

ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE ROLE OF INTERACTIVE VOCABULARY
INSTRUCTION ON LEARNERS' VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE**

Evşen ÜNAL

MA THESIS

ADANA, 2006

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Advisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Rana YILDIRIM

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We certify that this thesis is satisfactory for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in the Department of English Language Teaching.

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ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE ROLE OF INTERACTIVE VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION ON LEARNERS' VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

Evşen ÜNAL

MA Thesis, English Language Teaching Department

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This specific study concerns itself with the teaching and learning of non-technical vocabulary items in English to Turkish intermediate level EFL students through interactive vocabulary instruction. In this respect, our study tries to find out the answers to the following questions:

- Will there be a progress in the experimental group's vocabulary knowledge who learn vocabulary through interactive vocabulary instruction?
- Will there be a progress in the control group's vocabulary knowledge who learn vocabulary through traditional definition-based vocabulary instruction?
- Will there be a change in the experimental group's attitudes to vocabulary learning and vocabulary learning activities after they are exposed to interactive vocabulary instruction?

The purpose of the thesis is to give some answers to these questions within an experimental type of study. This study comprised two different groups: One was the experimental and the other was the control group chosen from Çağ College. The experimental group was exposed to interactive vocabulary instruction. On the other hand, the control group focused traditional definition-based vocabulary teaching. After a treatment period, the control and experimental groups' performance was analyzed according to pretest and posttest data. Our posttest analysis indicated that there was a

statistically difference between our control and the experimental groups. Basically, the experimental group's scores were statistically more significant than the control group. In other words, the findings indicated that the interactive vocabulary instruction can be utilized as an effective vocabulary teaching method in language learning classrooms.

Key words: Interactive vocabulary instruction, Keyword method, Treshold level.

ÖZET

İLETİŞİMSEL KELİME ÖĞRETİMİNİN ÖĞRENERLERİN KELİME BİLGİSİNİ ARTTIRMADAKİ ROLÜ ÜZERİNE BİR ARAŞTIRMA

Evşen ÜNAL

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı

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Bu çalışma İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen orta seviyedeki Türk öğrencilerin teknik olmayan İngilizce kelimeleri iletişimsel kelime öğretimi yoluyla öğretme ve öğrenmeleriyle ilgilenmektedir. Bu çalışmada aşağıda verilen şu sorulara yanıt aranmaktadır:

- İletişimsel kelime öğretimi yoluyla kelime öğrenen ve tanıma dayalı kelime öğretimi yoluyla kelime öğrenen deney grubunun kelime bilgisinde ilerleme olacak mı?
- Tanıma dayalı kelime öğretimi yoluyla kelime öğrenen kontrol grubunun kelime bilgisinde ilerleme olacak mı?
- Deney grubunun iletişimsel kelime öğretimine tabi tutulduktan sonra, kelime öğrenimine ve kelime öğrenme çalışmalarına olan tutumlarında bir değişiklik olacak mı?

Bu çalışmada araştırma sorularına deneysel desen içerisinde yanıt aranmaktadır. Çalışma, deney ve kontrol olmak üzere iki grubu içermektedir. Bu gruplar Çağ Koleji öğrencilerinden oluşturulmuştur. Deney grubu, kelime öğretiminde interaktif anlatıma tabi tutulmuştur; kontrol grubu ise halihazırda uygulanan kelime anlatımıyla- tanıma dayalı yöntemle çalışmayı sürdürmüştür. Uygulama döneminin ardından iki grubun performansı, uygulama öncesi ve sonrası verilen testlerin yanıtları doğrultusunda incelenmiştir. Temelinde, deneysel grubun kontrol grubunu istatistiksel bakımdan farklı

olarak aştığı gözlemlenmiştir. Diğer bir deyişle, sonuçlar interaktif kelime anlatımının yabancı dil sınıflarında etkileyici bir kelime öğretim metodu olarak uygulanabileceğini göstermiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: İletişimsel kelime öğretimi, Anahtar kelime yöntemi, Eşik düzeyi.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

As Carter and Mc Carthy (1988 p: 39) mention an old proverb stating that; “what is new is not true and what is true is not new” is particularly related to the history of vocabulary teaching. Problems aroused by words and their understanding have interested linguists, philosophers and pedagogues for centuries (Carter and Mc Carthy, 1988). The philosopher John Locke stating in his writing called “Remedies of the Imperfection and Abuse of Words,” claimed that concrete words were best described by pictures rather than by paraphrase or definition (Locke 1690/1975, pp.522-3), seen as a precursor of many present-day teaching materials (Carter and Mc Carthy, 1988).

The role of vocabulary to language acquisition is no more controversial among scholars. However, which method to adopt is still a matter of debate. One specific aspect is beyond disputation though; the importance of context in vocabulary learning, which will be discussed in the following sections.

CHAPTER 2

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

2.1. The Role of Vocabulary in Second Language Learning Approaches

It is agreed that vocabulary has a central position in language and is indispensable for the language learner although it has not always received much attention in the area of second language acquisition research and practice. The role of vocabulary in language teaching has always been viewed variously in approaches since the era of Grammar Translation Method up to the present day.

To begin with, in the period of Grammar Translation Method, which dominated language teaching in 1920s, detailed explanations of grammar were given to language learners in L1 and paradigms to memorize along with bilingual vocabulary lists to learn. A typical lesson included a reading passage with long columns of new words in addition to their L1 equivalents and an accompanying test about it. Thus, bilingual dictionaries were highly popular in terms of reference from which students benefited a lot during this era.

Some linguists such as Wilhelm Viëtor from Germany, Paul Passy from France, and Henry Smith from Britain, who started the Reform Movement as a reaction to the practices of this method, began to criticise The Grammar Translation Method in 1880s. They, in contrast to the Grammar Translation methodologists, were against isolated sentences and word lists. Sweet (1899) specified the sentence as the unit of the language as opposed to word, as:

Although language is made up of words, we do not speak in words, but in sentences. From a practical, as well as scientific point of view, the sentence is the unit of language, not the word. From a purely phonetic point of view words do not exist (quoted in Zimmerman, 1997b, p. 7)

These reformists advocated that words should be practiced in meaningful context rather than in isolation. Unlike the Grammar Translation Method, the lexical items were selected according to their simplicity and usefulness. Sweet suggested

developing vocabulary lists based on statistics in order to be more accurate in the selection of vocabulary students need most.

The Direct Method which was developed in the U.S. by Sauver(1874) and promoted by Berlitz (1878, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), benefited a great deal from the ideas aroused in the Reform Movement. This method prioritised relating meaning directly with L2 without translation. Interaction was considered central to language learning and its advocates used the target language only as the language of interaction in the classroom. The lessons were based on interaction including question and answer exchanges in which everyday vocabulary was simple and familiar. Concrete vocabulary was presented with demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was explained through the association of ideas.

The Situational Language Teaching, which emphasized the need to develop reading skills, was introduced in Great Britain during 1930s. Micheal West (1930 cited in Zimmerman, 1997a) the forerunner of this approach, advocated the improvement of vocabulary skills for the purposes of improving reading skills. West criticised the Direct Methodology in some respects; first the Direct Method lacked the guidelines for selecting content, second in Direct Method classrooms there was not much emphasis put on vocabulary teaching. Moreover, even if some vocabulary instruction was given, the words which were taught were not the ones learners needed. This led to students who could not acquire even a basic thousand word vocabulary after years of study in the Direct Method.

West found a solution to the problem; to use word-frequency lists as the basis for the selection and sequence of vocabulary in teaching materials in language programmes and curriculum. He suggested using Thorndike's word frequency list in 1930 in the preparation of language curriculum, then in 1953 he published his own list, named A General service list of English Words (cited in Zimmerman, 1997b). They viewed vocabulary as one of the most important aspects of SLL, which was a significant departure from the methodologies prior to this method.

For the Audio-Lingual Method, founded by American Structural Linguists during World war II, the main objective of language teaching was the acquisition of structural patterns. Fries (1945), Rivers (1968) and Twaddell (1980) (cited in Richards& Rodgers, 2001), the proponents of this method supported presenting learners structural frames. They also believed that learners could gain vocabulary at a later stage according to their individual lexical needs in particular situations. It was believed that too much

vocabulary early in the language learning process would lead to a false sense of security in students. The importance given to structural patterns overweighed that of vocabulary in the Audio-Lingual Method and vocabulary learned in the classroom was only used to illustrate and practice structural topics. Thus, vocabulary was kept to a minimum while the learners were mastering sound system and grammatical patterns.

The 1970s witnessed the development of communicative methods, the common concern of which was bringing language learners into closer contact with the target language by prioritising fluency over accuracy. The proponents of communicative methodology, some of whom were Wilkins (1972), Widdowson (1978) and Rivers (1983) (Rivers, once a supporter of Audio-lingual Method, altered her views later on and became a strong supporter of communicative approaches) acknowledged the importance of vocabulary (cited in Zimmerman, 1997b). They argued that as notional and functional syllabi are governed with themes and situations, their content should be determined by semantics rather than by syntax. Direct vocabulary instruction was still ignored and attracted little interest in this method. Also the focus of attention was directed to the correct use of communicative categories and language as discourse. It was believed that learners could master the lexical systems in the same way as they master the syntactic system: with considerable exposure to language. In other words, L2 vocabulary would develop with natural communicative exposure in the target language, just as L1 vocabulary, which develops through contextualized, naturally sequenced language (Zimmerman, 1997b).

The Natural Approach, developed by Krashen (1989), emphasizes comprehensible and meaningful input instead of grammatically correct production. For Krashen, comprehensible input is crucial to acquire the language and comprehensibility relies on the meaning of vocabulary items; therefore, without comprehension of vocabulary items, acquisition will not occur. It has been recommended in the Natural Approach that interesting and relevant vocabulary input should be provided to language learners to help them achieve the mastery of language. Krashen (1989) underlies the significance of vocabulary to the language learning process in the following words:

Excellent reasons exist for devoting attention to vocabulary and spelling. First, there are practical reasons. A large vocabulary is of course, essential for mastery of a language. Second language acquirers know this; they carry dictionaries with them, not grammar books, and regularly report that lack of vocabulary is a major problem.... On the theoretical level, the study

of the acquisition of the vocabulary and spelling ability can help us understand language acquisition in general (p. 440).

As a method of teaching vocabulary, it has been recommended in the Natural Approach that interesting and relevant vocabulary input should be provided to language learners to help them achieve the mastery of language and gain a general insight into the nature of language acquisition. Krashen's pedagogical suggestions include free voluntary reading of one's own interest as this enhances incidental learning of vocabulary.

It is surprising to see how infrequently vocabulary or lexis was mentioned at all before the 1980s in SLA history. Starting with 1980s, however, scholars criticized the lack of interest to lexis not only in older grammatical syllabuses and approaches, but also in more recent communicative approaches. Communicative linguistic theorists were criticized for placing little emphasis on vocabulary and its instruction while focusing more on structures, functions, notions, and communication strategies (O'Dell, 1997). The 1980s witnessed the initiation of lexicographical research, which aroused from the need for accurate language description. The Collins-Birmingham University International Database (1987), which is known as COBUILD project, is an extensive computer analysis. It was based on a corpus of twenty million words and was designed for actual language use. John Sinclair (1985), the project's editor in chief, could foresee that computer analysis of corpus would lead to significant changes in the lexical concerns in language teaching and research even before the publication of the first dictionary that would come out from this project. One of these changes was the change in the description of lexical items. Computer processing of language text and computational linguistics have shifted interest from single words to large chunks of language that are called *lexical items*, *lexical phrases*, or *prefabricated units*, *chunks*, etc.

Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) carried out a systematic analysis of extensive samples of actual language. They concluded that multiword chunks have a central role in language use, and thus pragmatic competence of a language learner in his ability to access and adapt the chunks is language. In that respect, they claimed that multiword chunks, i.e., lexical phrases, should be central to language teaching.

Similarly, Michael Lewis (1993), in his well-known Lexical Approach, challenged the standard view of dividing the language teaching into grammar and vocabulary dichotomy. He claimed that language consists of lexical phrases. According

to Lewis, what language consists of is “grammaticalised lexis” rather than “lexicalised grammar”, and he suggested that one should integrate communicative approach with strong focus on lexis.

The work of Sinclair (1985), and Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) and Lewis (1993), was considered as revolutionary because it led to significant departures from the past. First, their work helped to place vocabulary in a more central position in the description of language, and thus, in language learning. Second, through accurate description of vocabulary they introduced the concepts of lexical phrases or multiword chunks rather than individual words. They underlined that patterns of lexis collocation needed to be perceived and used by the language learners to learn vocabulary and language. Most importantly, their work pointed out the fact that language production is the retrieval of larger phrasal units from memory, and not a syntactic rule-governed process which signals a departure from the post-Chomskyan focus on syntax as the basis for a speaker’s internalized language knowledge (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Zimmerman, 1997b).

Especially for the last two decades, vocabulary pedagogy has benefited both from the developments in computer technology and from a variety improvements in the world (Carter & McCarthy, 1988). First of all, it has benefited from theoretical advances in the linguistic study of the lexicon, second from psycholinguistic investigations into the mental lexicon, and finally, from the communicative trend in teaching, bringing the learner into focus. The changes in the attitude towards vocabulary has also led to changes in the definition of lexical competence in recent years,i.e. , word knowledge. In contemporary approaches to language learning, knowing a word does not mean knowing its translation or its dictionary definition only; it has taken on some new meanings.

According to Richards (1976), knowing a word means knowing the limitations imposed on the use of words according to variations of function and situation. Also, Ooi and Kim-Seoh (1996) indicate that lexical competence is the competence for use rather than just the knowledge of word meaning. Thus, they argue that L2 learners should also be aware of the lexical sets and collocations in the target language for efficient learning of vocabulary.

One of the recent methods of language teaching is the Communicative Approach (CA) where the common concern is bringing language learners into closer contact with the target language by prioritising fluency over accuracy. In the 1970s educators started

to question whether or not they were going in the right way. They observed that students can produce sentences but could not use them outside the classroom, thus it was noted that mastering linguistic structures was not sufficient for genuinely communicating. So, knowing the rules of linguistic usage did not mean that one could use the language (Widdowson 1978). To summarise, in order to communicate communicative competence rather than linguistic competence was required. Another important aspect of this approach is that all the grammar and vocabulary, which is learned and exploited, grows naturally out of the range of functional and situational contexts that are part of the lessons. Finocchiaro & Brumfit (1983) pointed out the role of context in CA; the formal properties of language are never treated in isolation from use; language forms are always addressed within a communicative context (as cited in Beale, 2002). Thus, the following section will concern the importance of context in vocabulary teaching as well as some relevant studies indicating such importance.

CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

3.1. The Role of Context in Vocabulary Learning

There have been different views related to the significance to be attached to vocabulary throughout the SLA history. Yet which method to adopt in teaching or learning vocabulary is still a matter of controversy. One specific aspect of the issue is beyond debate.

Today it is widely agreed that context greatly contributes to vocabulary learning regardless of the method to be followed and that vocabulary should be taught in context rather than in isolation or vocabulary lists (Nagy Herman and Anderson 1985).

Craik and Tulvig's Depth of Processing Hypothesis (Craik & Tulvig, 1975) underlines the need for a context in vocabulary teaching. In other words, it is easier to learn vocabulary in context than in isolated word lists due to the fact that meaningful contexts enable a more complex and deeper processing which leads to better retention of the lexical item.

Similarly Krashen (1989) believes that vocabulary presentation and practice should be carried out in context rather than in isolation. Krashen's well-known *Input Hypothesis* assumes that there is an internal language acquisition device, which must be accompanied by an essential external ingredient, comprehensible input, for language acquisition. As for vocabulary learning, context provides the so-called comprehensible input for learning vocabulary and spelling. Therefore vocabulary presentation and practice should be carried out in context rather than in isolation.

According to Ooi and Kim –Seoh (1996) context provides the necessary input revealing as much information about the lexical item as possible, which eases the way to vocabulary learning.

In a similar line of thought, Nagy (1997) claims that context is crucial in vocabulary learning. In other words vocabulary should be presented and practiced in context. It is better to present and practise vocabulary in context since word meaning may change from one context to another.

Although context is believed to be essential, researchers pursue different views about the best way to learn and teach vocabulary though they have agreed on the significance of context. These will be presented below:

3.2. Different Approaches to Vocabulary Teaching

One method which is based on contextualisation is incidental vocabulary learning, which is the most important strategy in vocabulary learning (Nation, 2001). It refers to the learning which occurs without specific intention to focus on vocabulary. One can develop his vocabulary knowledge subconsciously while being engaged in any language activities, especially reading.

Ellis (1996) claims that since vocabulary is mostly learned incidentally, extensive reading is the best way for incidental learning. In extensive reading there is a strong relationship between print exposure and vocabulary learning; therefore it is regarded as helpful. Also in extensive reading learners can have the chance to study the context to form and to confirm hypotheses and to have time for guessing word meaning. As a result of these people who read more know more vocabulary.

Joe (1998) found out that the process of reading and retelling a text promotes incidental vocabulary learning and that experiment in tasks requiring reading and recall without explicitly focusing on vocabulary can facilitate the acquisition of vocabulary. In addition when the level of generative processing was higher as in retelling a text without access to it required a deeper processing on the mind of the learners, which resulted in much vocabulary going for target words.

Laufer's study (1998) also proves that incidental vocabulary learning led to much vocabulary learning. But he emphasizes the need for a follow-up task to reinforce retention and vocabulary use. Laufer also believes that output as well as input is very important in vocabulary learning, which is in contrast to Krashen's view, which emphasizes only comprehensible input.

Within the literature incidental learning is believed to be useful for L2 learners. However natural incidental learning may be hindered due to time constraints in L2 classrooms. Moreover for students with academic goals natural learning may not be adequate or enough in term of the literacy skills needed for academic study (Coady,

1997a; Coady, 1997b). To compensate for these limitations some vocabulary learning strategies have been suggested:

One of these strategies is intentional vocabulary learning. It refers to memorizing straightforwardly term after term with their respective translations from a list. Intentional learning is quick and therefore usually preferred by learners, but it is also superficial. Learners encounter vocabulary in an isolated form and remain incapable of using it correctly in context. Thus, as Nation (2001) claimed, most vocabulary learning occurs incidentally, i.e. guessing from context, but a deliberate, intentional learning is also required.

Parry (1991,1993,1997) in his series of longitudinal case studies, demonstrated how a combination of incidental and intentional learning of vocabulary in reading could be possible and helped the development of both L2 vocabulary and academic success in L2.

However, there is also evidence in recent studies of second language learners that a combined approach is superior to incidental vocabulary learning alone. Zimmerman (1997a) conducted a study on the impact of interactive vocabulary teaching in vocabulary knowledge of students when coupled by required and extensive reading(see section 3.2.1.).

Another study was conducted by Grabe and Stoller (1997) in order to find out the effect of extensive reading on vocabulary learning. They conducted a five month study in which a beginner level Portuguese learner was used. It was concluded that extensive reading is an effective way to develop vocabulary as well as other language abilities over time.

In addition to the methods used by researchers to retain vocabulary as stated above, there are vocabulary learning strategies that ease the retention of words.

Most research on vocabulary learning strategies has focused on various methods of vocabulary presentation and their effects on retention, i.e. the most studied vocabulary learning strategies are memory strategies(Gu and Johnson, 1996).

Among the memory strategies, mediation strategies, which involve the new L2 word in some form of meaningful association come in two varieties, imagery mediation and semantic mediation, and they are examples of “deep” strategies.

Another memory strategy, imagery mediation, involves visualising a mental picture or image of the L2 word. The most interesting variant of imagery mediation is the keyword method (KWM) which consists of two association stages;in the first stage

the learner imagines or remembers a native L1 keyword which has a similar sound in L2 word. In the second stage the learner accesses an interactive image that should be as memorable as possible containing both the keyword and its associated L2 objects. For instance, in order to remember that *carlin* means an old woman, a learner may use the keyword *car*, and imagine an old woman driving a car (Brown & Perry, 1991). The cognitive psychologists Atkinson and Raugh (1975) coined the term Keyword Method (KWM). By testing the retention of Russian vocabulary they demonstrated the method. Atkinson describes the KWM as follows:

By a keyword we mean an English word that sounds like some part of the foreign word. In general, the keyword has no relationship to the foreign word except for the fact that it is similar in sound. The keyword method divides vocabulary learning into two stages. The first stage requires the subject to associate the spoken foreign word with the keyword; an association that is formed quickly because of acoustic similarity. The second stage requires the subject to form a mental image of the keyword, 'interacting' with the English translation, this stage is comparable to a paired-associate procedure involving the learning of unrelated English words (Atkinson, 1975: 821).

Atkinson and Raugh (1975) compared KW mnemonics with control conditions and concluded that the advantage of KW was maintained up to 6 weeks later.

Also, according to Hulstijn (1997), there are many advantages of keyword strategy. He considers keyword mnemonics as an efficient supplement to guessing from context. Keyword technique is similar to the widely accepted principles of vocabulary learning, i.e., avoiding rote learning, avoiding context-free learning, and the need for elaboration and rehearsal. Semantic processing is another vocabulary learning strategy. It makes the learner act on the meaning of a new word by tying it into existing knowledge structures in the mental lexicon. It urges the learner to elaborate in the new word, and learners who are using this method are deep processors, so they are successful vocabulary learners (Brown and Perry, 1991; Ellis, 1996).

Another example of vocabulary learning strategies is semantic mapping which is widely used and has proved to be useful method in vocabulary learning. The learner makes an arrangement of words into a picture that has a key concept at the center or on the top and related words and concepts linked together via lines or arrows. Semantic mapping is a process that constructs visual categories and their relationships and can be

formed individually or within a group either through teacher guidance or independent activities (Svenconis and Kerst, 2006).

Brown and Perry (1991) compared KW with a semantic processing method and a combined KW-plus-semantic condition. The subjects, 60 Arabic students, were divided into three treatment groups: (1) keyword treatment group; (2) semantic treatment group; and (3) the combined keyword-semantic treatment, and also the students received four-day-instruction related to their treatment..What Brown and Perry found in their study with Arabic speaking EFL students learning English was that a combination of these two methods demonstrated the best retention results.

In addition to Brown and Perry, Morin and Gobel (2001) searched the effects of two learning strategies, keyword and semantic method. They aimed at building vocabulary in college level Spanish second language learners through listening and speaking. A training on semantic mapping strategy was given to experimental group while the control group was taught vocabulary through a variety of small group, oral activities including picture description, story-telling and information gap activities for an entire semester. The results showed that the two groups did not show significant differences in the definitions they gave for the words. But for semantic grouping, however, the experimental group outperformed the control group in their ability to access vocabulary meaning by relating vocabulary items to their semantic fields. To conclude, vocabulary instruction combined with semantic mapping as an acquisition strategy proved to be more effective than vocabulary instruction with activities that taught only words.

Another way to learn vocabulary incidentally, which is also supported by many professionals, is inferring word meanings from contexts. Kruse(1987) suggests introducing vocabulary items in such a way as to ease the learners to infer or guess the meanings from the context or illustrations. According to Kruse, students should be motivated to make guesses about word meanings. On the other hand, it is claimed that relatively little vocabulary learning occurs in guessing due to the little attention paid to the word form and meaning (Hunt and Beglar, 2001). Paribakht and Wesche(1997) support a similar view:

Guessing strategy, although justifiable for general reading practice and increasing reading speed, is not ideal for vocabulary enrichment over a limited instructional period. Only a few words may require more than

passing attention and even the recognition knowledge of them may be sufficient in most cases (p. 196).

Moreover, there are some discussions on the problems of guessing word from context. Fukkink, Blok, and De Glopper (2001) state that the context should offer a considerable amount of support otherwise only a little incidental learning from context may occur for all words. In a similar line of thought, Nagy (1997) points out some conditions that successful guessing relies on: (1) the familiarity of the reader with the subject matter of the text; (2) the richness of the context in terms of the clues about the meaning of the word; (3) the closeness of the clues to the unknown word (the closer, the easier to guess); and finally, (4) the similarity of the L1 (in terms of its syntactic structures and words) to L2. Also Nagy signifies the impact of students' word knowledge on learning vocabulary. He claims that conceptual difficulty is a good predictor of ease of incidental vocabulary learning from context than any other word property "including length, morphological complexity, abstractness or concreteness, estimated informativeness of the context in which the word appeared" (p. 80). Not many reading texts can fulfill all and even most of the conditions discussed by Nagy when considering this long list of conditions for successful guessing.

Besides, there is the possibility of making different kinds of mistakes in an attempt to derive the word meaning from context since word learning can not be considered as a one-dimensional concept. Some factors that are thought to influence guessing word meaning context are provided. A word can not be guessed easily if (1) it has a low frequency of occurrence in a language; (2) it denotes difficult and unfamiliar concepts; (3) it is an abstract word (Fukkink et al., 2001, p. 479).

Laufer and Yano (2001) also underline some dangers of guessing. A study was designed in order to investigate how accurately learners can evaluate their understanding of words and whether this accuracy is influenced by the learner's culture, gender and lexical knowledge.

It was concluded that guessing should not be taken for granted in terms of the acquisition of vocabulary because its success depends on two assumptions: (a) learners are accurate in recognizing words as unfamiliar, and (b) they are either accurate in their guesses or critical enough to admit defeat in their guesses.

Sökmen (1997, pp. 237-9) summarises most of the issues about the shortcomings of and lists the possible problems associated with guessing from the context: first of all, taking into consideration that many EFL learners have limited amount of time and

acquiring words mainly through guessing is likely to be a very slow process thus it does not necessarily result in long-term retention. Moreover, this is an error-prone process. Guessing the meaning of the unknown vocabulary does not mean that the word has been inferred correctly. Besides, even when learners are given training on strategies to guess words, their comprehension may still be low due to insufficient vocabulary knowledge.

Laufer (1997) also suggests that even reading strategies become ineffective below the threshold level of 3000 word families (5000 lexical items), which is needed for general reading comprehension. Moreover, a learner should know about 98% of the words in a text to make good guesses consistently. Thus, a learner would generally need a sight vocabulary of about 5000 word families (8000 lexical items). As a result, a large sight vocabulary is essential for reading comprehension and guessing vocabulary. Therefore, elaboration on explicit instruction is necessary.

Explicit instruction of vocabulary means the teaching of vocabulary directly using various techniques, activities, e.g. fill-in-the blanks exercises, using the new word in a sentence, etc., and even direct memorization of certain highly frequent items. The proponents of this approach to vocabulary teaching underline its necessity at an early stage of language acquisition (Coady, 1997a). Students who are beginners in L2 learning should learn the most frequent words in order that they can cope with the complex structures of the texts. For example, Nation and Newton (1997) express the beginners' need for knowing the most frequent words. In relevance to this, Coady (1997b) talks about what he calls the *beginner's paradox*:

Since the empirical evidence in support of incidental acquisition of vocabulary is somewhat ambiguous, it would seem that we must pay more serious attention to the problem facing those language learners who are beginners and who face a truly paradoxical situation. How can they learn enough words to learn vocabulary through extensive reading when they do not know enough words to read well? (p.229)

According to Coady (1997a), only after learners are given explicit instruction and practice in the 3000 most common words in the language, they can engage in reading tasks they find interesting through which they can acquire vocabulary incidentally.

Laufer (1997a) also emphasizes the problem of insufficient vocabulary that may seriously impede reading comprehension, and she argues for the acquisition of a *threshold level* vocabulary in the quickest way possible providing the definition for it.

The threshold vocabulary readers need in order to transfer their L1 reading strategies is what is commonly referred to as sight vocabulary- words whose forms and common meaning are recognized *automatically*, irrespective of context (p.22).

Moreover, according to Laufer's research results even the most intelligent learners who are good readers in their native tongue, cannot be successful in their L2 reading if their vocabulary knowledge is lower than the threshold level.

Apart from the need for threshold level vocabulary knowledge, some research shows that certain characteristics of L2 may be an excessive burden for the language learner to tackle without help. There are many fixed and prepatterned phrases that are used for communication by native speakers as Lewis (1997) cited in his research findings. Furthermore, there are a wide variety of expressions, such as words, polywords, multiword items, collocations, and institutionalized expressions in a language. Moreover, there are some 'intralexical' factors that are influential in word learning: these are pronounceability, orthography, length, morphology, synformy (similarity of lexical forms), grammar-part of speech, semantic features of the word (abstractness, specificity, and register restriction, idiomaticity, and multiple meaning) (Laufer, 1997b, p.146). Apparently, learning all of these will be difficult for L2 learners, and thus explicit instruction will ease their way to accuracy and fluency.

Similarly, the research on reading in L2 provides evidence that advanced, authentic, academic texts both require a great deal of skills in reading and a good knowledge of minimum 5000 words in L2 (Coady, 1997a). In addition to this, learning through incidental reading does not suffice in environments such as academic courses where vocabulary expansion should be very fast (Schmitt and McCarthy, 1997). Explicit teaching is especially important for learners with a very different orthographic background from that of L2 experience due to difficulties caused by this difference (Koda, 1997; Ryan, 1997). In other words, there may be some invisible L2 induced barriers to learning vocabulary that lie in the structure of a learner's native tongue. Therefore, both academic students and students from a different orthographic tradition may benefit from explicit instruction which facilitates their vocabulary learning.

Moreover, even the retention of new vocabulary can be a challenge on the part of the language learner in many respects. Undeniably, permanent storage of knowledge is the goal of L2 vocabulary learning and teaching is, which is not very easy, as Parry (1991) explains:

Building a vocabulary requires a great deal of work, and that as more pieces are added and more connections made, there must be a continuous process of reviewing, and sometimes undoing construction that has already been done (p.651).

As the learner learns a new vocabulary item, he places this new item in a web-like system in his mind, which is unceasingly renewed and reviewed so that more information can be welcome. This seems to be a difficult process for the language learner to be involved in all by himself without the aid of any instruction, i.e., incidentally.

Furthermore, there are many factors that are found to be influential in word retention. According to De Groot and Keijer (2000), word retention is affected by the cognate status, concreteness, frequency, and type (specific characteristics) of the vocabulary item. In other words, explicit instruction, in which learners find opportunities to explore many of the above mentioned aspects of words, can, no doubt, help language learners in the many faceted difficulties of vocabulary retention.

No matter how favorable it is considered in various respects, the explicit instruction of vocabulary is not without its criticism. The scholars focus on the limitations of especially traditional type definition-based instruction: First of all, it has been discussed that not many words can be effectively covered through such instruction. Besides, it involves memorizing brief definitions to a single meaning (or an attempt to it). Finally, as it is widely agreed, no single encounter with a word can lead to any greater depth of word knowledge (Nagy, 1997)

Considering the criticisms directed to this traditional definition-based instruction of vocabulary, researchers felt the urge to improve the technique of explicit vocabulary instruction. For example, Nagy, though he is a great supporter of incidental learning, admits that comprehension of a text containing difficult words can be enhanced through explicit instruction of difficult words only if the explicit instruction embodies deep processing of information about the words. Thus, definition-based instruction would not be sufficient for the language learner to fully master the new word.

According to Ellis (1997), the explicit vocabulary instruction methods (1) that contain both definitional and contextual information about each target word; (2) that involve several exposures rather than drill-and practice methods only; (3) that provide a variety of knowledge about each target word from multiple contexts; and (4) that contained keyword techniques should be selected due to their efficacy.

Sökmen (1997), elaborating on the previously discussed ideas, proposes that an effective vocabulary-learning programme should: (1) help learners build a large sight vocabulary; (2) integrate new words with the old ones (following the lexico-semantic theory, which suggests that the human lexicon is a network of associations and a web-like structure of interconnected links); (3) provide learners with a number of encounters with the new word; (4) promote learners' deep level processing skills; (5) facilitate imaging and concreteness (following the dual theory, which suggests that the mind contains a network of verbal and imaginal representations for vocabulary items and imagining and concreteness create powerful, integrated verbal and nonverbal memory links, which are reintegrated every time the word is evoked); (6) make use of a variety of techniques; (7) encourage independent learner strategies.

As can be seen, the arguments for incidental learning of vocabulary and explicit teaching of vocabulary comprise the two far ends of the continuum on this issue. In the middle of the continuum, though, is a combination of both methods, suggesting these two methods can come together for better results.

There are also studies suggesting that although contextualized reading improves one's vocabulary, contextualized reading along with explicit teaching is even more effective. To illustrate, Ellis (1997) and Schmitt and McCarthy (1997) draw our attention to the benefits of both context and explicit instruction. They argue that explicit teaching can be a very good presentation of a vocabulary item. Then, the context in which the item is encountered can lead to new knowledge of collocations, additional meanings, and other higher-level knowledge. Moreover, it is essential to teach the most frequent words in L2 explicitly as they are the prerequisites for language use. Schmitt & McCarthy argues that "The learning of these basic words cannot be left to chance, but should be taught as quickly as possible, because they open the door to further reading" (p.3). Therefore, a well-constructed language-learning programme should include both methods, each with its own pros and cons.

Paribakht and Wesche (1997) suggest that L2 vocabulary acquisition can be enhanced through instructional intervention in the context of meaningful language use. In their study they explored the role of various vocabulary instruction techniques based on reading texts for vocabulary learning. The subjects were university ESL students who were exposed to two instructional treatments: The Reading Plus and the Reading Only. The group that had the Reading Plus treatment read selected texts and answered the following comprehension questions. Later, they did a series of vocabulary activities

on the target words from the readings emphasizing salience, recognition, manipulation, interpretation, and production. Then, they did extensive reading. The Reading Only group, like the first group, did reading and answered the comprehension questions. However, instead of working on vocabulary activities, they read a supplementary text composed to present again the target words from the main text. In that way, learners in the latter group were more exposed to the target words. Learners' knowledge of vocabulary was evaluated by *Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS)*, which was developed by the researchers. In this instrument, a five-point scale combining self-reports and performance items was used to determine vocabulary knowledge. At the end of the study, both treatments resulted in significant gains in learners' vocabulary knowledge. However, the Reading Plus treatment brought significantly greater gains than the Reading Only one. Moreover, the Reading Plus treatment proved to have increased the learners' depth of knowledge of target words more than the Reading Only treatment did. Thus, it proved to be much more beneficial for the learners, the difference being both quantitative and qualitative.

In addition to the above study, Zimmerman (1997a) conducted a study on the impact of interactive vocabulary teaching in vocabulary knowledge of students, which is the base for the research undertaken in this study will be discussed in the next section.

3.2.1. Interactive Vocabulary Instruction

Interactive vocabulary instruction is a method that consists of discussion-based vocabulary activities aimed at providing practice in the range of skills included in vocabulary acquisition: reading, writing, speaking, and listening (Zimmerman, 1997a p.122).

Zimmerman's study was based on three assumptions:

1. Word Learning is a complex task. It is a complex task as it involves not only the ability to give a definition for a vocabulary item, but knowing its linguistic, psycholinguistic, and sociolinguistic aspects, e.g., its general frequency of and the syntactic and situational limitations on its use, its generalizability and collocational probabilities, etc.

2. Some word learning occurs incidentally through reading. A considerable amount of word learning occurs indirectly through exposure to new words in context-

rich activities such as reading.

3. Word learning involves a range of skills. As word knowledge involves different abilities such as recalling and inferring meaning, comprehending a text, and communicating orally, the approaches to word learning should be effective, that is they must be multifaceted in their requirements and rich in the information about the target words.

35 advanced-intermediate ESL students participated in this ten-week study. It investigated whether L2 learners who were exposed to a combination of reading and interactive vocabulary instruction would have considerable gains in their knowledge of academic vocabulary. The subjects were divided into two groups, experimental and control. Both groups had an assignment to read self-selected materials for four hours a week. The only difference in the instruction of the two groups was that the experimental group received three hours per week of interactive vocabulary instruction. Treatment lessons will include most of the following: (1) multiple exposure to words; (2) exposures to words in meaningful contexts; (3) rich and varied information about each word; (4) establishment of ties between instructed words, student experience, and prior knowledge; and (5) active participation by students in the learning process.

According to the results of the study, the group that had interactive vocabulary instruction accompanied by required readings along with self-selected readings had greater gains in vocabulary knowledge. Zimmerman suggests that the group's outperformance resulted from their exposure to the target vocabulary in natural context through meaningful interactive activities. Moreover, it was shown that repeated encounters lead to a better understanding on how vocabulary items are used in actual communication. Zimmerman asserts that although reading is learners' only source of meaningful encounters with new words, the learners will probably not see the necessary target vocabulary items often enough to acquire them only by reading. She adds that especially advance level L2 learners face this problem most due to the fact that in advance readings target words become more specialized and occur with lower frequency.

The above studies evidently demonstrate that vocabulary instruction and incidental vocabulary learning from context are useful adjuncts to each other, which is supported more and more as new studies are conducted on them. As Sökmen (1997) sets forth:

The pendulum has swung from direct teaching of vocabulary (the

grammar translation method) to incidental (the communicative approach) and now, laudably, back to the middle: implicit and explicit learning (p.239).

Sökmen is apparently content with this shift in vocabulary teaching considering that each method, with their own strengths and weaknesses, can complement each other thoroughly.

In this specific study, interactive vocabulary teaching as discussed by Zimmerman (1997a) will be our focus as the vocabulary instruction strategy.

CHAPTER 4

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The main motivation for the current study arises from the evidence that although vocabulary has attracted increased interest since the 1980s, researchers and teachers continue to give less importance to it than to syntax and phonology (Laufer, 1986, cited in Zimmerman, 1997a). It is not surprising that vocabulary is a serious obstacle to many L2 learners. In Meara's (1984) study of L2 university students, for example, lexical errors outnumbered grammatical errors.

The picture does not seem to be different in the EFL classrooms in Turkey where the focus of vocabulary teaching in most L2 classrooms is highly based on traditional definition-based vocabulary teaching. The students just memorise the vocabulary to pass the exam. Observing these missing points the teacher became aware of the severe problems concerning vocabulary. One of the problems that students encountered was in encoding the meanings; they were unable to encode the meanings of the words they faced. As a second problem, what we observed is that students knew the meaning of the word but they could not use the vocabulary in an appropriate context. As a result, the learners are not provided with opportunities which would enable them with deeper processing of new vocabulary items in their minds as well as with sufficient exposure to the new vocabulary in a variety of contexts. This also leads to a lack in L2 learners' Receptive word knowledge(R), which refers to the words and expressions students can understand when reading and hearing them, and Productive word knowledge (P), which refers to the words and expressions that the students can use correctly when producing oral or written language (Meara 1990, Nation 1990, Laufer 1998). Thus, many students suffer from not being able to understand words when they read and hear and to use the words in oral or written language. Simply state, this teaching methodology of new vocabulary; i.e. teaching new items in isolation or with word lists, prevents students from using the new word for communicative purposes, which really is a serious pitfall.

CHAPTER 5

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Based on the arguments above, the ultimate purpose of this study is to investigate the role of interactive vocabulary instruction on enhancing Turkish L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge.

In line with this purpose, the following research questions will be investigated:

1. Will there be a progress in the experimental group's vocabulary knowledge who learn vocabulary through interactive vocabulary instruction?
2. Will there be a progress in the control group's vocabulary knowledge who learn vocabulary through traditional definition-based vocabulary instruction?
3. Will there be a change in the experimental group's attitudes to vocabulary learning and vocabulary learning activities after they are exposed to interactive vocabulary instruction?

Hypotheses (H) deriving from these questions are:

H1. The group who will have the interactive vocabulary instruction will outperform the other group in their vocabulary knowledge, i.e., in their ability to understand target words when they read and hear them (R) and to use correctly in oral or written language (P).

H2. The students that have the interactive vocabulary treatment will develop a more positive attitude towards vocabulary learning after the treatment than before.

CHAPTER 6

METHODOLOGY

6.1. Participants

This is an experimental study, which aims at specifying the role of interactive vocabulary instruction on learners' vocabulary knowledge. In line with this purpose, the subjects were placed as experimental and control group according to their proficiency level, which was specified to be the same by the Michigan Placement Test before starting the research. This specific study included 23 students who studied at the 10th grade at Çağ College. All these students have Turkish as their L1. The gender factor was not taken into consideration.

Each class had the same teacher. The teacher was at the same time the researcher in order to eliminate the variable in teacher instruction. In terms of the hours of instruction, there were no differences between control and experimental group. Both groups received four hours of maincourse and two for the other supplementary. In addition, both groups used the book Matrix Upper Intermediate (2003) and its Workbook, in order to provide consistency within the study. For the supplementary, they studied Master Class and its Workbook. The control group just dealt with coursebook vocabulary exercises, which could be considered traditional definition-based vocabulary instruction such as fill-in-the-blanks, guessing the meaning or matching exercises (see the sample reading in Appendix 1 for its mainstream vocabulary exercises).

6.2. Treatment

For the purpose of the study, the classroom treatment carried out in the experimental attempts to support learners' vocabulary acquisition process more efficiently by means of instruction procedures, which are designed to increase cognitive processing of the selected words in reading texts.

Treatment lessons were designed on the basis of assumptions about vocabulary learning emphasized by Zimmerman (see section 3.2.1). The activities were designed in line with the same purposes (see Zimmerman in section 3.2.1).

In the first semester of the 2005-2006 academic year the eight-week interactive vocabulary treatment was initiated for the experimental group of the study. The experimental group received two class hours per week of interactive vocabulary instruction.

This instruction was handled as a part of the maincourse. Put differently, the vocabulary instruction took the reading texts in the book used in the maincourse constituted the base for the design of the vocabulary activities

The interactive vocabulary instruction for the experimental group aimed to provide students with meaningful context for vocabulary and to establish a connection between target words and students schemata and finally to trigger active participation of the students (see Appendix 2).

The activities for the experimental group included:

- Word map
- Semantic mapping
- Guessing

Firstly by completing word map, students were expected to work on the target language and they were expected to use their imagination and creativity. Also dictionary usage was supported (see Appendix 5 for examples of word map).

Secondly semantic mapping encourages students to activate their prior knowledge, to think the links among the target vocabulary. It enables critical thinking. Appendix 6 also includes examples of semantic mapping.

Finally in the guessing activity, students were referring to textual clues in order to come up with the meaning of the word. These textual clues may include articles, prepositions, affixes, etc. In this activity the students were not expected to use dictionary to improve their guessing skills (see Appendix 7).

In interactive vocabulary instruction lesson with the experimental group the following steps were usually followed:

- Pre-reading: By looking at the given clues predicting on the topic, using skimming and scanning techniques and presenting new vocabulary through guessing.

- While-reading: Answering comprehension questions related to the reading text. Students could see the new words in context.
- Post-reading: Practising the vocabulary items through activities such as word-map, semantic mapping, demonstrating target words in written expression in meaningful sentences.

6.3. Data Collection

In order to see the role of interactive vocabulary instruction in students' vocabulary knowledge, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. The quantitative data were obtained from vocabulary checklist (see Appendix 3). All of the participants from the experimental and control group were asked to complete the same vocabulary checklist on a pre- and post- test basis to determine whether there were gains in effective vocabulary acquisition over the term. The items in vocabulary checklist contain the words that the students have covered in their lessons. The qualitative data were obtained from attitude questionnaire (see Appendix 4) in order to determine whether there was a change in the experimental group's attitudes to vocabulary learning and vocabulary learning activities after they are exposed to interactive vocabulary instruction.

The vocabulary checklists were given to both experimental and control groups as pre and post checklists. The lexical items in the checklist were chosen from the vocabulary that the students worked on in their reading classes. In order to eliminate technical and non-frequent words the researcher used Collins Cobuild Dictionary as a frequency check. All the items were the most frequent vocabulary. The checklist included 45 vocabulary items. The category of the lexical items was not taken into consideration.

The vocabulary checklist was designed to evaluate whether students had vocabulary knowledge or not by means of four point elicitation scale. Figure 1 depicts the scale in detail:

Self-report categories	
A	I don't know the word.
B	I have seen the word before but am not sure of the meaning.
C	I understand the word when I see or hear it in a sentence, but don't know how to use it in my speaking or writing.
D	I can use the word in a sentence.

Figure 4.1. Elicitation scale – self-report categories

[Adapted from Zimmerman (1997a) and VKS (Vocabulary Knowledge scale) elicitation scale in Paribakht and Wesche (1997)]

As can be seen, the scale ranges from unknown (category A) to the exact knowledge (category D) of the word. The students were given the list of the words and they were asked to indicate their level of knowledge for each item.

The scale was evaluated out of score four as represented in Figure 2:

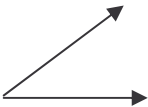
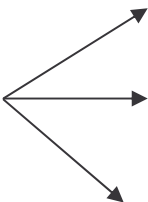
Self-report Categories	Possible scores	Meaning of score
A 	0	The word is not familiar at all.
B 	1	The word is familiar, but its meaning is unknown.
C 	2	A correct synonym or translation is given.
D 	3	The word is used with semantic appropriateness in a sentence.
	4	The word is used with semantic appropriateness and grammatical accuracy in a sentence.

Figure 4.2. Scoring categories- meaning of scores

[Adapted from VKS scoring categories in Paribaht and Wesche (1997)]

As it can be seen from Figure 2, if a student chose category A that means s/he did not know the word at all and it is equal to 0 point. If a student chose category B, it means the word is familiar but its meaning is still unknown. For C category, the students could give a correct synonym or translation for the word. For D finally, the learners were instructed to use that particular vocabulary item in a sentence, illustrating their knowledge with regard to both meaning and use of the word as clearly as possible. The choice D would not be considered valid if they did not use vocabulary item in a sentence just as it was instructed.

For the aims of the study, data collected from the above mentioned instruments were analysed by means of a combination of qualitative and quantitative strategies. Lynch (1996) calls this combination as a mixed study design and he claims that it provides the most thorough information possible as data is validated by means of a triangulation of various types of qualitative and quantitative instrumentation.

T- tests were applied to analyse the data obtained from the vocabulary checklists. The post-checklist was the dependent variable, and the treatment was the independent variable. The paired-samples t-tests were applied in order to calculate the differences between the pre and post- checklist scores of a group. The independent sample t-tests were applied in order to calculate the differences between the control and experimental groups before and after the study. The significance level for both t-tests was $p < 0.05$.

To analyse the data from the attitude questionnaire, pattern coding, suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994) was used in this study. The researcher reduced and transformed the responses given to four open-ended questions in the questionnaire into smaller number of sets and themes in order to form patterns of answers.

CHAPTER 7

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

In this section, the research findings will be presented on the basis of the research questions:

1. Will there be a difference between the L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge who learn vocabulary through traditional definition-based vocabulary instruction and those who learn vocabulary through interactive vocabulary instruction?
2. Will there be a change in the experimental group's attitudes to vocabulary learning and vocabulary learning activities after they are exposed to interactive vocabulary instruction?

7.1. Findings Acquired from the Vocabulary Pre-Checklists

As for the first research question, quantitative data obtained by the vocabulary checklists will be presented. Regarding the second question, the results of the attitude questionnaire, which provide the qualitative data for the study, will be discussed in detail.

As aforementioned, in order to see whether there were any differences between the control and experimental groups in terms of their vocabulary knowledge at the beginning of the study, an independent samples t-test was applied to the pre-checklist scores of the students in both groups. According to the results of the t- test, no significant differences ($p < 0.05$) were found between the two groups in terms of their pre-checklist scores before the treatment (see Table 1).

Scores of pre-test for experimental and control groups are given below:

Table 7.1. Differences between the Experimental and Control Groups' Learners (N=23) in Terms of Their Pre-Checklist Scores

Group	N	Mean	Sd	T	P
Experimental	12	46.25	5.69	-.041	.967
Control	11	48.18	8.02		

As seen in Table 1 above, the two groups' target knowledge of vocabulary were similar to each other before the treatment started. And the statistical results proved that the groups are not statistically different from each other, the experimental group (M: 46.25) and the control group (M: 48.18). There are 45 vocabulary items in the checklist and the maximum score is 4, so (45x4) the total scores are out of 180.

Table 7.2. Differences between the Experimental and Control Groups' Learners (N=23) in Terms of Their Post-Checklist Scores

Group	N	Mean	Sd.	T	P
Experimental	12	80.41	2.64	8.05	.000
Control	11	50.90	6.31		

Table 2 above shows the post-checklist results obtained at the end of the treatment. As seen in the table, the post-checklist results depict that the experimental and control group of the study are statistically significant from each other ($p < 0.05$). This may indicate that the treatment including word map, semantic mapping and guessing enabled subjects to understand and use lexical items effectively. When the Mean scores of both groups are considered, it is seen that there is a big difference between the experimental group (M: 80.41) and the control group (M: 50.90).

These findings are also presented in Figure 3 below:

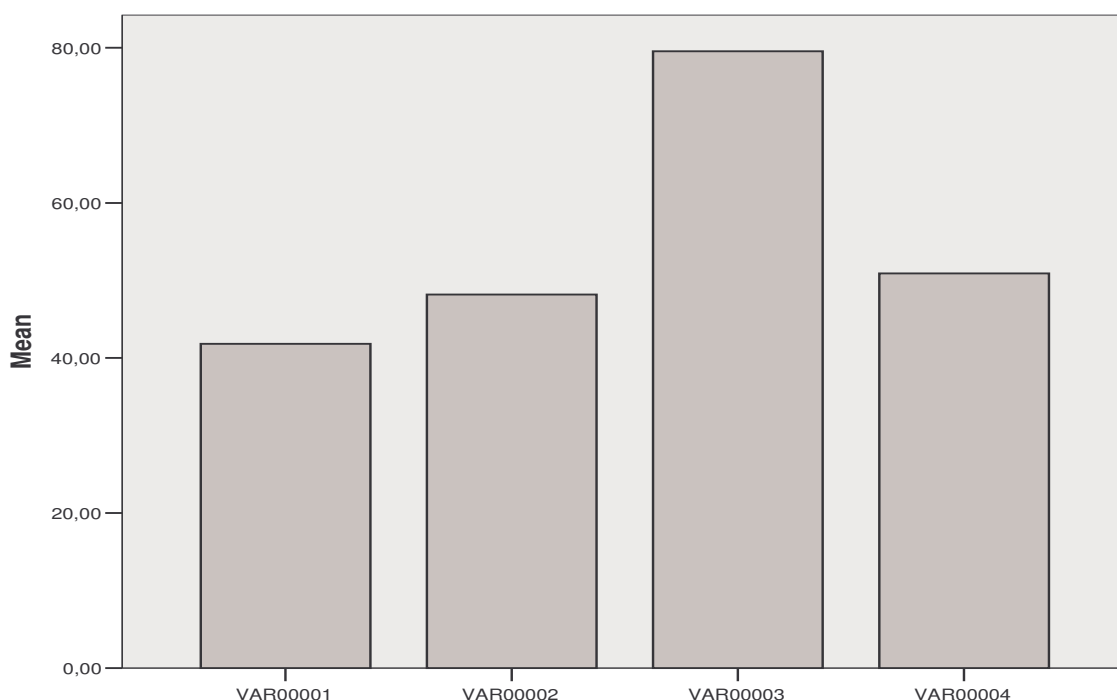


Figure 7.1.

As it can be seen in Figure 3, the experimental group outperform the control group and this difference is statistically significant ($.000 < 0.05$). We can claim that the subjects in the experimental group were able to use the lexicon more productively and more consciously related to the main coursebook reading passages.

7.2. An Overall Look at the Data

When we examine overall results for pre-checklist for the experimental and control group we see that there is no statistically significant difference, which refers to a good indication to start the experiment. On the other hand, the post-checklist results reveal that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups. This difference indicates that treatment has worked efficiently. For example, the subjects in the experimental group could easily understand and make comprehensible sentences by using target lexicon in the checklist.

Table 7.3. Pre-checklist and Post-checklist Frequency Results of the Experimental and the Control Group

Group	Test	Mean
Exp	Pre	46.25
	Post	80.41
Cont	Pre	48.18
	Post	50.90

7.3. Findings Obtained from the Attitude Questionnaire

In this section, the results acquired from the attitude questionnaire which were given to the experimental group (see Appendix 3) will be presented on the basis of the questions asked. Students were asked to write either in their mother tongue or L2.

7.3.1. Attitudes Toward Vocabulary Learning

1. Do you like learning new vocabulary?

An analysis of learner responses to the first question in the pre-questionnaire showed that the majority of students (9/12) in the experimental group enjoyed learning vocabulary, whereas one student reported that he did not like learning vocabulary, but he had to (see Table 4 below).

In the post-questionnaire, the learners' responses to this question did not change at all. The number of students who enjoy learning new vocabulary increased from 9/12 to 10/12 students in the post-questionnaire. In a way, the experimental group students maintained their positive attitude towards vocabulary learning after the interactive vocabulary treatment.

Table 7.4. The Frequency of the Responses to Question 1 in the Pre and Post Questionnaire

Do you like learning new vocabulary?

Questionnaire	Yes	Sometimes	No
Pre (n= 12)	9	2	1
Post (n=12)	10	1	1

7.3.2. The Use of Newly Learnt Vocabulary

2. Do you use the words you learn outside the classroom?

In the pre-questionnaire, as an answer to the question whether they could use the newly learnt vocabulary, 11/12 students in the experimental group said they could (see Table V). Some of their responses were the following:

I use the words while I am chatting with natives.

Etrafımda bazı insanlar benimle İngilizce konuştuğu için hayatımda zaten İngilizce hep vardır.

Evet kullanıyorum. Genelde bilgisayarda ve günlük yaşamda kullanıyorum.

1/12 student said that he can never use the vocabulary due to the hardships he comes across in trying to do so. The following response emerged:

Hayır dilim alışmadığından ve birbirine karıştırdığım için kullanmıyorum.

Table 7.5. The Frequency of the Responses to Question 3 in the Pre and Post Questionnaire

Do you use the words you learn outside the classroom?

Questionnaire	Yes	No
Pre (n= 12)	11	1
Post (n=12)	12	0

The number of students reporting that they could use new words increased from 11/12 students to 12/12 students after the treatment, as can be seen in the post-questionnaire.

3. Are there any methods that you find useful in learning new words?

In the pre-questionnaire, the students thought that the best ways to learn new vocabulary are memorizing from vocabulary lists (4/12), watching foreign TV channels and films (3/12), reading magazines (2/12), playing vocabulary games (3/12).

As it is seen, in the pre-questionnaire, the students favored the traditional type of vocabulary learning methods, memorizing from lists, mostly.

The analysis of the post-questionnaire reveals that the students in the experimental group thought the best ways to learn new vocabulary are using and practicing new words in new contexts (3/12), participating in lessons in which the teacher provides different vocabulary teaching activities (6/12), watching foreign TV channels and films (2/12), reading magazines (1/12).

As seen in Table VI below, the students appeared to have gained an appreciation for contexts, reading, and lessons where there are opportunities for them to use the new words by the time the study was over.

Table 7.6. The order of the Best Methods to Learn New Vocabulary in the Pre and Post Questionnaire

Which methods do you find useful in learning new words?

Methods	Pre-questionnaire
Most favored	1. Memorizing from vocabulary lists 2. Watching foreign TV channels and films 3. Playing vocabulary games
Least favored	4. Reading magazines
	Post-questionnaire
Most favored	1. Participating in lessons which the teacher provides different vocabulary activities 2. Using and practicing new words in new contexts 3. Reading magazines
Least favored	4. Watching foreign TV channels and films

7.3.3. Time Spent Learning Vocabulary

4. How much time do you spend on vocabulary learning weekly?

In the pre-questionnaire, 8/12 students declared that they spend up to 1 hour per week when asked how much time they spent on vocabulary development on a weekly basis. 3/12 students reported that they did not study but they learned from reading magazine articles and watching films on TV. One student said s/he prefers working on vocabulary one week before the examinations and not to study at all for the rest of the time.

Table 7.7. The frequency of the Responses to Question 4 in the Pre and Post Questionnaire

How much time do you spend on vocabulary learning weekly?

Questionnaire	up to 1 hour	right before exams	never
Pre (n= 12)	8	1	3
Post (n=12)	9	1	2

In the post-questionnaire, the number of students who spend up to 1 hour on vocabulary learning increased from 8/12 to 9/12 students in the post-questionnaire. Thus, the experimental group students maintained their positive attitude towards vocabulary learning after the interactive vocabulary treatment.

CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study investigated the possible role of interactive vocabulary instruction in the vocabulary knowledge of Turkish EFL learners studying at 10th grade at Çağ College. Also it attempted to explore whether there would be a change in the attitudes of the learners towards vocabulary learning after they were exposed to interactive vocabulary instruction.

The analysis of the vocabulary pre-checklist showed that, before the interactive vocabulary instruction, the experimental and control groups did not differ significantly in their target vocabulary knowledge. These two groups were similar both in their ability to comprehend and use the target words.

The analysis of the post-checklist results indicated that statistically significant differences had been recorded between the experimental and control group learners in terms of their knowledge of target vocabulary after the treatment. The level of vocabulary knowledge of the experimental group students came out to be higher than that of the control group's students although both groups had shown considerable improvement in their knowledge when compared to their respective starting level of knowledge. In other words, interactive vocabulary instruction appeared to have a great impact on learners' vocabulary. This result corroborate with Zimmerman's (1997a) study where the interactive vocabulary instruction supplemented with course-related and self-selected reading produced significant gains in vocabulary knowledge. This finding is also in line with Paribakht and Wesche's (1997) finding that incidental learning of vocabulary accompanied by systematic vocabulary instruction produces greater gains than incidental learning of vocabulary alone.

Further analysis of post-checklist results revealed that the group that had the interactive vocabulary instruction had performed significantly better in the use of the target vocabulary accurately and appropriately within a context than the control group learners. Thus, the interactive vocabulary instruction produced better results not only in terms of learner's ability to understand but also in terms of their use of the words. In other words, interactive vocabulary treatment helped to enhance productive vocabulary

knowledge of learners, while the traditional definition-based vocabulary instruction was only able to equip learners with receptive knowledge of vocabulary. Therefore, this finding confirms Paribakht and Wesche's (1997) finding that there was a statistically important improvement in the learners' ability to define and use the target vocabulary that was taught through explicit teaching.

The target words were introduced in meaningful contexts in both groups, that is they were introduced through reading. Thus, both types of instructions were in line with the idea that vocabulary is best presented within context. However, the interactive and definition-based vocabulary instruction differed from each other with regard to some other important aspects. All through the study, the experimental group students had multiple exposures to the target words in natural contexts. The learners in this group encountered each word first through a reading passage, then through different activities completed in groups or pairs. Thus, repeated encounters may have led to better retention and a better sense of how words are used.

According to Zimmerman (1997a), when reading is the only source where learners can encounter new words, the learner probably does not encounter the necessary target words enough to learn them. Thus, learners can only have multiple exposures to vocabulary through activities designed by their teachers.

In addition to multiple exposures, the learners also had rich and varied information about each vocabulary item, e.g., meaning, form, use, collocation, and this led to a better understanding of the vocabulary item.

Moreover, when students' experience and prior knowledge were used, students became more involved in the learning process. When teaching target vocabulary in the experimental group, the students' background knowledge was more referred to, they were more successful in making memory associations in their vocabulary networks, which led to improvement in their vocabulary knowledge.

Finally, the students in the experimental group that had the interactive vocabulary instruction participated more in the learning process. Active participation was especially beneficial in learning the use of the target vocabulary items. The vocabulary tasks demanded the accurate and appropriate use of newly studied vocabulary. The more the learners used the vocabulary, the deeper they processed the vocabulary, through which they had the chance to turn their receptive vocabulary into productive vocabulary. In this respect, the roles of the teacher and the learners in the interactive vocabulary instruction gain importance. In teaching the new vocabulary the

teacher provided opportunities to the students in the experimental group where they could explore the meaning and use of vocabulary items themselves. In other word, they were not passive learners, but active participants in their own learning.

Beside from the vocabulary gains, the analysis of the attitude questionnaire showed interesting results. The pre-attitude questionnaire indicated that, before the study, the experimental group students were conscious about the importance of the vocabulary in language learning. They reported that they experienced some difficulties in the retention and the use of the vocabulary items they encountered within the reading texts covered in the classes before the study. Finally, the learners, before the study, appeared to be favoring rote memorizing the newly learnt vocabulary items rather than learning them through interactive vocabulary activities.

The post-questionnaire revealed that the interactive vocabulary treatment helped change some ideas of the experimental group learners about the useful ways to learn vocabulary. The students had a remarkable tendency to memorize lists of vocabulary items before the study. As it is known, rote memorization of new words has been ruling the world of English learning since the era of the Grammar Translation Method. Memorizing new words has been considered unproductive and ineffective although in some occasions we may make use of it. As the results of the post-questionnaire illustrated, the students that had had the interactive vocabulary instruction appeared to value interactive vocabulary activities more than memorizing word lists, which suggested a possible relationship between the amount of exposure to interactive vocabulary teaching and its perceived value. Zimmerman's (1997a) study showed similar results in that the learners after the treatment, showed a tendency to place more value on activities and reading than on the non-contextualized study skills method, such as memorization, doing drills, etc.

CHAPTER 9

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The findings of the study offer several pedagogical implications for second language teaching contexts. First of all, when preparing teaching materials for interactive vocabulary instruction, having the role teacher-researcher for the first time, I realized that vocabulary enhancement activities in most textbooks do not always reflect the latest research and developments in the field of EFL or meet the vocabulary needs of EFL learners at a sufficient level.

As it is observed in this study, students, though they do not want to, can not productively use the new words whose meanings are familiar to them productively later, as they have no idea about how to use them in context. In addition, although several encounters are needed for learning a new vocabulary item, there is no systematic vocabulary revision of vocabulary items in most of the textbooks. This situation leads learners, in a way, to memorize the meanings of the vocabulary items in long lists, and probably because of being unaware of other useful alternatives, even to think that memorization of vocabulary in this way is one of the best in learning new vocabulary.

Even if these factors are taken into account in the textbook or the material, the teacher, being usually unaware of the importance of effective vocabulary teaching, does not draw attention to vocabulary and treats it as something that would develop in the learners' mind naturally. The teacher, thus, focuses solely on guessing and reading comprehension or, at most, traditional definition based vocabulary exercises. S/he also takes it for granted that students learn new vocabulary through their own efforts working at home without taking the class time, which they think should not be spent on vocabulary building activities.

Up to the time of the treatment, the researcher believed, that vocabulary was best built up by reading extensively outside the classroom. However, the interactive vocabulary treatment revealed an important point about word learning: Word learning is a task that is too complex for the language learner to deal with all by himself because it is far more than the ability to define the word and involves a great deal of information

about it. Thus, reading alone or activities that give only superficial level of information, e.g., definition, about the target words do not always suffice against that complexity.

Finally, the present study suggests that, however traditional and persistent learners might be at the beginning, they can adapt to certain changes if the teacher is determined and patient enough in demonstrating the usefulness of a certain type of instruction via the activities and instruction designed. In that respect, we can say that what matters most is the teachers' perception of a new method or technique to be used in the classroom in most cases in the language classrooms, not only the students'. Thus, we need to include discussed considerations into our teaching and be aware of the need for a much more comprehensive and systematic vocabulary instruction.

The findings and pedagogical implications should be viewed in the light of its limitations. First, it is believed that the results would be even more promising if the interactive vocabulary instruction was adopted and implemented for a longer period of time for this particular group of learners. Second, the findings of the study need to be cross-validated by other data collection instruments and procedures, such as private interviews, student diaries, think-aloud protocols, etc., for the results to be more reliable.

Finally, as in the case of most comparative studies in the field, it is difficult to draw strong generalizations due to the limited number of students. Further research with a great number of EFL/ESL students in various cultural contexts in classes of different proficiency levels may yield further information about the probable effects of interactive vocabulary teaching on vocabulary learning.

To conclude, vocabulary teaching constitutes an area of continual concern for language learners since they are repeatedly faced with the need to have a sufficient level of vocabulary and to be equipped with the necessary information to be able to use them productively. Although no course of instruction could possibly furnish all the insight that a foreign language learner would need in order to successfully learn and use every new vocabulary item, teaching words interactively may help to give learners insights about the word system in English. This would provide valuable information that they would probably not acquire on their own and improve their understanding of accuracy as well as semantic and sociological appropriateness of words in this system. We need to investigate how we can teach vocabulary items most effectively and find out the problems surrounding such a decision. This needs to be the concern of all foreign language educators.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Unit 9

WISDOM and KNOWLEDGE

Skills

1. Reading for gist

Read the text quickly and find out what experiments connected with art were carried out and what the results showed.

2. Matching statements to content

From statements 1-8, choose four which reflect the content of the text.

- 1 It is generally thought that pigeons are stupid.
- 2 Birds are very discerning about what they eat.
- 3 Scientists can assess pigeons' intelligence by rewarding them with food.
- 4 Pigeons appear to be able to recognise different artistic styles.
- 5 Pigeons can tell one Impressionist artist from another.
- 6 The test with students proved that pigeons could be trained to do anything.
- 7 The students probably failed the tests because they approached them in a different way.

- 8 Pigeons apparently enjoy appearing on TV.

3. Writing a summary

Discuss these questions with a partner, then write answers to form a summary of what you have read in the text.

- 1 What did the pigeons have to do in the first experiment?
- 2 What were the results?
- 3 What could the pigeons not do?
- 4 What did the British study consist of?
- 5 What were the results?
- 6 What did the TV programme show?

READING**Art-loving pigeons are not so dumb after all**

1 Pigeons are not as daft as they appear. In fact, they are so discerning that they can tell a Picasso from a Monet. For years, we have assumed that the flocks at Trafalgar Square were not capable of doing anything but waiting scrounge food from gullible tourists. But new research suggests that they are probably just resting after taking the art at the National Gallery.

2 Scientists in Japan have shown that pigeons can outperform art students in telling Picassos from Monets

10 while in Britain pigeons have beaten university students in a race to work out where food is hidden. The Japanese researchers repeatedly showed pigeons in individual cages 30 different paintings by Picasso and Monet. The pictures were flashed up in the birds' cages on a screen below which was a full container of seed.

3 The birds rapidly learned that if they pecked a Picasso, they were rewarded with food while Monet brought no reward at all. When they began to enjoy near perfect scores, the scientists thought this was because

20 birds had perfect memories. So they showed them new unseen Picassos and Monets and found the pigeons were able to identify the right artists again, showing they had visual concept of style. They could tell the difference between Monet's dappled light and vivid colours and Picasso's surreal angular figures. But when work by art who painted in the same Impressionist or Cubist art style were brought in, the birds became confused - just like some art students.

4 In the British study, town pigeons beat 200 university Students in a contest to work out which of 60 coloured bar charts showed where food was. Slides showing three red columns of varying heights on a white background were projected on to a wall. The pigeons, who had learned earlier they would get the right food if they pecked the images, got it right every time. Only two students in 200 worked out that the food lay under the graphs with the smallest coloured areas. The kindest explanation is that the students were searching for a more complicated answer. However, the pigeons no doubt feel that it's time their human rivals tried a little bit harder in future.

5 The pigeons' amazing brainpower was revealed in a three-part TV documentary called *Animal Minds*. Producer Paul Reddish said: 'When it comes to visual concepts, the brain of the art student and the pigeon may very similar.' The programme also arrived at these her startling conclusions: certain monkeys in the jungle suffer from the same levels of stress as office workers; bees teach each other not only where to find food but whether it is of a high quality, and most animals can show some emotion.

The Express

Vocabulary**4 Word search**

Find words or phrases in the text which mean:

Paragraph 1

a unintelligent b take or accept as being true c easily persuaded or deceived

Paragraph 2

d do better than

e again and again

Paragraph 3

f strike or bite with a beak g a general or abstract idea h unable to make a decision

Paragraph 4

i difficult j competitors

Paragraph 5

k shown l I very surprising

5 What's the difference?

Many of these words appear in the text. Use the correct alternatives to complete sentences a and b in 1-5.

1 take in (line 6)/work out (line 11)

- a It took me ages to ____ what the answer to the question was.
b The teacher speaks so quickly that I find it difficult to ____ everything she says.

2 tell the difference between (line 23) / mistake one for another

- a The twins look so similar that most people ____ b Can you ____ a Monet and a Picasso painting?

3 vivid (line 24)/surreal (line 25)

- a I really like wearing ____ colours like red and orange.
b The woman's face in that painting is so strange that it looks ____

4 win / beat (line 29)

- a Did England ever ____ the World Cup?
b Our local baseball team always seems to ____ its opponents.

5 contest (line 30) / context

- a You can't always understand the meaning of a word from its ____ b The tennis champion's victory was so easy there was really no

APPENDIX 2

LESSON PLANS FOR INTERACTIVE VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

WEEK 1

Step 1

The teacher asked the students if they felt happy and why? The teacher encouraged the students to talk about things that made them happy. The students asked to make a list of things that came into their mind when they heard the word happiness.

Step 2

The teacher asked the students to answer the questions in the questionnaire about happiness in order to see their attitude about life.

Step 3

The teacher asked them if they knew what “case study” and “action plan” meant and explained the meanings. The teacher asked the students to do the semantic mapping for the target vocabulary: The teacher asked the students to do the semantic mapping for the target vocabulary: *promise (v)*, *cancel (v)*, *conscious (adj)*, *discussion (n)*; (category of these words is not our concern). *Semantic mapping* was done in order to activate schemata. By writing the target word on the board the teacher wanted to elicit related vocabulary, thus integrating their previous knowledge with current knowledge.

The steps of semantic mapping are as follows:

1. Introducing the target word: The teacher announced each target word of the unit by drawing a large oval on the whiteboard and sometimes displaying a picture relating to the reading text’s topic to get the brainstorming procedure going and also to stimulate students’ thoughts. As Heimlich and Pittelman (1986) claims, in introducing the topic pictures play a vital role.

2. Brainstorming: The teacher asked the students to think ideas related to each word. This allowed them to make use of their prior knowledge or experiences. Brainstorming is an application of the schema theory. This theory attempts to explain how people integrate new information with their existing knowledge. When a person encounters new information, s/he tends to link this new information to appropriate schemata (Alvermann and Swafford, 1989; Kalgren, 1992). Typically in brainstorming, ideas from one student will trigger ideas from other students “in a chain reaction thought process” (Heimlich and Pittelman, 1986: 34)

3. Personalizing the map: After reading the text in each unit, students were asked to adapt or change the map again. Students were also asked to make any necessary additions or deletions.

Step 4

The students read the text titled “Happiness” on pages 16-17.

Step 5

The students completed the word map for each target vocabulary. In this stage each student used their own dictionaries in order to find definition, synonym, antonym and other forms of the word. For each word, the teacher gave parts of speech. Then they found the sentence with that word within the text and wrote it on the word map. Later they used the word in a sentence and found an association for that word. These steps were done in the guidance of the teacher.

Step 6

Students skimmed the texts to answer the comprehension questions and vocabulary exercises.

Step 7

Students in groups of 4 were asked to write a case study about a problem of a celebrity they chose and provide an action plan for the problem. They were supposed to use the vocabulary items from the following list: *promise (v)*, *cancel (v)*, *conscious (adj)*, *discussion (n)*.

Each group presented their articles to the class.

WEEK 2

Step 1

The teacher asked the students if they knew the meanings of “coach potato” and “silly box”. Then explained that these are the phrases used for TV. The teacher tried to elicit the reasons why we named TV as a “coach potato” and “silly box”. The teacher wanted them to talk about their TV habits and asked some questions: Does TV play a vital role in your life? Do you like watching *discussion* programmes? Who controls the *remote* control in your family? Do you think people really *admit* that they watch many hours in front of the TV? Which programme can you call as a *disaster*?

Step 2

Looking at the picture, students discussed what the text might be about.

Step 3

Students scan the passage in order to choose an appropriate title within the given choices.

Step 4

The teacher asked the students to do the semantic mapping for the target vocabulary: *vital (adj)*, *volunteer (adj)*, *criminal (n)*, *diary (n)*, *remote (adj)*, *admit (v)*.

Step 5

The students read the text called “No TV no problem?” on page 30.

Step 6

After reading the text, our second task *word map* was handed out to students in experimental group. They completed word map.

Step 7

Students skimmed the text to answer the multiple choice questions and vocabulary exercises.

WEEK 3**Unit 4 titled “A helping hand”****Step 1**

The teacher brought volumes of National Geographic magazine into the classroom. Students went through the pages of the magazine in groups of 4 and reported to the class what kind of information was presented. The teacher also encouraged the students to use some vocabulary by asking some questions: Is there an article/ a photo about animal that *suffers* in the *wild*?/ Anything about *starvation*? Is there an article about animals released from *captivity*?

Step 2

The teacher and students talk about what they know about orang-utans and animals on the brink of extinction. The teacher preteaches the target vocabulary: *starvation (n)*, *suffer (v)*, *vital (adj)*, *release (v)*, *survival (n)*, *wild (adj)* by doing *semantic mapping*.

Students read the text and personalised the semantic map if they could.

Step 3

Students did the *word map* for each target vocabulary.

Step 4

Students read the text again in order to answer the true/false, and vocabulary exercises on page 43.

Step 5

The teacher handed out worksheet to check their understanding.

WORKSHEET

Complete the sentences by making the underlined words clear.

1. If I had to live in the wild,
2. Starvation in the wilderness may be resulted from..... .
3. The animals in the wild will suffer if..... .
4. The released orang-utans were taken to..... .
5. Protecting the endangered animals is a vital issue because..... .

WEEK 4**Step 1**

The teacher brought different success stories about celebrities and distributes them to the students. Students in groups of 4 read the stories and told it to the class. Then they tried to find the common point of each story. Talking about the challenges the celebrities might faced.

Step 2

Talking about hobbies and making a list of them. Eliciting the phrase “mountain climbing” by looking at the picture on page 56. Asking some questions: What are the names of the highest points in the world? Do you think mountain climbing is *demanding*? What may be the problems climbers faced?

Step 3

The teacher preteaches the target vocabulary: *provide(v)*, *dual(adj)*, *challenge(n)*, *explode(v)*, *demanding(adj)* by doing semantic mapping.

Step 4

Students did the word map for each target vocabulary.

Step 5

Students read the text again in order to answer the comprehension questions, and vocabulary exercises on page 57.

WORKSHEET

Complete the sentences by making the underlined words clear.

1. Will Smith has dual role; both
2. After the atomic bomb Hiroshima exploded
3. The pop star faced many challenges in his early ages, for example.....
4. Being a mother is very demanding because.....
5. Before the exam the teacher provided us

WORKSHEET

Answer the questions below

1. Write down the things you have to provide before climbing a mountain.
.....
2. Which of the previous president of Türkiye had dual citizenship?
.....
3. What are the challenges you are facing as a learner of English?
.....
4. When did the bomb explode in London?
.....

WEEK 5

Step 1

The teacher showed the poster of the film “Titanic” and encouraged the students talk about the event. Asking some questions: What is the *mystery* of “Titanic”? How did it *disappear*? Did the *crew* and the passengers manage to *abandon* the ship?

Step 2

Looking at the title and picture on page 68 in order to guess the topic.

Step 3

The teacher asked the students to do the semantic mapping for the target vocabulary: *harbour(n)*, *crew(n)*, *abandon(v)*, *mystery(n)*, *disappear(v)*.

Step 4

Students read the text in order to answer the multiple choice questions, and vocabulary exercises on page 69.

Step 5

Students did the *word map* for each target vocabulary.

Step 6

Students were asked to write the mystery of Titanic in groups of 4 by using these words: *harbour (n)*, *crew (n)*, *abandon (v)*, *mystery (n)*, *disappear (v)*.

Each group read their story to the class.

WEEK 6**Step 1**

Explaining “gap year” and asking the students if they wanted a gap year before starting university. Talking about advantages and disadvantages of a gap year. Encouraging them to talk about the things they would like to do if they had a gap year.

Step 2

The teacher asked the students to do the semantic mapping for the target vocabulary: *reluctant (adj)*, *fellow (adj)*, *apparently (adv)*, *uneasy (adj)*.

Step 3

Students read the text titled “The reluctant backpacker” in order to answer the comprehension questions, and vocabulary exercises on page 83.

Step 4

Students did the *word map* for each target vocabulary.

WEEK 7**Step 1**

Explaining the students that they are going to read an extract from a novel called Fahrenheit 451 and giving the meaning of that temperature.

Step 2

Looking at the pictures on page 94 trying to guess the article and the images they showed.

Step 3

The teacher asked the students to do the semantic mapping for the target vocabulary: *expand (v)*.

Step 4

Students read the text titled “Fahrenheit 451” in order to answer the comprehension questions, and vocabulary exercises on page 95.

Step 5

Students did the *word map* for each target vocabulary.

WEEK 8**Step 1**

Talking about Shakespeare and his plays and asking the students his the well-known play and eliciting the answer “Romeo and Juliet”. Talking about other hero and heroines. Asking the students if they watched the film of the play.

Step 2

The teacher asked the students to do the semantic mapping for the target vocabulary: *script (n)*, *surrender (v)*, *repeatedly (adv)*, *illegal (adj)*, *marine (n)*, *immigration (n)*, *local (adj)*, *independent (adj)*.

Step 3

Students read the text titled “Love in a hot climate” in order to answer the multiple choice questions, and vocabulary exercises on page 121.

Step 4

Students did the *word map* for each target vocabulary.

WORKSHEET

Write the forms of the words given:

	Noun	Verb	Adjective	Adverb
Independent				
Immigration				
Repeat				
Surrender				

Students attitudes towards two tasks:

1. All the students participated actively in vocabulary tasks and they wrote their feedback on the attitude questionnaire.
2. They enjoyed doing semantic mapping activity since it looks like a puzzle. They tried to increase relating arrows for the specific word dealt with in that day's class. Moreover, they realised that they knew so much about that word. Their self-awareness and self-confidence raised.

3. Word map was appealing to the students of the experimental group since it included lots of charts and figures. Writing their own sentences and making association the students felt that they easily digested the vocabulary.

Researcher's beliefs concerning two groups' performances:

The researcher reported that students asked less questions about unknown vocabulary since they went over related words by doing semantic mapping. However, the control group asked lots of intervening questions about unknown vocabulary in order to make the meaning clear.

The researcher also observed that the experimental group students were more creative in answering reading comprehension questions. This may stem from the fact that experimental group activated their previous knowledge, schema, and combined different levels of knowledge during class.

Upon evaluating vocabulary exercises in each unit, the experimental group overweighed control group in their class performances.

READING 1

Case study A Jill, Personnel Manager

'Every morning I promise myself I'm going to have a good day. It doesn't matter if my flatmate has used all the hot water, my train is cancelled, or I have a problem at work. Whatever happens, happens. I just let the negative things go and think of the things that make me feel good, like the way my flatmate can always make me laugh.'

Action plan:

The intention to be happy is the most powerful tool you can have. Without it, it's easy to be overwhelmed by the bad things in life.

Case Study B Liz, Fitness Instructor

'My sisters and I recently had to plan a party. However our discussions' usually end up in a big argument with everyone yelling. So I made a conscious decision not to join in; instead, I listened to what they were saying. When they finally stopped shouting, suggested what

I thought we should do and why. Everyone calmed down and we got ourselves organized.

Action plan:

It is important to have control over your own life, rather than to simply react to events. Happy people don't become defensive or say to others: 'It's all your fault'

Case Study C Tim, TV Producer

Although I love work, last year I felt as if I was drowning I was constantly rushing around making sure everything ran smoothly. Then I started training for a marathon, and I realised how much I needed myself I decided that I'd definitely keep running. It gives me a chance to escape and think about myself for a change.

Happy people make sure they do things they enjoy. They don't 'wait for next year. Neither should you.

READING 2

Title: No TV, no problem?

1. I can now conclusively prove that the the common factor to all modern-day trouble-makers and criminals is this: they didn't watch enough TV. All the problems of the last century or so would have been avoided if people had spent their time watching soap operas or the news on TV. I know this because, after a rather heated argument with my parents about my TV habits, I volunteered to spend a whole month without TV, video or anything remotely related to them. The bottom line is that it turned me into a far worse person.

2. There are two things you quickly notice about not watching TV. The first is that everyone with a telly watches it far more than they admit. The second is that it gives thousands of hours of good quality entertainment for astonishingly little cost. What critics have long maintained is that TV destroys the mind, but I've now got to admit that people who haven't got a TV become restless, edgy and ultimately obsessed with trivia.

3. I tried keeping a diary of the experiment day 1. Life is so much better without TV. I'm doing so much more, and feel a better person...' and so on... The second week was just dull. I felt slightly numb and dimly aware that everyone else was having fun while I couldn't allow myself to do so. Going out with friends also got problematic. I now realise that at least two-thirds of conversations begin: 'Hey! Did you see ... the other night?' Of course, I hadn't! People started regarding me as some sort of sad case.

4. The lowest points of the month were two England-Scotland football matches, for which I joined Britain's long-distance lorry drivers and shop staff in listening to the radio. Whilst I am sure life went on as normal in Wales, life everywhere else in mainland Britain came to a complete halt that day. I know because I stared out of the window watching the whole of the rest of the population hurrying home to watch the matches.

5. Then total disaster struck. I got flu and had to spend a day at home. Despite the thrill of comfort food and reading the newspaper in bed with the central heating on, there seemed no point in having a day off sick if you can't watch TV. I was back at work the next day.

6. The last few days were like being a small child before Christmas: each minute took twice as long as the preceding one. Eventually, midnight crept around, and, like a drowning man finding dry land, I leapt in front of the set and grabbed the remote control as if it was pure gold! I had reached an oasis of televisual delights. And, of course, you've guessed it! There was nothing interesting on!

Toby Scott *The Guardian*

READING 3

Swinging in the rainforest

Lucy Wisdom used to swing on the trapezes in a circus. Now she is swinging among the trees of the Sumatran rainforest, teaching orphaned orang-utans what should have come naturally. Helpless young orang-utans have been arriving almost daily into Lucy's care at the Bohorok rehabilitation centre, usually after they have been in captivity for a couple of years or more. Regarded as charming when tiny, they soon outgrow their cages and are sometimes close to starvation when they appear at the centre.

Being 'mother' to a growing proportion of one of the world's most endangered species is not for the faint-hearted yet it is something in which Lucy clearly revels. 'I feel so lucky when I'm surrounded by the apes,' she says. 'I feel safe in the jungle with the apes when I am doing practical stuff.' Her mission is certainly practical. She has been setting up a website, trying to gain global charity status and recruiting rock stars in her campaign to save the orang-utans, whose numbers have fallen by three-quarters since the mid-1970s. But Lucy's superhuman contribution to saving and rehabilitating infant apes lies in the fact that most of her adulthood has been spent as a performing artist and acrobat. She may not talk to the animals like Dr Doolittle, but Lucy thinks nothing of climbing 20-metre high trees and peeling patches of bark with her teeth to show young orang-utans what they should be doing - an intensely strong tie between mother and baby, if that's broken, the infants don't learn anything,' she explains 'I go into the forest and use my trapeze skills to help teach small apes how to climb.' It is little wonder that Lucy feels she has arrived at her life's calling. There can be few jobs which need acrobatic training and stage experience - another skill she is about to utilise to organise a touring show to educate youngsters about the importance of conservation. Yet, as the need increases to an even stronger safety net for the ever-decreasing population of orang-utans, the Bohorok centre was forced to close its doors to new entrants. Part of the difficulty was the proximity of a wild orang-utan population, which made the local release of previously captive apes impossible and, further afield, the trees have been cut down. Unless funding is raised for a new centre, it will be impossible to look after re numbers of pets which owners are now willing to give up. Lucy is now contacting multi-national companies to help her campaign to save the orang-utans. Orang-utans tend to be solitary animals, noticeably so in age. This is one of the reasons they have been less than other apes such as chimpanzees - even though they are 96.4% genetically linked to humans and appear to have many characteristics with us. They even suffer from the same diseases as we do. With the help of Lucy and people like her, the future of these gentle giants may well be assured.

Lisa Buckingham *Guardian Society*

READING 4

THE CHALLENGE!

Mountains are stressful places: weather conditions deteriorate as wasted hours pile up at a rate second only to the increasing cost of your expedition. Enthusiasm can easily turn to frustration as months of planning, red tape and sponsor-hunting start to add up.

That was the exact number of mountains in Europe Rod had to conquer in 180 days if he was to win himself a place, if not in the history books, then at least in the record books. Nevertheless, it was taken seriously. The whole project, for which Rod raised £80,000 in sponsorship, was planned down to the last detail. It took some time to work out the best route to encompass the highest point of every country in Europe.

There were also some slightly less demanding ascents, including a stroll around the Vatican, a leisurely walk up a moderate incline in Denmark, and a drink on a small mountain in Monaco. Says Rod: 'Funnily enough, sometimes the small mountains, especially those in Eastern Europe, would be the most difficult to climb. They were often on private property, as was the case in Belarus. Each climb had to be made on foot, the height of each peak had to be measured, and photographs of the north, south, east and west views had to be provided. To help him, Rod had a back-up team of dedicated amateurs, including Giles Pitman, who had the dual role of driver and cameraman.' Logistically, the preparation and organisation needed to travel through and climb in every European country was like piecing together a multi-dimensional jigsaw - blindfolded' said Giles. " 'In one country,' said Rod, 'I spent days with a colleague deciding on the best route to cross some difficult terrain. In another, I arrived at the base of the mountain in July, believing I had completed all the necessary paperwork to climb it. But after being told I'd failed to produce the most important document, I had to go back and pick it up. That added another two days to the journey! 'We knew we could do it, provided that the mountains were still there and the car didn't explode – and there were no major problems by the time we reached Ben Nevis,' joked Rod. 'We were knackered – but we loved every minute of it!'

Focus magazine

READING 5

A MARITIME MYSTERY

On 5 November 1872, Captain Benjamin Briggs and his crew raised the sails of their ship the *Mary Celeste* in New York's East River and sailed out of the harbour into the Atlantic Ocean. They were making for the Italian port of Genoa, where they planned to unload their cargo of industrial alcohol.

On 4 December, the ship was sighted by Captain Moorhouse of the ship *Dei Gratia*, about 600 miles west of the Azores. Puzzled by her irregular movements, Moorhouse sent a small boarding party to investigate. What they found on deck is still argued over today. The ship was deserted: the Captain, his wife, their two-year-old daughter and seven crew members, along with the only lifeboat, had all disappeared.

What they had left behind suggested that they must have abandoned the ship in a great hurry. Only some navigational instruments and the ship's official documents were taken. Everything else (provisions, water, clothing and the crew's tobacco) remained on board. Even the cargo was untouched. In the crew's accommodation below the decks, they found bedding and floors soaked with rainwater, suggesting the ship could have run into severe weather after leaving port.

On 13 December, the US Naval Court of Investigation started looking into the case of the *Mary Celeste* and the legend began to take shape. The Chief Investigator concentrated on some strange discoveries made aboard the abandoned ship: an axe-mark and brown stains on the deck and Briggs' sword could have been evidence of a fight. This theory did not stand up, however, after tests showed that the brown stains were not blood and there was no other evidence of a conflict on board.

Another theory was that the captain and his family might have been murdered by his crew who had been drinking from one of the barrels of industrial alcohol, usually called methanol. But there were flaws in this theory, too. Methanol doesn't turn people into drunks: it poisons them.

A slightly more sensible theory was that the crew might have become alarmed by the amount of water the ship took on during a storm, and decided to abandon ship in the lifeboat. Yet Briggs, an experienced sailor, would have known the amount of water wasn't enough to threaten the ship.

The most likely explanation is connected with the ship's cargo. Industrial alcohol is potentially explosive. If something happened to one of the barrels on board, the crew would have to act quickly. Investigators did find out that one of the barrels was damaged. It could have been damaged during a storm and might have begun to release lethal fumes. Fearing an explosion, the captain may have ordered the crew to abandon ship. The crew lowered the lifeboat, which then sank during the violent storm. This would explain many of the mysterious features of the ship.

Unfortunately, it can't be put to the test: the ship was destroyed by fire in an insurance fraud 12 years after its crew disappeared. So the *Mary Celeste* took with her the last hope of solving the most famous maritime mystery of all time.

READING 6

THE RELUCTANT BACKPACKER

Every year, as the University of Warwick's halls of residences are piled high with new and unworn faces, two kinds of students emerge: those desperate to tell anyone within earshot about their year-out travelling experiences, and those who want the ground to open up beneath them every time the word 'backpack' is mentioned.

As I made the uneasy change to university life, I quickly joined the second category. The crucial moment came when I was drawn into conversation one evening by a fellow student. 'You'd better not believe what you read in the guide books,' he told me. 'You need at least three to five weeks to do India. And take my word for it, you haven't lived until you've seen the sun rise over the Taj Mahal.'

Completely oblivious to his own ridiculousness, he ordered a curry with rice and ate the whole thing with his hands, because that's the way it's done in Nepal. For reasons I could not fathom, people like him regarded their year out as some kind of radical lifestyle choice which

signified a reaction against the values of their upbringing.

The notion that you were travelling to broaden your horizons, to put yourself in touch with older, wiser civilisations, was beyond me. Nothing to do with that. How can anyone gain a realistic understanding of a culture that has taken thousands of years to develop simply by hanging around in a market town for a few days? It's impossible - you just can't have it both ways! How could jumped-up tourists gain a sense of superiority from the fact they had spent a few months abroad with only a Rough Guide and a handful of notes in their pockets? I decided to have it out: backpacking, inter-railing, island-hopping individual I met.

Two years on, not quite the angry young man I was, I seem to have had a change of heart about these things. Many of my friends began to refer to vague plans to 'go travelling' when they do. They want to take off to somewhere like Australia or New Zealand, maybe just hang out there for a year or so. It's not that difficult work apparently. Actually, I've a good mind to do the same. I'm sure if I'm ready for a steady job.

Travelling has begun to seem much more in tune with the holiday camp mentality of student culture. So maybe I will be filling my backpack with banknotes this summer and wandering off into the wilderness - or at least somewhere hot! Maybe I'll even bring back some stories of amazing escapes from sharp-toothed snow. But under no circumstances will you see me eat a curry without a proper knife and fork!

Jonathan Stubbs Guardian Higher

READING 7

FAHRENHEIT 451

The trees overhead made a great sound of letting down their dry rain. The girl stopped and looked as if she might pull back in surprise, but instead stood regarding Montag with eyes so dark and shining and alive that he felt he had said something quite wonderful. But he knew his mouth had only moved to say hello, and then when she seemed hypnotised by the salamander on his arm and the phoenix disc on his chest, he spoke again. 'Of course,' he said, 'you're a new neighbour, aren't you?' And you must be' - she raised her eyes from his professional symbols - 'the fireman.' Her voice trailed off. 10 'How oddly you say that. I'd - I'd have known it with my eyes shut,' she said slowly.

'What - the smell of kerosene? My wife always complains,' he laughed. 'You never wash it off completely. 'No, you don't,' she said, in awe. 15 'Kerosene,' he said, because the silence had lengthened, 'is nothing but perfume to me.' 'Does it seem like that, really?' 'Of course. Why not?'

She gave herself time to think of it. 'I don't know.' She turned to face the 20 sidewalk going towards their homes. 'Do you mind if I walk back with you? I'm Clarisse McClellan.' 'Clarisse. Guy Montag. Come along. What are you doing out so late wandering around? How old are you?' There was only the girl walking with him now, her face bright as snow in the moonlight, and he knew she was working his questions around, seeking the best answers she could possibly give. 'Well,' she said. 'I'm 17 and I'm crazy. My uncle says the two always go together. When people ask your age, he said, always say 17 and insane. Isn't this a nice time of night to walk? I like to smell things and look at things, and sometimes stay up all night, walking and watching the sun rise.' 30 They walked on again in silence and finally she said, thoughtfully, 'You know, I'm not afraid of you at all. He was surprised. 'Why should you be?'

"So many people are. Afraid of firemen, I mean. But you're just a man, after all..."

And then Clarisse McClellan said: 'Do you mind if I ask? How long have you kept at being a fireman?'

'Since I was twenty, ten years ago.'

Do you ever read any of the books you burn?'

He laughed. That's against the law!' 'In. Of course.'

But it's fine work. Monday burn Millay, Wednesday Whitman, Friday Faulkner, burn them to ashes, then burn the ashes. That's our official slogan.' They walked still further and the girl increased her pace. 'Have you ever watched the jet cars racing on the boulevards down that way?'

You are changing the subject!'

I sometimes think that drivers don't know what grass is, or flowers, because they have never seen them slowly,' she said. 'My uncle drove slowly on a highway once. He drove 60 km an hour and they jailed him for two days. Isn't that funny and sad, too?'

You think too many things,' said Montag, uneasily.

I rarely watch the 'parlour walls' or go to the races or Fun Parks. So I have lots of time for crazy thoughts, I guess. Have you seen the 70 metre-long billboards in the country beyond the town? Did you know that once billboards were only about 6 metres long? But cars started rushing by so quickly they had to stretch the advertising out so it would last.'

I didn't know that!' Montag laughed abruptly. They walked the rest of the way in uncomfortable silence. When they reached her house all its lights were on? 'What's going on?' Montag had rarely seen so many house lights. Oh it's just my mother and father and

uncle sitting around, talking. It's like being a pedestrian, only rarer. My uncle was arrested another time - did I tell you?

- for being a pedestrian. Oh, we're most peculiar!" But what do you talk about?"

She laughed at this. 'Good night!' She started up her walk. Then she seemed to

Remember something and came back to look at him with wonder and curiosity.

Are you happy?' she said. AM I what?' he cried. ! but she was gone - running in the moonlight. Her front door shut gently.

READING 8

LOVE IN A HOT CLIMATE

1. It had everything a film studio could dream of: not only a clean-cut hero and an exotic heroine, but also love, across the divide — in short, the story of a modern Romeo and Juliet. He was a 25-year-old American marine, a Lieutenant Corporal called Jason Johnson. She was a 19-year-Arab princess called Merian. When their eyes met in a crowded shopping mall in Bahrain, it was love at first sight. When her family discovered the courtship, Merian was confined to her home but the romance continued by telephone. Finally, the couple decided to flee and make their lives together in the USA. It may sound like a script for a film but this one is — more or less — a true story.

2. Jason knew that US marines did not have to show a passport to leave Bahrain so he forged documents for Merian so that she would appear to be a member of the marine corps. Merian was kitted out in sloppy; baggy American clothes. She hid her long hair under a New York Yankees baseball cap and together they boarded a Chicago.

3. After being released by the immigration service while a decision was made as to whether she would be allowed to stay in the USA, the princess married the marine. Jason, the son of a cement truck driver, was duly demoted to the rank of Private for bringing an illegal immigrant into the country but is still serving at his unit's base in California, where the couple now live. Technically, Merian could still be deported, even though she is married to a US citizen.

4. A key figure in the lovers' story is Tom Colbert the president of a company that promotes stories that first appeared in local newspapers by placing them on TV and in national newspapers and magazines. Colbert arranged for a contact, Mary Aloe, to sign up the film rights to their story.

5. 'I fell in love with them,' said Aloe. 'They are an awesome couple. Their story has everything. It's a thriller and there could be three different endings. They could live happily ever after and find out that her family secretly supported her. Or she could be sent back and he has to let her go. Or she's an independent woman who realises that although she loves Jason, now that she's in America she wants to move on. No matter what the ending is, it's still a great movie!'

The Guardian

APPENDIX 3

VOCABULARY CHECKLIST TEST

Examine the words below very carefully. For each word among the choices a, b, c, or d circle the most suitable one for you. The letters next to the vocabulary items refer to form to form of the word that is asked; verb (v), adjective (adj), noun (n), and adverb (adv). IF YOU SELECT CHOICE D, you are expected to use this word in an English sentence in the best way that it will illustrate the meaning of the word and write this sentence in the *sentence* part right below the item. IF YOU SELECT CHOICE C, you are expected to write down the vocabulary item and its number with a definition or translation on the separate piece of paper that your instructor has distributed along with the test.

CHOICES:

- a) I do not know the word.
- b) I have seen the word before but *am not sure of* the meaning.
- c) I understand the word when I see or hear it in a sentence, but I *do not know how to use* it in my speaking or writing.
- d) I can use the word in a sentence.

- | | | | | |
|---------------------|---|---|---|---|
| 1. promise (v) | a | b | c | d |
| sentence:..... | | | | |
| 2. cancel (v | a | b | c | d |
| sentence:..... | | | | |
| 3. conscious (adj | a | b | c | d |
| sentence:..... | | | | |
| 4. discussion (n) | a | b | c | d |
| sentence:..... | | | | |
| 5. volunteer (adj) | a | b | c | d |
| sentence:..... | | | | |
| 6. ultimately (adv) | a | b | c | d |
| sentence:..... | | | | |
| 7. disaster (n) | a | b | c | d |
| sentence:..... | | | | |
| 8. remote (adj) | a | b | c | d |
| sentence:..... | | | | |
| 9. criminal (n) | a | b | c | d |
| sentence:..... | | | | |

10. vital (adj)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
11. starvation (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
12. argument (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
13. suffer (v)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
14. diary (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
15. admit (v)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
16. demanding (adj)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
17. exchange (v)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
18. pretend (v)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
19. challenge (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
20. provide (v)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
21. explode (v)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
22. dual (adj)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
23. harbour (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
24. crew (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
25. abandon (v)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
26. mystery (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				

27. disappear (v)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
28. reluctant (adj)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
29. fellow (adj)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
30. apparently (adv)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
31. uneasy (adj)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
32. expand (v)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
33. wild (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
34. complicated (adj)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
35. documentary (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
36. marine (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
37. release (v)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
38. survival (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
39. illegal (adj)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
40. immigration (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
41. independent (adj)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
42. local (adj)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				
43. script (n)	a	b	c	d
sentence:.....				

44. repeatedly (adv)

a b c d

sentence:.....

45. surrender (v)

a b c d

sentence:.....

Thank you!

VOCABULARY CHECKLIST TEST

Examine the words below very carefully. For each word among the choices a, b, c, or d circle the most suitable one for you. The letters next to the vocabulary items refer to form to form of the word that is asked; verb (v), adjective (adj), noun (n), and adverb (adv). **IF YOU SELECT CHOICE D**, you are expected to use this word in an English sentence in the best way that it will illustrate the meaning of the word and write this sentence in the *sentence* part right below the item. **IF YOU SELECT CHOICE C**, you are expected to write down the vocabulary item and its number with a definition or translation on the separate piece of paper that your instructor has distributed along with the test.

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- b) I have seen the word before but *am not sure of* the meaning.
- c) I understand the word when I see or hear it in a sentence, but I *do not know how* to use it in my speaking or writing.
- d) I can use the word in a sentence.

1. promise (v)

a b c d

sentence: I promised to bring back his book.

2. cancel (v)

a b c d

sentence: We canceled our picnic because the weather was rainy.

3. conscious (adj)

a b c d

sentence:

4. discussion (n)

a b c d

sentence: Our discussion is about protecting the nature

5. volunteer (adj)

a b c d

sentence:

6. ultimately (adv)

a b c d

sentence:

7. disaster (n)

a b c d

sentence:

8. remote (adj)

a b c d

sentence: He lost his girl friend in a remote island.

9. criminal (n)

a b c d

sentence: Criminals are increasing in those days

10. vital (adj)

a b c d

sentence:

11. starvation (n)

a b c d

sentence:

12. argument (n)

a b c d

sentence:

13. suffer (v)

a b c d

sentence:

14. diary (n)

a b c d

sentence:

15. admit (v)

a b c d

sentence: My parents admitted giving a party.

16. demanding (adj)

a b c d

sentence:

17. exchange (v)

a b c d

sentence:

18. pretend (v)

a b c d

sentence:

19. challenge (n)

a b c d

sentence:

20. provide (v)

a b c d

sentence: It was provided that he is a murder.

21. explode (v)

a b c d

sentence:

22. dual (adj)

a b c d

sentence:

23. harbour (n)

a b c d

sentence: We he was in harbour, a ship

24. crew (n)

a b c d

sentence: The crew of this organisation is inressonsible.

25. abandon (v)

a b c d

sentence:

26. mystery (n) a b c d
 sentence: A little child disappeared in mystery forest
27. disappear (v) a b c d
 sentence: A group of student disappeared when they were on the mountain
28. reluctant (adj) a b c d
 sentence: She is a reluctant student, so she is successful.
29. fellow (adj) a b c d
 sentence: She was followed by a man last night
30. apparently (adv) a b c d
 sentence:
31. uneasy (adj) a b c d
 sentence: Passing the university exam is uneasy.
32. expand (v) a b c d
 sentence:
33. rapidly (adv) a b c d
 sentence:
34. complicated (adj) a b c d
 sentence: She has a complicated job, so she tires everyday
35. documentary (n) a b c d
 sentence: I forgot my documentaries in bag
36. marine (n) a b c d
 sentence:
37. release (v) a b c d
 sentence: I released that I have very good friends
38. rival (n) a b c d
 sentence:
39. illegal (adj) a b c d
 sentence: He made illegal works, so he is looking for by policeman
40. immigration (n) a b c d
 sentence:
41. independent (adj) a b c d
 sentence: Turks always have an independent life.
42. local (adj) a b c d
 sentence: Local people are behaving friendly to foreign people.

43. script (n)

a

b

c

d

sentence:

44. repeatedly (adv)

a

b

c

d

sentence: She talks repeatedly, so nobody listens to her.

45. surrender (v)

a

b

c

d

sentence: Fatih Sultan Mehmet surrendered Istanbul and took it.

Thank you!

APPENDIX 4

ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

Answer the questions below about yourself:

1. Do you like learning new vocabulary?

2. Do you use the words outside the classroom?

3. Which methods do you find useful in learning new words?

4. How much time do you spend on vocabulary learning? Is it enough?

APPENDIX 5

WORD MAP

Name: _____

4.

(synonym)

5.

(antonym)

3.

(dictionary definition)

1.

(Vocabulary Word)
Page Number

2.

(sentence or phrase from the text)

8.

(my very own sentence)

7.

(my association,
example)

(taken from www.readwritethink.org)

Word Map

Name Yasmin Bural Bakir

Date 22nd December

4

not happen

(synonym)

5

realise

(antonym)

3

to decide that
sth that had been
planned or arranged
will not happen

(dictionary definition)

1

cancel

(Vocabulary Word)

Page Number

3

6

cancellation(n)

(other forms of the word)

2

It doesn't matter if my flatmate has used all the
hot water, my train is cancelled, or I have a problem
at work.

(sentence or phrase from the text)

8

We had to cancel our party because of
my father.

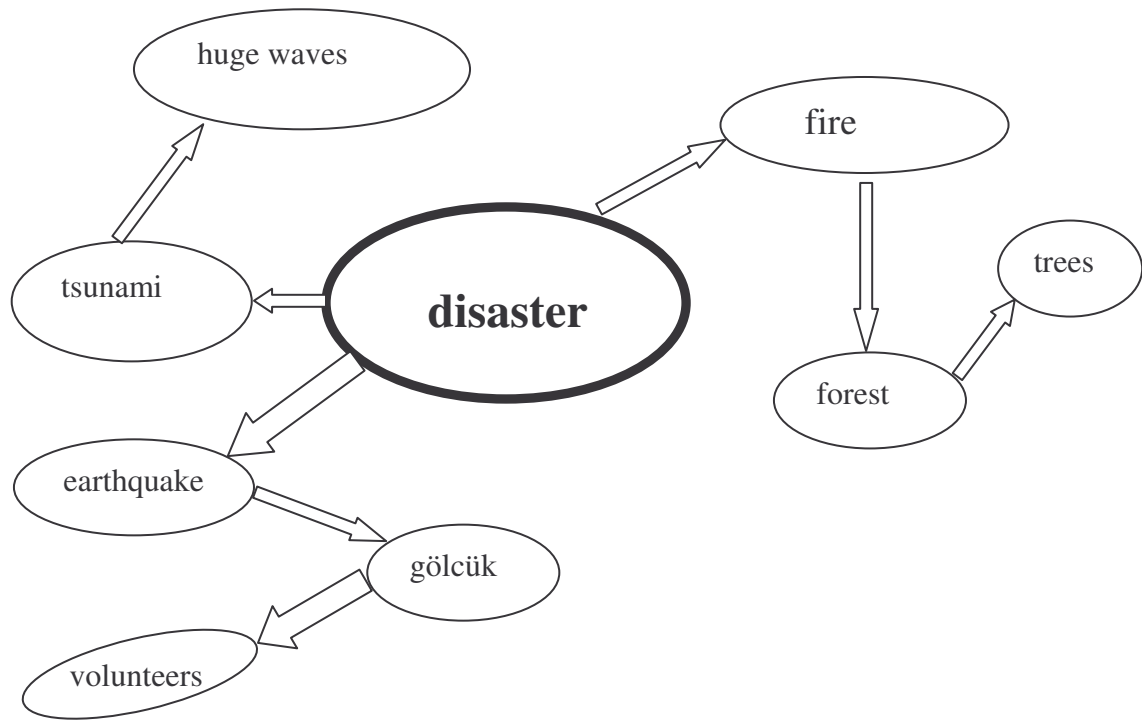
(my very own sentence)

7

plans
parties
weather
picnic
exams

(my association, example)

APPENDIX 6

Figure 1. An example of semantic map

APPENDIX 7

GUESSING TEST

Try to guess the meanings of the underlined words in the sentences you thought you could guess. You can give both the definition and an equivalent or a synonym both in Turkish or English as long as you can explain what exactly you think the vocabulary item means. Write your answers in the “meaning” part below each sentence.

1. I'll try to be back at 6 o'clock but I can't promise.

Meaning:

2. Because of the bad weather the picnic was cancelled.

Meaning:

3. She was badly injured but conscious and able to tell the doctor what had happened.

Meaning:

4. After much discussion we all agreed to share the cost.

Meaning:

5. There were many volunteers in the rescue team.

Meaning:

6. Whatever decision we ultimately take will be in the best interests of the school.

Meaning:

7. The drought brought disaster to the area.

Meaning:

8. The film star's life style was very remote from that of most ordinary people.

Meaning:

9. The police finally arrested the criminal.

Meaning:

10. Practice is vital if you want to speak a language well.

Meaning:

11. Millions of people are dying of starvation all around the world.

Meaning:

12. She had an argument with her father about politics.

Meaning:

13. The animals in the forest suffer from starvation.

Meaning:

14. My mother found the diary I was keeping.

Meaning:

15. She admitted having broken the computer.

Meaning:

16. It will be a demanding schedule- I have to go to six cities in six days.

Meaning:

17. I would like to exchange this skirt for a bigger one.

Meaning:

18. Paul is not really asleep. He is just pretending.

Meaning:

19. I'm finding my new job an exciting challenge.

Meaning:

20. This book will provide you with all the information you need.

Meaning:

21. The bomb exploded without warning.

Meaning:

22. Ann has the dual role of mother and working woman.

Meaning:

23. The weather was too rough for the fishing boats to leave harbour yesterday.

Meaning:

24. The captain and his crew hope you had a pleasant flight.

Meaning:

25. The criminal abandoned the car in a deserted place after the murder.

Meaning:

26. He walked away and disappeared into a crowd of people.

Meaning:

27. The cause of the accident is a complete mystery.

Meaning:

28. I was rather reluctant to lend him the car because he's such a fast driver.

Meaning:

29. Her fellow students were all older than her.

Meaning:

30. Apparently, he's already been married twice.

Meaning:

31. He felt uneasy when he thought about his final exam.

Meaning:

32. We hope to expand our business this year.

Meaning:

33. She made a progress in her lessons rapidly.

Meaning:

34. I can't tell you all the details now, it's too complicated.

Meaning:

35. There was a documentary about life in Northern Ireland on TV.

Meaning:

36. He has been released from prison.

Meaning:

37. It seems that we are rivals for the sales manager's job.

Meaning:

38. It is illegal to own a gun without a special licence.

Meaning:

39. One of the important problems in our country is immigration. Many people are entering in our country to live.

Meaning:

40. Micheal wants to be independent at the age of 18.

Meaning:

41. The local school is the center of the community.

Meaning:

42. The artist read the script carefully before signing the contract.

Meaning:

43. The child learns to read by seeing the words repeatedly.

Meaning:

44. The protesters shouted saying they would never surrender.

Meaning:

45. My father interests in marine life.

Meaning:

Thank you!

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