues that you can use to guess the meaning of new words.

- 1) Even if you can't understand the word, sometimes you can understand the rest of the sentence.

Example: The man ran **snorkily** to the hill, and then ran down the other side.

What does *snorkily* mean?

(See hint 1)

- 2) You can guess the meaning of the word from the other words in the sentence, or from the sentences before and after.

Example: I climbed up on the horse and sat on the **saddle** and then picked up the **reins**. We started to ride.

What do *saddle* and *reins* mean?

(See hint 2)

- 3) You can find a definition of the word within the sentence itself. The explanation might follow a comma (,), or a dash (-) after the unknown word.

Example: when she fell, she broke her **ulna**, a bone in her arm.

What does *ulna* mean?

(See hint 3)

- 4) You can also look for an explanation or paraphrase of what was said before in different words. The paraphrase may be signaled by words like 'that is, i.e., in other words, like' or by punctuation marks such as commas (,) and dashes (-).

Example: Light and dark are **antonyms**. In other words, they tell just the opposite of each other.

What does *antonym* mean?

(See hint 4)

- 5) It is also possible to find examples which help us understand the meaning of an unknown word. The examples may come after words like ‘e.g., such as, like, for example, for instance’.

Example: The **mass media**, such as radios, televisions and newspapers, have a powerful influence on people.

What does *mass media* mean?

(See hint 5)

- 6) You can guess the meaning of an unknown word with the help of antonyms given in the passage.

Example: She is **conscientious**, not lazy!

What does *conscientious* mean?

(See hint 6)

- 7) Synonyms of the words are also other ways that can help you guess the meaning of an unknown word.

Example: Gary is being paid more than \$400,000 **per annum**. This yearly salary allows him to live very well.

What does *per annum* mean?

(See hint 7)

- 8) Your knowledge of cause and effect is useful in helping you understand words that you do not know. Words used to indicate this type of clues: as a result, as a consequence, so, so that, therefore.

Example: When the car speeds up or slows down, the needle of the car speedometer **oscillates**.

What does *oscillate* mean?

(See hint 8)

- 9) A writer might also contrast the word that you do not know with a word or idea that you already know. In that case, since you can see the opposite of what the word means, you can guess what the word means. You may see the following phrases: unlike, on the other hand, by contrast, but, however, on the contrary, although, while, yet.

Example: At first, our problems seemed **insurmountable**. However, now I think we'll be able to find solutions.

What does *insurmountable* mean?

(See hint 9)

- 10) In some cases, the purpose or use of an object is mentioned to tell you what the object is.

Example: I used a **cherry pitter** to remove the seeds from the cherries.

What does *cherry pitter* mean?

(See hint 10)

- 11) You can guess the meaning of words by using the relationships of the words around it.

Example: After the heavy rain, the ground was **saturated** with water.

What does *saturated* mean?

(See hint 11)

12) You can see a word you know inside the unknown word.

Example: The shop sells expensive **underwear**.

What does *underwear* mean?

(See hint 12)

13) The prefixes and suffixes can help you figure out the meaning of an unfamiliar word.

Example: The students were **uncontrollable**.

What does *uncontrollable* mean?

(See hint 13)

EXERCISES

A. Guess the meaning of the underlined words in the sentences below. Use contextual clues to help you.

- 1) The housebreaker broke into the house while the man and his family were sleeping. He stole a videotape recorder and some silver.

Guess: _____

- 2) Bill swapped seats with his twin, who is also a student in the same class, but the teacher noticed the change because one boy was taller than the other.

Guess: _____

- 3) In every story there are details. They may be important or unimportant but people usually pay more attention to the significant details.

Guess: _____

- 4) Soviet government told the musician that he was not a Soviet citizen anymore and must leave the country. The Soviet action to banish him from the country hurt him a lot.

Guess: _____

B. Guess the meaning of the underlined words below. Select the best possibility for each.

1. If a driver does not obey traffic rules, he may be fined up to a hundred dollars or even may be sent to prison.
 - a. pay money as a punishment
 - b. sent to prison
 - c. feel good

2. The farmers could not track down the reason why so many of their animals died.
 - a. help
 - b. find
 - c. waste time

3. They could not drink the water from the pool because it was contaminated.
 - a. not clean enough to drink
 - b. thirsty
 - c. clean

4. When Hamilton suggested that the government should establish a national bank, Jefferson objected. He said the government had no power to set up a bank.
 - a. did not say anything
 - b. disagreed
 - c. agreed

5. Ms. Aaron showed a lot of strength after her daughter died. Everyone admired her fortitude.
 - a. sadness
 - b. courage
 - c. appearance

6. Most Americans are monolingual, but I don't think that's good. Everyone should learn a second language.
- a. speaking one language
 - b. very quiet
 - c. happy
7. Though the artist has died, her art will be immortal.
- a. forgotten
 - b. beautiful
 - c. eternal
8. The writing style I used in my report was too colloquial, so my boss asked me to write it in a more formal manner.
- a. casual
 - b. repeating too much
 - c. unusual
9. The journey across the mountains was perilous, so several people were killed.
- a. long
 - b. unnecessary
 - c. dangerous
10. After his long illness, Dave was so frail that he could hardly get out of bed.
- a. fearful
 - b. weak
 - c. unhappy

APPENDIX 2

STRATEGY TRAINING MATERIALS (FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP): HINTS SHEET

Hints for guessing vocabulary

Hint 1: In this sentence *snorkily* is an unknown word (it is not a real word). You can see it is probably an adverb because it follows a verb (ran) and ends in –ily, but you don't know what it means. However, you don't have to know what it means to understand the idea of the sentence. Keep reading the rest of the passage and come back to the word when you have finished. Remember, you don't have to understand every word to understand the meaning of a passage.

Hint 2: From the sentence you can see that a *saddle* is a noun because it follows the word 'the'. Also you can say it is something that we can sit on, and it is on a horse. From this you can guess that saddle is the seat on a horse. *Reins* is more difficult. Again, you know it is a noun because it follows the word 'the'. It ends in –s so probably it is plural. You can tell from the sentence that they are something that you can pick up; they are probably connected to a horse. After the person picks them up, he/she can start to ride the horse, so you can guess they are pieces of rope or leather used to control a horse.

Hint 3: A writer might give the definition of a difficult word in the passage itself, so you can look for a definition right after a word you do not know. In this sentence, although *ulna* is an unfamiliar word for you, you can understand that it is a kind of bone in the arm from the definition followed by the comma.

Hint 4: In this sentence, *antonym* is the unknown word, but the phrase 'in other words' tells us that an explanation is going to be made about this unknown words. As you read through the explanation, you understand that antonym is a term which means the opposite meaning of a word.

Hint 5: *Mass media* is the new word here. After this unknown word, there is a phrase 'such as' which signals that an example will be given. The examples are newspapers, televisions, and radios. Based on the example, you can think that these are the organizations that provide information or news for people.

Hint 6: When you look at the sentence, you can understand that *conscientious* is an adjective because it describes a noun (she). Also, following the first part of the sentence, you can see the word ‘lazy’ which is a familiar word to you. If she is not lazy, you can guess that she is hardworking, so *conscientious* means hardworking.

Hint 7: When you read the first sentence, you can understand that *per annum* gives information about the time or frequency of Gary’s earning, however it is not so clear. After reading the second sentence, you can understand it clearly because its synonym is given.

Hint 8: By looking at the sentence, you can first understand that the unknown word *oscillate* is a verb because the clause has a subject (the needle of the speedometer) and it needs a verb. Also, it has the suffix –s which tells you that the verb is in the present tense. When you try to guess the meaning of the word, you can think about the needle of the speedometer and what happens to it when the car speeds up and slows down. As a result, you can see that *oscillate* means to fluctuate, to move back and forth.

Hint 9: First, you can guess the part of speech of the unknown word *insurmountable*. It is an adjective because it describes a noun (our problems). Then, you can look at the second sentence. In this second sentence, the transition ‘however’ tells us something contrasting with the unknown word. The sentence after ‘however’ says that it is possible to find solutions to the problems, so *insurmountable* must be something with an opposite meaning. You can say that it is something that cannot be solved.

Hint 10: In this sentence, you can easily identify the word *cherry pitter* as a noun because it is used as the object of the sentence, and there is ‘a’ before it. After that, you can look at the part starting with ‘to’. It tells us the purpose of the object and we can infer that it is something that can be used to remove the seeds of something.

Hint 11: The part of speech of the unknown word *saturated* is easy to identify here. It describes the ground (a noun) after the rain, so using your knowledge about the rain, and the possible situation of the ground after the rain, you can guess that *saturated* means wet.

Hint 12: In this sentence, you know that *underwear* is a noun because it follows an adjective (expensive). You also know that it is something that a shop sells, and that it can be expensive. Look at the word underwear carefully. It contains two words *under*

and *wear*. From this you can guess that it is something that you wear, and it is something that goes under, so you can infer that *underwear* is the clothes you wear under other clothes.

Hint 13: If you look at *uncontrollable* carefully, you can see the word *control* inside which is probably familiar to you. After *control*, you can see the suffix *-able*, which means “able to”, so *controllable* means “able to be controlled”. Then, you can see the prefix *-un*, which means “not” or “the opposite meaning”, so you know that *uncontrollable* means “can’t be controlled”.

APPENDIX 3

THE FIRST READING TEXT

Lesson D

Ways to relax

1 Reading

A Do you ever get stressed? How do you feel when that happens? Check (✓) the boxes and add ideas. Then tell the class.

I get stressed when ...

- | | |
|---|---|
| ☐ I'm studying for an exam. | ☐ I have a deadline. |
| ☐ I'm late for an appointment. | ☐ _____. |
| ☐ I have no money. | ☐ _____. |

When I'm stressed, I ...

- | |
|--|
| ☐ feel tired and irritable. |
| ☐ get a headache. |
| ☐ _____. |

B Read the leaflet. What do you learn about stress? Are any of your ideas mentioned?

COMMON QUESTIONS ABOUT STRESS

Am I stressed?

- If you can't sleep well or can't concentrate, ...
- If you feel depressed or want to cry a lot, ...
- If you have a headache or an upset stomach, ...
- If you can't relax and you feel irritable, ...
- If you are extremely tired, ...
- ... then it's possible you are stressed.



Is stress bad for me?

Occasional stress is common and can be good for you. However, if you feel stressed for a long time, it can be serious. Stress can make you sick. It can also affect your memory or concentration, so work or study is difficult.

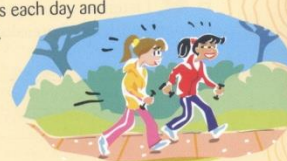
What can I do?

Fortunately, there's a lot you can do. Try some of these relaxation techniques. If you still feel stressed, make an appointment to see your doctor.

RELAXATION TECHNIQUES

1 Breathe Take a breath, hold it for four seconds, and then breathe out very slowly. Feel your body relax.

2 Exercise Walk or exercise for just 30 minutes each day and feel better.



3 Talk Call a friend. Talk about your problems.

4 Meditate Close your eyes and focus on something calm. Feel relaxed.

5 Pamper yourself

Take a hot bath, or have a massage.



6 Do something you enjoy Listen to music. Sing. Watch TV. Meet a friend.

Department of Health – "Take care of yourself."

APPENDIX 4

WRITINGS ON "WAYS TO RELAX" AS A POST-READING ACTIVITY
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

I don't study at night. Because I can't concentrate. So I study morning. If I don't extremely study I feel irritable. I can't relax and I get stressed. When I feel really stressed, I go shopping and extremely eat fast-food. Stress can make me sick so study is difficult. All students have occasional stress. If I get stressed, I try relaxation techniques. For example; I do exercise I call a friend and talk her. When I very study, I pamper myself. I listen to music I meet friends. I do enjoy something.

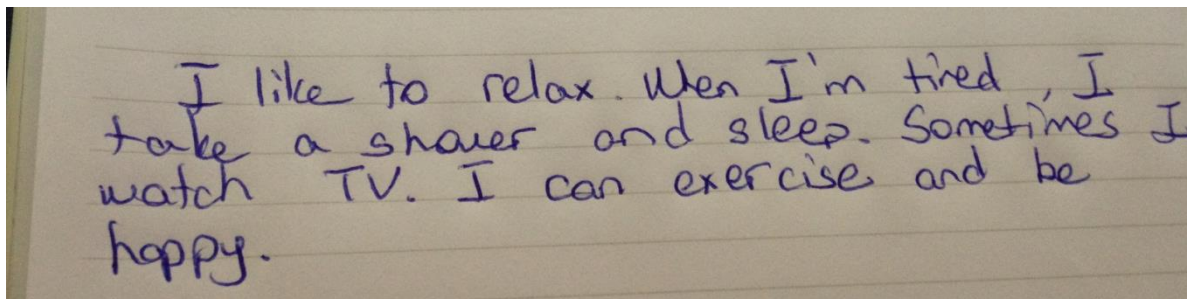
- common -

Duygu EKER

I have a big problem. I'm feeling stressed these days. Occasional stress is common nowadays. Because, everyone need to study exams. Exams are difficult. I don't get to concentrate. So, I feel irritable. My friend told me relaxation techniques. For example, When I feel stressed, I shouldn't study. I should have a rest, I should listen to music. I should have fun. Pamper myself.

Berna Aslan

- extremely -

APPENDIX 5**WRITING ON “WAYS TO RELAX” AS A POST-READING ACTIVITY
(CONTROL GROUP)**

APPENDIX 6

THE SECOND READING TEXT

Lesson D **Teenage years**

1 Reading

A Brainstorm the word *teenager*! What do you think of? Make a class list.

teenager: parties, loud music, fights with parents

B Read the interview. Which of Jennifer's answers are funny? Which are interesting?

AN INTERVIEW WITH ...
Jennifer Wilkin



Jennifer works
in publishing.
We asked her about
her memories of
being a teenager.

Did you enjoy being a teenager?

It was mostly OK, but I had some difficulties, like everyone else. When you're a teenager, you're unsure of yourself.

What were the fashions then?

I was a teenager in the '80s, and so the clothes were very colorful. I was a fashion rebel, though – I always wore black, and I wore a lot of cheap silver jewelry. Often I wore vintage clothing.

What kind of music did you listen to?

My tastes were varied – I was a classical violinist, but I listened to punk rock and new wave music. I had all my "weird" cassette tapes, and I was never without them.

- **What's your best memory from your teenage years?**
- I guess it was a trip I took every summer with my youth group. It was a time to travel, be with close friends, and be away from my parents.
- **And your worst?**
- I think going to school was the worst. I'm not a social type, and it gave me all kinds of anxiety.
- **What's one thing you remember about school?**
- I remember that everybody tried to be different, but they tried to be the same, also.
- **What was your favorite subject?**
- My favorite subject was psychology. I loved analyzing my friends.
- **Were you ever in trouble? Why?**
- I got detention lots of times because I was late for school every morning, but I never got in real trouble.
- **How did you spend your free time?**
- Actually, I spent a lot of time driving around in friends' cars (honking at) people's houses as we drove by. I also spent time reading, playing with my dog and cat, or tormenting my younger sister.
- **What do you miss about your teenage days?**
- NOTHING! Except my jeans size.
- **What's one piece of advice you would give to today's teenagers?**
- Get off your computer, and turn off the TV!

APPENDIX 7

WRITINGS ON "TEENAGE YEARS" AS A POST-READING ACTIVITY

(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

When I went to school, I had some difficulties. All students wear uniform in my school. Uniform is fashion. Everyone likes to wear uniform. But I had to wear uniform. I was a fashion rebel. I wore varied clothes. So I had anxiety with my teacher. One day, I was in trouble. I got detention lots of times. Because I didn't wear uniform.

Duygu EKER
D-11 :))

I had a lot of difficulties when I was ^(child) child so I wasn't lucky. They are a lot of varied people and I wasn't unsure of choosing for my character. Actually I wanted to be doctor but I got detention when I went to college because I had a lot of difficulties when I was child and so I was in trouble.

Murat Akdagul
D-11.

APPENDIX 8

WRITINGS ON "TEENAGE YEARS" AS A POST-READING ACTIVITY
(CONTROL GROUP)

Teenage years

Teenage years the most fun in my life
I was playing volleyball and tennis
I had alot of toys especially I loved
pink bear. I loved walk around. I loved
animals. I hated cat. I hated
chocolate

Ebru GELİK

Teenage Years

I used to love playing volleyball.
My sister used to tease my humour.
All my cousin used to come over for Saturday.
I grew up in a extended family.
I used to be afraid of the dark.

Yeliz Döğücü.

APPENDIX 9

THE THIRD READING TEXT

Lesson D *Little-known facts*

1 Reading

A Do you know an interesting fact about a famous person? Tell the class.

B Read the biographies. Which fact do you think is most interesting about each person?

Five things you didn't know about . . .

1 Alicia Keys

Pianist and singer-songwriter

1. Alicia Keys was born and raised in New York City.
2. She started playing the piano at the age of five. Her mother was very supportive and always encouraged Alicia to continue playing.
3. She got excellent grades in high school and graduated at the age of 16.
4. A versatile performer, Alicia released her first CD when she was 19. She wrote one song on the CD when she was 14.
5. Her secret talent? She's good at swimming.



2 Matt Damon

Actor and screenwriter

1. Actors can be demanding, but not Matt Damon. He's extremely polite and easygoing.
2. He's really smart. He studied English literature at Harvard University but left school to become an actor.
3. He writes well. He wrote the screenplay *Good Will Hunting* with his friend Ben Affleck, and they both starred in the film.
4. He (and Affleck) won an Academy Award for this screenplay.
5. He doesn't like to drive.



3 Alex Rodriguez

Baseball player, New York Yankees

1. Alex Rodriguez was born in New York City, but he lived in the Dominican Republic for four years and learned to play baseball there.
2. He's a fantastic athlete but also very humble. Everyone agrees — he's a really nice guy!
3. He's generous with his time and money. He created an educational program called Grand Slam for Kids to help children improve their academic skills.
4. He loves to shop for nice clothes. Armani is his favorite designer.
5. He has impeccable grooming habits. He gets a haircut every ten days, and has a manicure and pedicure every month.



4 Lucy Liu

Actor and artist

1. A native New Yorker, Lucy Liu has a degree in Asian languages and speaks Mandarin fluently.
2. She has studied art in China.
3. She's an accomplished artist. She has exhibited her photography and paintings in galleries in New York City and Los Angeles.
4. She's extremely athletic. She's good at horseback riding, rock climbing, and skiing.
5. She can play the accordion.



C Pair work Which person would you most like to meet? Why?

APPENDIX 10

WRITINGS ON "INTRODUCING SOMEONE" AS A POST-READING
ACTIVITY

(THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

His names is Tolga. Tolga is my best friend. He was born in Zonguldak and he was raised here. He's not demanding at all. He's supportive. He speaks fluently English. He helps me about English. He's fairly versatile. He always sing a song. His voice is very good. He released cd himself when he was 15. He had a lot of fans. He's fairly grooming. A lot of girls love him. I always listen him. He sometimes visit me.

Hilmaç HİDİRİM.

Years Ago...
She was born and raised in Zonguldak. Her name is Duygu. She went school. Then she graduated from Hacettepe university.
She came to Zonguldak. She is my teacher now. She is demanding but she is grooming and smart.
~~She is~~
She tells fluently English lesson. I am a supportive listener to her. I love her.
I think. She will release English book. if she releases a book, I buy her book.

Volkan Çetin

APPENDIX 11

WRITINGS ON "INTRODUCING SOMEONE" AS A POST-READING
ACTIVITY (CONTROL GROUP)

- Ozkan.
- He is good person. he is
- helpful. When you need to
- help, he helps you. He is
- kind of my brother. He looks
- like me. Sometimes he angry.
- He's outgoing, he speak
- everyone easily. He has a great
- sense of humor. When we go
- cafe or his house I loud very
- much. He is practical and
- very good driver. He always
- fix his car. He's creative

KeshinColor

Isra;

She is friendly person. She isn't disorganized. She talks carefully. She gets along with people so, I like her. She is incredibly generous. She shares everything with people. She likes animals. She feeds dog at her house. She is ^{pretty} reliable. I tell everything her. She is so helpful sometimes, when I don't do my homework, she helps me. She has a great sense of humor. When we go out, she does humor-us.

APPENDIX 12

THE FOURTH READING TEXT

Lesson D Home habits

1 Reading

A Discuss these statements with a partner. How many are true for you?

- I make my bed every morning.
- I always turn off the light when I leave a room.
- I do the dishes right after I eat.
- I keep my magazines for about six months.
- I organize my books and CDs.
- I use a dozen different cleaning products.

B Read the article. How do your home habits compare with the ones in the article?

AT HOME – How **typical** are you?

Do you make your bed every day? Do you try to save electricity at home? Are you a pack rat? Read about the home habits of Americans – are they the same as yours?

Making beds and doing dishes

74% of people make their beds every morning. 5% *never* do. And 3% actually change their sheets every day.

Do you wash the dishes right after eating? 58% of Americans do, but 5% let theirs sit for two or more days!

Neat and tidy

Are you an organized person? 13% of people alphabetize their books and CDs, or organize them in some way!

The average home has 13 cleaning products around the house.

Pack rats

How long do you save magazines? About half the population throws away old ones after six months. But 20% keep them for years and years.

Lights out

Are you careful about saving electricity? 25% of people turn off the light when they leave a room. 8% never do. Four out of five leave the lights on when they go out at night.

Who does the laundry?

Men do 29% of the 419 million loads of laundry washed each week. Almost all unmarried men do at least one load a week.

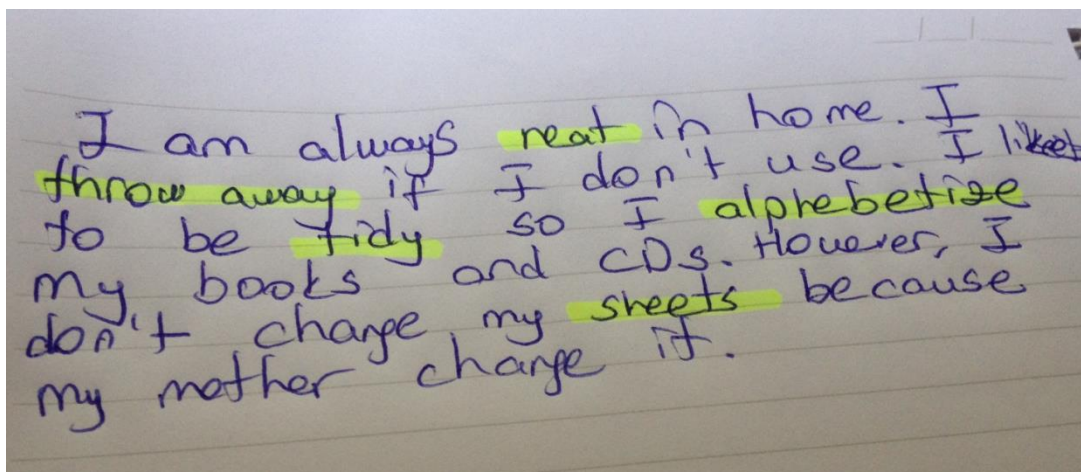
C Fill in the missing information from the article. Then discuss with a partner. Which facts do you find interesting? Which are surprising?

- 74% of people in the U.S. make their beds every morning.
- 58% of them _____ right after eating.
- _____ of Americans never turn off the light when they leave a room.
- _____ of them organize their books and CDs.
- 50% of all Americans _____ after six months.
- Almost all unmarried men in the U.S. _____.

A *Most people make their beds. I think that's surprising. I don't make mine every day.*

B *No, me neither. I don't have time. I also think it's interesting that . . .*

APPENDIX 13

WRITING ON "HOME HABITS" AS A POST-READING ACTIVITY
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

I am always neat in home. I throw away if I don't use. I like to be tidy so I alphabetize my books and CDs. However, I don't change my sheets because my mother change it.

APPENDIX 14

WRITINGS ON "HOME HABITS" AS A POST-READING ACTIVITY

(CONTROL GROUP)

When I feel tired, I sleep and relax. Sometimes I take a shower. I don't study because I don't like. Also I can't concentrate. My school starts at 8 and finishes at 3. So I become really tired. I drink a cup of coffee and feel relaxed.

My brother is never neat and tidy. He never cleans the house. He is disorganized. I always get angry with him about it. I don't want to share my room with him. Because he is dirty.