

T. C.
Marmara Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı
İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bilim Dalı

**THE IMPACT OF THE TASK-BASED INSTRUCTION
ON THE STUDENTS' VOCABULARY LEARNING IN
AN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONTEXT**

GÖREV TEMELLİ ÖĞRETİM YÖNTEMİNİN İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL
OLARAK ÖĞRENEN ÖĞRENCİLERİN SÖZCÜK ÖĞRENİMİNE ETKİSİ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

İlknur KARADAĞLI

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İlknur KARADAĞLI tarafından hazırlanan “GÖREV TEMELLİ ÖĞRETİM YÖNTEMİNİN İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN ÖĞRENCİLERİN SÖZCÜK ÖĞRENİMİNE ETKİSİ” başlıklı bu çalışma 13.07.2009 tarihinde yapılan savunmada başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak Kabul edilmiştir.

Danışman: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Kamile HAMİLOĞLU

Üye: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Sumru AKCAN

Üye: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Selma KARABINAR

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KISA ÖZET

Görev Temelli Öğretim Yönteminin İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Öğrencilerin Sözcük Öğrenimine Etkisi **İlknur KARADAĞLI**

Bu çalışma aşağıdaki araştırma sorularını cevaplamayı hedeflemektedir:

1. Görev Temelli öğretim Yöntemi'nin İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenmekte olan üniversite hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerinin kelime öğrenimine etkisi var mıdır?
2. İngilizce Okuma derslerinde yürütülen çalışma süresince, Görev Temelli Öğretim Yöntemi kullanılan deney grubu ile öğretmenin merkezde olduğu geleneksel öğretim yöntemi kullanılan kontrol grubu arasında aktif kelime öğrenimi açısından anlamlı bir fark var mıdır?
3. Deney grubu ile kontrol grubu arasında çalışma süresince öğrendikleri yeni kelimelerin iletişimsel kullanımı açısından anlamlı bir farklılık var mıdır?
4. Deney grubu ile kontrol grubu arasında isteklilik ve derse katılım açısından anlamlı bir farklılık var mıdır?
5. Kontrol grubu ve deney grubu arasında okuma dersleriyle ilgili beklentiler açısından bir farklılık var mıdır?
6. Kontrol grubu ve deney grubu arasında beklentilerinin karşılanıp karşılanmadığına ilişkin düşünceler açısından anlamlı bir farklılık var mıdır?
7. Deney grubundaki öğrencilerin Görev Temelli Öğretim Yöntemi ile ilgili farkındalık düzeylerinde çalışma bittikten sonra anlamlı bir farklılık oluşmuş mudur?

Araştırmanın katılımcılarını Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu, Temel İngilizce Bölümü'nde okumakta olan 77 öğrenci oluşturmaktadır. Bunlardan 37'si kontrol, 40'ı deney grubunda bulunmaktadır. Katılımcılar, Anadolu, Süper, Fen, Anadolu Öğretmen ve Özel Lise gibi farklı lise türlerinden mezun olmuşlardır. Yaş aralığı 17–22'dir (N=77; $\bar{x}$ yaş=18, 6).

Çalışmanın verisi ön-test, son-test, 2 kısa sınav, açık uçlu anket, grupların kamera çekimleri, iletişimsel yazma görevi ve iletişimsel konuşma görevinden oluşmuştur. Ön-test, son-test ve kısa sınavları analiz etmek amacıyla istatistik programı SPSS 16,0 ile yapılan t-test kullanılmıştır. Açık uçlu anket ve kamera çekimlerinin dökümü nitel veri analizi teknikleri yoluyla kategorize edilmiştir. Yazma görevi 2 farklı öğretmen tarafından kontrol edilmiştir. Son olarak konuşma görevinin dökümü de 2 farklı öğretmen tarafından yapılmış, kontrol edilmiş ve değerlendirilmiştir.

Yürütülen çalışma ile Görev Temelli Öğretim Yöntemi'nin katılımcı öğrencilerin kelime öğrenimine anlamlı bir etkisi olacağı savlanmıştır. Ayrıca deney grubundaki öğrencilerin Görev Temelli Öğretim Yöntemi'nde kullanılan tekniklerle ilgili farkındalık düzeylerinin kontrol grubundaki öğrencilere kıyasla artacağı beklenmiştir. Aynı şekilde deney grubundaki öğrencilerin kontrol grubundaki öğrencilere göre, kelimeleri hem yazılı hem sözlü iletişimde daha kolay ve etkili bir biçimde kullanabilecekleri düşünülmüştür. Bundan başka, Görev Temelli Öğretim Yöntemi'nin isteklilik ve derse katılım açısından deney grubu üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisinin olacağı beklenmiştir. Son olarak, deney grubundaki öğrencilerin okuma derslerine ilişkin beklentilerinin Görev Temelli Öğretim Yöntemi sayesinde karşılandığını düşünecekleri savlanmıştır.

Kontrol ve deney grubunun son-test puanlarının karşılaştırılmasının sonucunda anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır. Aynı sonuç 1. kısa sınav için de geçerli olmuştur. Ancak, 2. kısa sınavda gruplar arasında anlamlı bir fark görülmüştür. Grup içi karşılaştırmalarda öğrencilerin her iki öğretim yönteminden de faydalandıkları ortaya çıkmıştır. Açık uçlu anketin analizi sonucunda, deney grubundaki öğrencilerin Görev Temelli Öğretim Yöntemi ile ilgili farkındalıklarının çalışmayla birlikte arttığı görülmüştür. Öğrencilerin anketteki diğer sorulara verdiği cevaplarda anketin 4. sorusu hariç, kullanılan yeni yöntemin herhangi bir anlamlı etkisi görülmemiştir. Öğrenilen kelimelerin iletişimsel kullanımı açısından, deney grubundaki öğrencilerin yazma görevinde daha fazla kelimeyi doğru kullandıkları görülmüştür. Konuşma görevi ile ilgili olarak, öğrencilerin hiçbirinin kelimeleri kullanmadığı kaydedilmiştir. Ders katılım ve isteklendirme açısından Görev Temelli Öğretim

Yöntemi'nin etkisi açıktır. Son olarak, her iki gruptaki öğrencilerin beklentilerinin benzer olmasına rağmen, deney grubunda daha çok öğrencinin beklentilerine ulaştığı sonucuna varılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Görev, Görev-Temelli Öğretim Yöntemi, Kelime Öğrenimi, Üniversite Hazırlık Sınıflarında İngilizcenin Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğretimi

ABSTRACT

The impact of the Task-Based Instruction on the students' vocabulary learning in an English as a foreign language context

by

İlknur KARADAĞLI

This study aims to find the answers of the following research questions:

1. Is there a significant impact of the Task-Based Instruction on vocabulary learning of university preparation class students of EFL?
2. Is there a significant difference between the academic success of the experimental group who received the Task-Based Instruction and the control group who received the traditional (teacher-oriented) instruction in learning the key vocabulary (active vocabulary) throughout their English reading lessons during the implementation of the study?
3. Is there a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of the communicative use of the new vocabulary items that they learned during the implementation of the study?
4. Is there a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of motivation and participation during the implementation of the study?
5. Is there a difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of their reported expectations related to reading classes?
6. Is there a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of the fulfilment of their reported expectations?
7. Is there a significant difference on the awareness level of the experimental group related to the Task-Based Instruction after the treatment?

77 students from Yıldız Technical University, School of Foreign Languages, Basic English Department participated in the study. 37 of them comprised the control group and 40 of them were in the experimental group. The participants came from different high school types such as Anatolian, English Medium, Science Medium,

Anatolian Teacher Training and Private High Schools. Their age ranged from 17 to 22. (N= 77; $\bar{x}$ (age) = 18, 6)

The data for the present study were collected through a written pre-test and a post-test, two quizzes, an open-ended questionnaire, video recordings of the groups, a communicative writing task, and a communicative speaking task. In order to analyze the pre-test, post-test and the quizzes, *t*-tests were performed by SPSS 16.0. The open-ended questionnaires and the transcriptions of the video recordings were categorised through the qualitative data analysis techniques. The writing task was checked and evaluated by two scorers; finally, the video recordings of the speaking task were transcribed, checked and evaluated by two different scorers.

With the study carried out it was expected that the Task-Based Instruction would have had a significant effect on vocabulary learning of the participant students. Moreover, it was estimated that the students in the experimental group would have become more aware of the techniques of the Task-Based oriented Instruction compared to the students in the control group. It was also expected that the students in the experimental group would have used the new vocabulary items in both written and oral communication more easily and effectively compared to the control group. Furthermore, it was thought that the Task-Based Instruction would have had a significant impact on the experimental group in terms of motivation and participation. Finally, it was estimated that the students in the experimental group would think their expectations related to reading classes were met well because of the Task-Based Instruction treatment.

The results of the comparison between the post-test scores of the control group and the experimental group indicated no significant difference. The same was true for the scores of Quiz 1. However, there was a significant difference between the groups in Quiz 2. With regard to the comparison within the groups, it was found that the students benefited from both methods. The analysis of the open-ended questionnaires revealed that the students in the experimental group became aware of the Task-Based Instruction along with the study. The answers of the students for the other questions

in the questionnaire indicated no significant impact of the method apart from Question 4 in the questionnaire. Regarding the communicative use of the vocabulary learned, the students in the experimental group were found to have used the words more correctly than the students in the control group in the writing task. In terms of the speaking task, the students neither in the control group nor in the experimental group were found to have used the new words. With regard to participation and motivation, the impact of the Task-Based Instruction was visible. Finally, although the students' expectations were similar in both groups, it was reported that more students in the experimental group reached their expectations throughout the study.

Key Words: Task, task-based instruction, vocabulary learning, teaching English as a foreign language at university preparation class

ABBREVIATIONS

<i>ALM</i>	Audio Lingual Method
<i>CCL</i>	Cognitive Code Learning
<i>CLL</i>	Community Language Learning
<i>CLT</i>	Communicative Language Teaching
<i>DM</i>	Direct Method
<i>ELT</i>	English Language Teaching
<i>ESL</i>	English as a Second Language
<i>EFL</i>	English as a Foreign Language
<i>GTM</i>	Grammar Translation Method
<i>PPP</i>	Presentation-Practice-Production
<i>TBI</i>	Task-Based Instruction
<i>TBLT</i>	Task-Based Language Teaching
<i>TPR</i>	Total Physical Response

I. INTRODUCTION

In today's world, learning a second or a foreign language is considered as a must due to the advancements in technology, science, trade, social relations, and so on. All over the world. Among the second or foreign languages, English has an important place since it has become "the lingua franca" (Crystal, 1997, p. 12) or the common language by gaining "a global status" (p. 1). According to Crystal, it has achieved this global status by developing three roles. The first role is that it is being used as a mother tongue in some countries. The second one is that it is made the official or semi-official language of a country where the medium of education in the government, the law courts or the educational system is in English. Finally, it might be taught as a second or foreign language which most of the people in the country try to learn (Crystal, 1997).

When English is considered as a second (ESL hereafter) or foreign language (EFL hereafter), vocabulary teaching has a crucial place since the need to learn vocabulary is agreed by most of the language teachers and learners (Allen, 1983; Nation, 1990). However, the importance given to vocabulary teaching has not been the same throughout the history of English Language Teaching (Celce-Murcia & Rosenweig, 1979). For example, during the period when the Classical Method was used, vocabulary teaching was very important (Celce-Murcia & Rosenweig, 1979; Allen, 1983). Allen (1983) summarizes that in the 16th-18th century, vocabulary was emphasized over other skills as the learners were made to translate texts from the foreign language to their native language, which was known as the Grammar Translation Method (the GTM hereafter). During the period when the Direct Method (the DM hereafter) was popular, vocabulary was presented in context (Celce-Murcia & Rosenweig, 1979). However, Allen (1983) states that it was neglected during the 1940s and 1970s due to three reasons. The first reason was that most of the teachers believed that grammar was more important than vocabulary and because of this reason, they emphasized grammar. Moreover, specialists in the field claimed that if the students were given too many vocabulary items, they would have difficulty in

constructing grammatically correct sentences. Lastly, some advisors thought that vocabulary could only be learnt by experience so it was in vain to try to teach vocabulary in class. After a certain period of time when vocabulary teaching was neglected, it became important again in the 1970s again. Allen (1983) and Nation (1990) claim that this was due to the fact that researchers believed that some communication problems might have occurred if the speaker could not have used a word in its correct place. Communication problems became important because in the 1970s, the Communicative Approach, which aimed to teach English communicatively so that the students could use it in real communication, came into being (Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Richards & Rodgers, 1995).

As implied above, various methods have been developed in order to teach English throughout many periods of time. The Task-Based Instruction (the TBI hereafter), which is the focus of this thesis, might be explored within the framework of the Communicative Approach (Richard & Rodgers, 1995) because the TBI enables learners to use the language communicatively by giving them some tasks. It prepares some necessary conditions for students to be exposed to the language, to see the real use of it and to be willing to learn it (J. Willis, 1996).

The TBI has been used in a wide range of institutions as it is presumed that it might enable students to become communicatively competent (Vilches, 2003; Kavaliauslienė, 2005; Lochana & Deb, 2006; Muller, 2006). Moreover, the effects of the TBI have been the focus of some researchers. A variety of research has been conducted to describe the effects of the TBI on teaching and learning grammar, skills and vocabulary. The results of these studies reflect both positive and negative effects of the TBI (Pellettieri, 1999; Seedhouse, 1999; Mohamed, 2004; Mutlu, 2001; Tumposky, 2001; Yaylı, 2005; De la Fuente, 2006; Burton, 2007), however, these studies have not reached conclusive results yet.

The present study, therefore, aims to investigate the effects of the TBI on vocabulary learning of intermediate level preparation class students at Yildiz Technical University, in Istanbul. The students were divided into two groups, namely the

control group, which was taught by a traditional instruction where the teacher is in the control, and the experimental group, which received the TBI.

This thesis has five main parts. The first part includes the introduction that gives some background information, the purpose, the questions, the hypotheses, the significance, the limitations of the study, the definitions of the terms and information about the Turkish context in terms of English teaching at university preparation class level. In the second main part, a review of the related literature is provided, initially, with an overview of foreign language teaching and English language teaching which is followed by vocabulary learning and teaching through various English Language Teaching (ELT hereafter) and EFL methods. The same part includes the definitions for the concept of curriculum and the types of curriculum, and the concept of syllabus in curriculum design. That part continued with the information about the Task-Based Instruction and several types of syllabus designs along with the definitions of a “task”, the “Task-based Approach to education”, the stages of a task presentation, the types of a task, the teacher and learner roles in the TBI, vocabulary learning and teaching in the TBI and some other studies carried out in the TBI. The third main section of this thesis includes the method part which introduces the participants, instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis. After the method section, results are presented instrument by instrument and this section is followed by the discussion of the results which ends with implications for future research. Finally, references and appendix are given.

1.1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

As many researchers and applied linguists imply, (Stern, 1987; Richards & Rodgers, 1995; Brown, 2001; Larsen-Freeman, 2004), the history of language teaching started with the Classical Method which focused on teaching Classical Latin and Greek. This method became the GTM in the 19th century. Then the DM, which was based on the natural way the children acquire their first language, was introduced. With the break out of the World War II, a new method, known as the Army Method, started to be used in order for American soldiers to learn the languages of their rivals and allies

in a short time. In the 1950s, the Army Method came to be known as the Audio Lingual Method (the ALM hereafter). However, after Chomsky introduced the Cognitive Code Learning (the CCL hereafter), the ALM lost its popularity. The CCL was not actually a method; but it was an approach which started as a reaction against the behaviourist features of the ALM since it paid attention to conscious awareness of the rules. The 1970s witnessed a kind of innovation in language teaching methodology with the introduction of the Community Language Learning (the CLL hereafter), Suggestopedia, The Silent Way, Total Physical Response (the TPR hereafter), and the Natural Approach. These five methods basically focused on humanistic values of teaching. After the innovative methods of the 1970s, the Communicative Language Teaching Approach (the CLT hereafter) came into the scene. With the introduction of this approach, language has started to be taught with authentic, real-life materials. The teachers have become more concerned with the communicative aspects of the language rather than dealing only with the grammar rules. The CLT has introduced a number of concepts and classroom practices which include Learner-Centered Instruction, Cooperative and Collaborative Learning, Interactive Learning, Whole Language Education, Content-Based Instruction and the TBI which is the focus of this study.

1.2. THE TURKISH CONTEXT

According to the regulation published by the Turkish Council of Higher Education (CHE) on April 1, 1996, some universities in Turkey have the right to make their students have one year of preparation class in English. In order to do this, first of all there should be sufficient number of instructors employed; then there should be some classes where the medium of education is in English after the preparation class. Moreover, the university should have a Testing Office to prepare tests for the students. When all these necessary conditions are confirmed, the university provides the students with an either obligatory or voluntary preparation class. At such universities, the students take a proficiency examination at the beginning of their initial academic year. According to their scores received in this exam, they either start their education in their own departments or in the preparation class which

continues for one year. At some universities, the students cannot start their education with their majors unless they succeed in the preparation class. However, some universities accept the unsuccessful students as repeaters who have to pass the proficiency exam some time before graduation.

At Yıldız Technical University, where the present study takes place, the new students take a proficiency exam at the beginning of their first academic year in the university. If they succeed in the exam, they enrol the courses in their own departments that year. If they fail, they have to take one year of preparation class in English. The students who fail in the proficiency exam are administered a placement exam so that they can be classified according to their levels. There are totally three levels which are A, B and C. A-level students are at the intermediate level, whereas B-levels are at the pre-intermediate level and C-level students are at the elementary level. At the end of the preparation class, all the students take the same final exam. Their during-the-term-grades, which include mid-term exams, quizzes, and the other in-class activities along with the teachers' assessments and lastly the final exam grades are significant for their ultimate success or failure. Even if they do not become successful at the preparation class, the students at Yıldız Technical University can start to attend the classes in their own departments. However, they are accepted as repeaters and they have to pass the English proficiency exam which is administered twice a year before they graduate from the university.

1.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study focuses on the impact of the TBI on vocabulary learning of university preparation class students of EFL in terms of the learners' awareness and perception of the TBI, both receptive and productive use of the words, and their motivation to participate in the lessons through comparison between the control group that received a traditional instruction and the experimental group that received the TBI.

1.4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Is there a significant impact of the TBI on vocabulary learning of university preparation class students of EFL?
2. Is there a significant difference between the academic success of the experimental group who received the TBI and the control group who received the traditional instruction (teacher-oriented) in learning the key vocabulary (active vocabulary) throughout their English reading lessons during the implementation of the study?
3. Is there a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of the communicative use of the new vocabulary items that they learned during the implementation of the study?
4. Is there a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of motivation and participation during the implementation of the study?
5. Is there a difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of their reported expectations related to reading classes?
6. Is there a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of the fulfilment of their reported expectations?
7. Is there a significant difference on the awareness level of the experimental group related to the TBI after the treatment?

1.5. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

Some hypotheses expected to be confirmed through this research are as follows:

1. There will be a significant impact of the TBI on vocabulary learning of university preparation class students of EFL.
2. There will be a significant difference between academic success of the experimental group who received the TBI and the control group who received the traditional instruction in learning the key vocabulary (active vocabulary) throughout their English reading lessons during the implementation of the study.

3. There will be a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in the communicative use of the new vocabulary items that they learnt during the implementation of the study.
4. The students in the control group and the experimental group will have similar expectations related to vocabulary learning during reading classes.
5. More students in the experimental group will think that their expectations have been fulfilled.
6. The awareness level of the students in the experimental group on the TBI will change along with the treatment.

1.6. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The importance of teaching vocabulary cannot be denied in language teaching (Allen, 1983). Nation (1990) states various reasons for the eminence of teaching and learning vocabulary in a systematic way. First of all, the research on vocabulary has shown what kinds of vocabulary items should be taught. How to teach these vocabulary items has also been revealed through them. Therefore, it is certain that the learners will benefit from vocabulary learning and teaching. Another reason is that from the point of view of the learners, they seem to have some difficulty in using the language due to lack of vocabulary knowledge. In other words, the learners feel frustrated when they are given a task to carry out, but cannot perform it properly because of vocabulary problems. As the last reason, Nation states that vocabulary learning and teaching is inevitable even in the Communicative Approach. Mehrpour (2008) adds the effect of vocabulary on the learners' improvement in speaking, reading, listening and writing to these reasons. Seal (1990, as cited in Celce-Murcia, 1991,) concludes that "Words are perceived as the building blocks upon which a knowledge of the second language can be built." (p. 269). Therefore, without the knowledge of vocabulary, it is almost impossible to convey meaning in a second or foreign language.

Other significance involves the researcher/instructor's concern for teaching and learning vocabulary. As she has taught English in three different institutions to the

learners of varied ages and levels, she has seen that in all of these institutions, one of the common problems is related with vocabulary. Although the learners are provided with a lot of vocabulary during the classes, they are adept at neither receptive nor productive use of this vocabulary, the latter being worse. Therefore, how to teach vocabulary in an effective way has to be a concern for the present study.

Moreover, when the related literature is analyzed, it is to be concluded that the effectiveness of the TBI on language development, such as reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar and vocabulary and on affective factors like motivation and self confidence has been the focus of a variety of studies. However, these studies have not always reached conclusive results. In other words, the TBI has neither been proved to be effective nor ineffective so far.

Another area of concern for this study is the learners' motivation which is also one of the most important and common problems in language classes where the learners are generally reluctant to participate. The TBI is thought to eradicate this problem by presenting the learners interesting, challenging and enjoyable tasks.

Taking these points into consideration, this study may propose an effective method to teach vocabulary to the university preparation class students, eliminating the problem of motivation in language classes.

1.7. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Several limitations could be mentioned about the present study. First of all, the study was conducted with 77 students at Yildiz Technical University, the School of Foreign Languages, Basic English Department in Istanbul. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize the results of the study as it is a small scale experimental study.

The application of the lesson plans is also one of the limitations. As the syllabus and the pacing were determined by the Reading Coordinator at school, the researcher/instructor was not at all free to do what she would prefer. Furthermore, the

course book was not task-based; so the researcher/instructor had to adapt the materials into tasks.

Another limitation is the video recordings of the classes. As it was impossible to record all the groups in the experimental group, the interaction among the students was not possible to be analysed deeply.

Finally, all the students who participated in the study were aware of the fact that they were the part of a study. As they knew that the results would not affect their end-of-the term grades, they did not pay enough attention to the tests as they do to their usual tests.

1.8. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

The following terms are used in the present study:

Task: “.... activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome.” (J. Willis, 1996, p. 23).

Task-Based “Task-based language teaching proposes the use of tasks as a central component in the language classroom because they provide better contexts for activating learner acquisition process and promoting L2 learning” (Shehadeh (2005, p. 15).

Technique: “Any of a wide variety of exercises, activities, or tasks used in the language classroom for realizing lesson objectives” (Brown, 2001, p. 16).

Traditional Instruction: “Traditional instruction involves lectures, textbooks, and practice problems” (Martin, Rivale & Diller, 2007, p. 2)

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This part mainly focuses on the review of the literature on vocabulary learning and teaching through the TBI, starting with a general overview of ELT which is followed by vocabulary teaching in ELT methods. Then the definition and types of curriculum are discussed with reference to the differences between curriculum and syllabus. After that, syllabus types ranging from the structural syllabus to the task-based syllabus are explained which is followed by the definitions and dimensions of the task, the definitions of the task-based approach, task types, stages of task presentation and teacher and learner roles in the TBI. Then, vocabulary learning and teaching through the TBI is presented. The last part discusses the studies conducted to investigate the effectiveness of the TBI on grammar, reading, writing, listening, speaking, and motivation.

2.1. AN OVERVIEW ON LANGUAGE TEACHING AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

The Classical Method, which focused on teaching Latin and Classical Greek for literary purposes, was the first method in the history of language teaching (Stern, 1987). Grammar rules were taught explicitly; texts were translated into the native language; and rote learning was the main technique at this time (Richards & Rodgers, 1995). The study of classical languages continued until the 12th-15th centuries, when the teaching of modern languages for literary purposes started. During the Renaissance, grammar, education and rhetoric were important and both classical and modern languages were taught (Stern, 1987). Stern divided the years between 1880 and 1980 into four periods.

The first period included the years between 1880 and the World War I. During this period, modern languages were taught at schools and universities (Stern, 1987). The GTM, which became popular in the late 18th century, was one of the language teaching methods in this period. It focused on the teaching of grammar rules explicitly in the students' native language. Students were made to translate texts from

the foreign language to their native language, which was considered as a good mental activity. On the contrary, communication or interaction was not worked on. The teacher was the authority in the classroom and students were not seen as individuals who had different needs and interests (Krashen, 1982; Stern, 1987; Larsen-Freeman, 2004). Stern summarized the problems with the GTM as its overemphasis on the rules, limited practice techniques, and the dominance of the native language.

Due to these shortcomings, at the end of the 19th century, the GTM was found not to be an effective method. Therefore, between 1850 and 1900, the DM started to be used (Stern, 1987). As Larsen-Freeman (2004) stated, "...the Direct Method receives its name from the fact that meaning is to be connected *directly* with the target language, without going through the process of translating into the students' native language." (p. 23). The aim of the DM was to teach how to use the language in communication; therefore, only the target language was used in the classroom both "... as a means of instruction and communication" (Stern, 1987, p. 456). Thus, oral communication skills were emphasized over other skills. Grammar was dealt with inductively, and accuracy was considered important, so errors were to be immediately corrected (Krashen, 1982; Larsen-Freeman, 2004). Lessons were presented with dialogues and comprehension was checked through display questions, the answers of which could easily be found in the text (Richards & Rodgers, 1995; Brown, 2001). Stern claimed that the DM was significant as it enabled some non-translational methods to develop. However, the difficulty of conveying meaning without referring to the native language, the risk of misunderstanding the meaning of the words and the problem of applying the method in later stages caused the DM to lose its effectiveness (Krashen, 1982; Larsen-Freeman, 2004; Stern, 1987).

Stern's second proposition on the splits of periods included the years from the World War I to 1940. During this period, people became aware of the significance of language teaching and learning as they developed an international understanding. However, there were some problems with language teaching. Bloomfield (1942 as cited in Stern, 1987) claimed that:

Our schools and colleges teach us very little about language, and what little they teach us is largely in error. The textbooks are far from perfect and some teachers have not sufficient command of the foreign language. Often enough the student, after two, three, or four years of instruction, cannot really use the language he has been studying.

(p. 99)

Therefore, these language teaching problems were taken into consideration. This period witnessed the occurrence of a new method, the Reading Approach, which mainly focused on reading comprehension (Stern, 1987). The third period started at the time of the World War II and continued up to 1970 (Stern, 1987). During the World War II, the American Army had to teach its soldiers the languages of its enemies and allies quickly (Newton, 1979; White, 1989; Larsen-Freeman, 2004). This Army Method led to a lot of thought on how to teach languages and to the development of the ALM (Stern, 1987). Moreover, American people believed in the necessity of learning a foreign language due to the fact that other countries were witnessing various scientific improvements (Richards & Rodgers, 1995). In the ALM, reading and writing were neglected whereas listening and speaking were emphasized too much. It strictly followed the order, listening, speaking, reading and writing. Language was taught by mechanical habit formation. Therefore, memorization and repetition were important techniques and drills were widely used so that automaticity could be achieved. The ALM was the first method which was based on a theory, that was descriptive linguistics and behaviourism. During this time, linguistics was seen as a separate discipline, which led to the scientific study of language problems. Furthermore, with the introduction of the ALM, it was seen that languages could be taught to a lot of people apart from a school setting. Apparently, “Language learning lost its educational elite status” (Stern, 1987, p. 103). This meant that ordinary people could learn a foreign language as well. However, the ALM lost its effectiveness due to the fact that it gave too much attention to repetition, memorization and drills, which made the learning boring and ineffective in long-term acquisition and which could not be applied to free communication (Krashen, 1982; Stern, 1987; Harmer, 1991; Nunan, 1995; Richards & Rodgers, 1995).

In the 1920s, another method which was called as the Audiovisual Method became popular. The Audiovisual Method had a linguistic and psychological basis like the ALM. Language was presented with the help of a visual scenario where the visual image and the spoken language constructed a meaningful unit. No linguistic explanations were made as the teacher tried to convey meaning by demonstrating, pointing, asking and answering questions. Social nature of the language and the context were important in making the meaning clear. Students were not made to analyze the language. However, there were some problems as in the other approaches. For example, it was difficult to make the meaning clear without any reference to the native language. Moreover, the method was not scientifically proved to be effective as there were not enough studies conducted to investigate its effectiveness (Stern, 1987).

As Stern (1987) stated, again, through the end of this period, it was seen that language teaching problems had been solved as people in the society had become interested in language learning; the governments had made funds available for language projects and the researchers had become willing to carry out studies on new teaching methods. However, these new methods were not proved to be truly effective as the studies did not reach conclusive results. Thus, between 1965 and 1970 new methods and new research started

The CCL, which became popular in the early 1970s, had its roots from the cognitive psychology and transformational grammar. As Krashen (1982) stated, rules were presented in the native language first and then communicative activities were done. Proponents of the CCL claimed that it led to intellectual development and it is "... conscious acquisition of language as a meaningful system" (Stern, 1987, p. 469). The CCL was the last method which appeared in the third period.

Stern explained that the fourth period that included the seventies and the eighties witnessed a reaction against the "method concept" (p.109). Instead of a selection of a single method, language teaching objectives, needs, and curriculum design became important. Teachers started to consider learners as individuals with different needs,

interests, styles and strategies. The importance given to human relations led to the need for interaction in the class. Error analysis in foreign language education, which dealt with analyzing the learners' mistakes in order to better understand the second language acquisition process, has become important (Brown, 2000) and a lot of related research have been conducted since the 1970s. Moreover, interlanguage which means the language of a person who is learning another language started to be studied in terms of "linguistic" and psychological" aspects of language as well (Smith, 1995, p. 8). Another thing which has become significant is child and adult acquisition dealing with whether there is a difference between the children and the adults while learning a second language. Besides, through the studies related with the first and second language acquisition it has been tried to find out the similarities and the differences between the first and the second languages (Brown, 2000). All these things led to the development of the Communicative Approach. The introduction of new methods, namely the Silent Way, the CLL, Suggestopedia, and the TPR might be dealt within the framework of the Communicative Approach. Methods which were a part of the Communicative Approach were all concerned with enabling students to use the language communicatively. All these methods paid attention to human relations, interaction, and students' feeling and ideas. Students were not made to memorize anything; instead, they were engaged in activities which enabled them to negotiate meaning in real-life situations. Students' needs were important and the topics were chosen according to their interests. The classroom applications started to include role plays, games and some other communicative activities (Krashen, 1982; Stern, 1987; Harmer, 1991; Savignon, 1991; Richards & Rodgers, 1995; McDonough & Shaw, 1996; Larsen-Freeman, 2004).

This revolutionary movement also led to emphasis on curriculum design, learner needs and learner autonomy which also meant "self-directed learning" (Stern, 1987, p. 513). Learner autonomy reflected the idea that learners should be aware of and responsible for their own learning, which would result in less reliant on the teacher (Trim, 1981 as cited in Stern, 1987). In 1971, the Council of Europe started a project in order to find ways to teach foreign languages to adults effectively. In 1978, the project started to cover all learners and all types of education. The results of this

project led to the development of the Notional-Functional Approach to syllabus design, which focuses on meaning rather than structure (Yalden, 1987; White, 1989; Savignon, 1991). This approach is based on learners' needs, motivations, characteristics, abilities, limitations and resources. Trim (1980 as cited in Yalden, 1987) states some issues as the following:

Grammatical categories, rules and structures are taught, not simply 'because they are there', like Mount Everest, but in so far as they enable the learner to construct those utterances he needs to achieve his personal and social purposes.

(p. 69)

As it can be inferred from the quotation, the communicative purpose of the learners is an important issue in the selection of the components in the Notional-Functional Approach. Due to this, the term "communicative competence" has been created. Hymes (1971 as cited in Savignon, 1991) stated that the communicative competence referred to using the language in its social context. Similarly, Halliday (1978 as cited in Savignon, 1991) claimed that communicative competence encompassed the social context of the language, which means that a person should be able to use appropriate vocabulary items and forms in a suitable context. This indicates that language learning and teaching for communication has become significant with the introduction of the Notional-Functional Approach (Halliday, 1978, as cited in Savignon, 1991).

2.2. VOCABULARY TEACHING AND LEARNING IN ELT METHODS

Vocabulary teaching has been exposed to various changes in terms of the importance given to it or the techniques used for it. Some methods have paid too much attention to the teaching of vocabulary whereas some others have neglected it (Allen, 1983). Although vocabulary has been considered as an important aspect of language learning and teaching in some of the methods, how to teach it has remained a question. There have been diverse techniques ranging from traditional, teacher-fronted activities like definitions, translation, using synonyms and antonyms to more student-centred techniques such as, asking questions to others, using a dictionary,

contextual guessing, and so on. Apart from these, more recent trends stress the significance of meaningful tasks which require the learners' active involvement in the learning process, thus are more effective than traditional techniques (Gairns & Redman, 1990). The following part includes how vocabulary has been taught in various ELT methods.

The GTM, the oldest ELT method, pays attention to vocabulary teaching since during the time period it was created and used it was realized that one of the aims of language teaching was vocabulary teaching. The GTM expects learners to memorize lists of isolated words with the native language equivalents (Prator & Celce-Murcia, 1979; Krashen, 1982; Stern, 1987; Richards and Rogers, 1995; Larsen-Freeman, 2004). The meanings of the unknown words are explained through etymology, as well (Zimmerman, 1997). Larsen-Freeman states that memorization of vocabulary is considered as a good mental exercise in the GTM. Celce-Murcia and Rosenweig (1979) claim that apart from memorizing the meanings of the words, the students should know the part of speech and also the grammar of each word. The selection of the words depends on the texts which are used. Students have to know the words which are included in the texts (Richards & Rodgers, 1995). The techniques used in the class include the practice of antonyms/synonyms, cognates, or using the words in sentences (Krashen, 1982; Larsen-Freeman, 1986). As it can be deduced from the review on the EFL methods it seems that there might not be a single special technique to teach vocabulary effectively. Instead, the students are expected to learn the words with ways that are neither real life nor permanent.

In contrast to the GTM, the DM is based on teaching the language in the same way as the native language is acquired (Brown, 2001). The aim of the DM is to teach the second language directly without translating it into the native language (Zimmerman, 1997). Therefore, everyday vocabulary is presented in the context and it is identified at the beginning of the lesson (Celce-Murcia & Rosenweig, 1979; Richards and Rodgers, 1995). There are no isolated bilingual lists of words for students to memorize. Instead of translating the words into the native language, the teacher tries to demonstrate the words through the use of realia, pictures or pantomime (Larsen-

Freeman, 2004). If demonstration is impossible as in the case of abstract words, the teacher tries to convey meaning by associating ideas (Richards & Rodgers, 1995). As the meaning is not explained in the native language, the students have to work out what the words mean, which might result in more effective learning.

Similar to the GTM and the DM, the Reading Approach pays special attention to vocabulary learning. Students are expected to do dictionary work and to look up the meanings of the words so that they can translate the texts into their native language (Celce-Murcia & Rosenweig, 1979). Vocabulary is emphasized over grammar; therefore, students are made to learn as much vocabulary as possible (Celce-Murcia & Prator, 1979). Stern (1987) explains that vocabulary control in reading texts is significant in this approach and new words are repeated so that they can be learnt. Although the students are expected to learn a lot of vocabulary, it is only necessary for translating the texts into the native language. Thus, it is difficult to claim that the Reading Approach introduces effective techniques to teach vocabulary.

In contrast to the GTM, the DM and the Reading Approach, the ALM does not focus on vocabulary instruction especially at the initial stages. Firstly, the structures and the sound system are introduced (Celce-Murcia & Rosenwieg, 1979; Krashen, 1982; Richards & Rodgers, 1995; Brown, 2001; Larsen-Freeman, 2004). Although it is limited, new vocabulary is presented in the dialogues, which means that vocabulary introduction is context-embedded. Vocabulary is practiced through various kinds of drills (Krashen, 1982; Larsen-Freeman, 2004). Vocabulary is believed to be learnt with the help of these drills; however, there is not a single special technique to teach vocabulary effectively. Larsen-Freeman (1986) states that vocabulary is limited to the drills. In other words, vocabulary which will only be needed to form the drills is taught.

In the Audiovisual Method, meaning is conveyed by the teacher through pointing, demonstrating, selective listening and question and answer, which is similar to the DM. Students are expected to learn the utterances in the context as a whole. No analysis for vocabulary learning is required (Stern, 1987). The students study the

words as a whole in context instead of analyzing them in isolation, which makes it easier to remember and use.

The CCL, which might be seen as a reaction against the ALM, is based on conscious learning which means that the learner is aware of what he/she is learning. In other words, as Carroll (1966 as cited in Krashen, 1982) states “once the student has a proper degree of cognitive control over the structures of a language, facility will develop automatically with the use of language in meaningful situations” (p. 133). Passive vocabulary is expanded for reading purposes. It is believed that if students know the vocabulary and the structures, they will be able to use the language in free communication (Stern, 1987).

The Communicative Approach, which is one of the recent approaches, is the result of a revolution in language teaching. The interest in human relations and individualism has affected the language classroom in that interaction and students’ needs have become important. All these things have led to new methods, consequently new techniques (Stern, 1987; Richards and Rogers, 1995; Brown, 2001

The Silent Way, which is one of these methods, does not focus on vocabulary at the initial stages (Madsen, 1979; Larsen-Freeman, 1986). Wall charts help students to see the words that have already been presented. With the help of these charts, the teacher enables students to make new combinations of words. At later stages, extensive vocabulary is studied through the use of clusters of words and pictures and special drawings are used to convey meaning (Madsen, 1979). As the Silent Way is counted as a communicative method, through it, the students are expected to understand the meaning of the words along with pictures or to make combinations of words without memorising isolated words.

Another communicative method, Suggestopedia, pays a plenty of attention to vocabulary instruction. Larsen-Freeman (1986) explains that “Claims about the success of the method often focus on the large number of words that can be acquired” (p. 83). Thus, it is believed that the more words students acquire, the more

successful they will become. The lessons are presented through the dialogues which include some notes on vocabulary and the teacher explains the meanings of the words or translates them into the native language of the students. (Madsen, 1979; Krashen, 1982; Larsen-Freeman, 2004). After that, the teacher reads the dialogue “with an emotional or artistic intonation” (Bancroft, 1978 as cited in Krashen, 1982, p. 143). The students listen to the dialogue with the music accompany so that they can be relaxed. With the help of this relaxation, they can acquire new language without conscious focus.

In the CLL, vocabulary instruction is also very significant. Similar to Suggestopedia, words are translated into the native language so that their meanings can be clear for students (Madsen, 1979; Larsen-Freeman, 2004). This procedure makes them feel more secure. They are asked to initiate telling the native language equivalents of the words as their independence from the teacher is an important aspect (Larsen-Freeman, 2004). While students are working on the transcribed texts, they analyze vocabulary (Richards & Rodgers, 1995). Apart from the meaning of the new words, their pronunciation is also studied. However, it is not the teacher who decides what to study; instead the learners choose which word or phrase to practice (Larsen-Freeman, 2004). This gives the learners independence from the teacher, making them more autonomous.

The TPR deals with vocabulary instruction, in particular. Vocabulary is taught through the imperatives in single words or multi-word chunks. The commands become more difficult in time. Students are expected to understand the spoken word first and then to produce it when they feel that they are ready (Krashen, 1982; Larsen-Freeman, 2004).

Finally, in the CLT, vocabulary instruction is significant as well. In contrast to Suggestopedia and the CLL, translation is avoided in the CLT. Meaning is conveyed in the context by the use of real objects, pictures or dramatization (Krashen, 1982; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Richards & Rodgers, 1995). According to Larsen-Freeman (1986), the aim is to deal with discourse rather than only the sentence. Moreover, the

students are encouraged to exploit guessing the meaning from the context strategies and to try to use the language like the native speakers. Likewise, Anthony (1973 as cited in Zimmerman, 1997) claims that vocabulary should be introduced in their cultural context and translation should be avoided both as an approach and as a technique in the CLT.

As it is seen, vocabulary has been dealt with in different ways in various ELT/EFL methods. Some of them pay a plenty of attention to teaching it with some special techniques, whereas some of them literally ignore it.

2.3. THE DEFINITION AND TYPES OF CURRICULUM

Due to the revolutionary movement of the seventies and eighties related to foreign language education, some new methods, techniques and ideas came into being. Curriculum design is one of these new ideas. As the core of this thesis the TBI which is also considered as a syllabus type that could be explained within the term “curriculum”, it is obligatory to give brief information about the concept of curriculum. First of all, the definition of the term should be examined since it has been defined in various ways by different researchers (Stern, 1987).

Robertson (1971) defines the term “curriculum” in a general way. Shaw (1977 as cited in Yalden, 1987) quotes Robertson (1971), as “... the curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school and community through classroom instruction and related programs...”(p. 564). According to Yalden (1987) and White (1989), “curriculum” refers to the whole content and objectives of a school or educational system in contrast to Robertson’s more general definition. Brown (1995) claims that curriculum design involves “... planning, development, implementation and evaluation of language teaching” (p. ix). Similarly, Feez (1998) states that “A curriculum is a general statement of goals and outcomes, learning arrangements, evaluation and documentation relating to the management of programs within an educational institution” (p. 9). In conclusion, although there are slight

differences among the definitions given above, the term “curriculum” generally refers to the planning, implementation and evaluation of the educational programmes.

White (1989) explains that curriculum models are affected by various value systems. According to him, these value systems include classical humanism, progressivism and reconstructionism. These ideologies can be seen in language teaching. For instance, the GTM is influenced by classical humanism, whereas the ALM is an expression of reconstructionism. Similarly, the proposals of Krashen and Terrell (1983) reflect the views of progressivism. As White stated, among these three value systems, classical humanism is associated with culture. On the other hand, reconstructionism is about Skinner’s (1968) operant conditioning. It focuses on the mastery of language. Progressivism aims to present real-life situations for learners and it involves the learners in the decision-making process (Davies, 1976 as cited in White 1989). These ideologies have affected the development of three curriculum models (White, 1989). These models can be examined as follows in the following section.

2.3.1. The Means and Ends Approach

This model of curriculum planning is also called as the Rational Planning Model as it specifies the goals clearly at the beginning as well as the ends (Taylor and Richards, 1979 as cited in White 1989; Clark, 1987). In this model, the distinction between goals, aims and objectives is very important according Taba (1962, as cited in White, 1989). Goals are the most general ones, whereas aims are specific and long-term. Objectives are the short-term or medium-term goals. The Means and Ends or the Rational Planning Model first defines the objectives. Then the content is specified, and finally learning experiences and evaluation are identified (White, 1989).

2.3.2. The Process Approach

White (1989) explains that the Process Approach rejects the pre-determined objectives of the Means and Ends Approach, because according to the Process Approach language use cannot be defined in advance. The Process Approach, as the name suggests, pays attention to procedures rather than the content, the outcomes and the

product. In other words, it is process-oriented, not product-oriented. However, it does not mean that the process approach is directionless or aimless. There are some general goals and principles around which the curriculum is shaped (White, 1989). According to Clark (1987), this approach focuses on methodology which is exploited in the teaching/learning process.

The Process Approach is similar to the actual practices of the teachers. This is because teachers start with the characteristics of the context where the learning takes place. After that, they think about the learners' interests and needs, and they select the content according to these needs. Then they define the aims. Therefore, both in the actual practice and the Process Approach, specification of the objectives does not come first. Consequently, the Process Approach pays special attention to teacher autonomy and it is school- or classroom-based, which means that context is a significant factor (White, 1989).

2.3.3. The Situational Model

The last approach in curriculum design is the Situational Model, which starts with the context where the curriculum planning takes place. It is different from reconstructionism and progressivism as it acknowledges the already existing practices.

The Situational Model is suggested by Skilbeck (1984 as cited in White 1989). It starts with analyzing the school situation. According to Skilbeck, curriculum development should not be forced from outside since it should be central to the institution. The learners should be involved in the decision-making process as well. Then they define the objectives and design the programme accordingly. After designing the programme, they implement it and finally they evaluate it to see the strengths and weaknesses (White, 1989).

As it can be seen from the three different curriculum models, each of them is influenced by a different value system. The first model, the Means and Ends Approach, is an expression of reconstructionism as it is based on rationality and

clarity. On the other hand, the Process Approach is associated with progressivism. They both claim that learning is a process of development. Finally, the Situational Model tries to plan the curriculum from the point of view of the users of the context. This model does not exclude either the Means and Ends or the Process Approaches. The procedures of learning and the content as well as the outcomes are all important factors in the Situational Model of curriculum design (White, 1989). As a result, it is certain that all models of curriculum design discussed above are valuable for language teaching and learning (White, 1989) and it seems impossible to claim that a specific type of curriculum should be preferred over the other.

2.4. SYLLABUS IN CURRICULUM DESIGN

Curriculum design includes various components one of which is the syllabus. However, there is some confusion about the terms “syllabus” and “curriculum”. In the USA, syllabus and curriculum are used interchangeably. Nevertheless, a distinction is made between them in Britain as in Britain; curriculum refers to all the learning process, the total of the content which will be taught (Yalden, 1987; White, 1989). According to Dubin and Olshtain (1987) a language curriculum is described as follows.

It contains a broad description of general goals by indicating an overall educational-cultural philosophy which applies across subjects together with a theoretical orientation to language and language learning with respect to the subject matter at hand. A curriculum is often reflective of national and political trends as well.

(pp. 34-35)

Similarly, Nunan (1989) states that curriculum involves general things about learning like “... planning, implementing, evaluating and managing” (p. 14).

On the other hand, the concept of syllabus is defined as the content of only one subject or a plan of a part of a curriculum (Yalden, 1987; White, 1989; Nunan, 1995). Nunan (1989) defines a syllabus as “... the selecting and grading of content” (p. 14). Moreover, according to Dubin and Olshtain (1987), “A syllabus is a more detailed and operational statement of teaching and learning elements which translates the philosophy of the curriculum into a series of planned steps leading towards more

narrowly defined objectives at each level” (p. 35). Rodgers (1989) claims that curriculum is broader than the syllabus. It is important to make a differentiation between a curriculum and a syllabus; because each has different particular functions. (Dubin & Olshain, 1987). Therefore, the distinction between these two terms will be considered throughout this thesis.

2.4.1. Syllabus Types

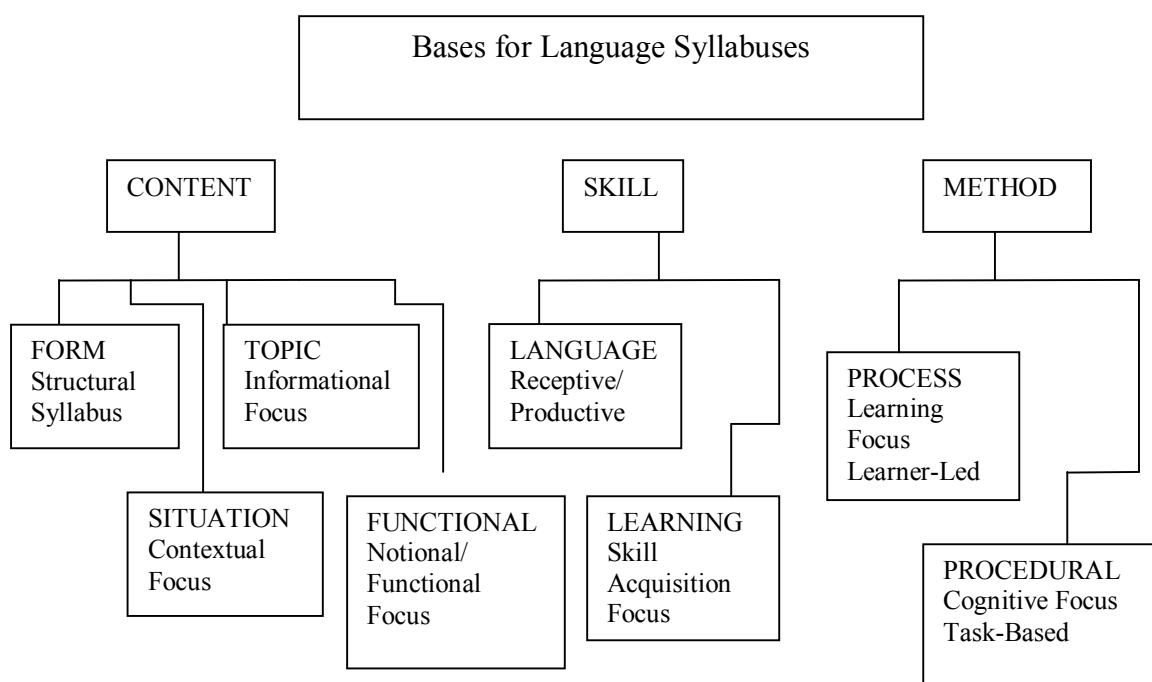
Syllabuses can be divided into two basic types as synthetic and analytic by Wilkins, (1976). However, these two types are not dichotomous; rather they can be seen along a continuum. Wilkins (1976) explains that in synthetic syllabuses “Different parts of language are taught separately and step by step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language has been built up.” (p. 2). The learners are expected to learn the language in separate parts and then to put them together when it is time to use them for communication (Long & Crookes, 1992).

On the other hand, analytic syllabuses do not expect the learners to learn the language in parts, but the language is presented as a whole in chunks. According to Wilkins (1976), analytic syllabuses “... are organized in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes” (p. 13).

A similar classification is made by White (1989) as well. White divides the syllabuses as Type A and Type B syllabuses. This type of classification is more general since it also includes course design, instruction, learning and evaluation. According to White, Type A syllabuses consist of items to be studied, which makes it an interventionist syllabus. Somebody decides what to be included beforehand and divides it into small pieces of language. Thus, these types of syllabuses see the teacher as the decision maker and the authority in the classroom, evaluate the learners in terms of success and mastery.

On the contrary, Type B syllabuses focus on the learning process or procedures instead of the content. They are non-interventionist. There is not a person who chooses the linguistic items. Instead, the learners and the teacher negotiate and make the decisions together. Type B syllabuses evaluate the learners with regard to the learners' own criteria for success (White, 1989). In summary, Type A syllabuses deal with the question "What", whereas Type B syllabuses focus on the question "How" (Nunan, 1989; White, 1989; Long & Crookes, 1992). The following figure (Figure 1) illustrates the classification of syllabuses based on content, skill and method.

Figure 1. White's Classification of Language Syllabuses



(Resource: White, 1989, p. 46)

The figure above shows that language syllabuses may be categorized according to the content, skills or methods chosen, each involving different types of focus. Among these three categories, the content and skills are closer to Type A, whereas the method concept is associated with Type B syllabuses (White, 1989). The types of syllabuses with reference to Figure 1 are discussed in the following part.

2.4.1.1. The Structural Syllabus

Krahnke (1987) and Yalden (1987) explain that the structural syllabus originates in a theory which claims that the structural features of language are fundamental. The content is given in terms of structures and the learners are expected to use the grammar forms (Richards and Rodgers, 1995). According to Wilkins's classification (1976), the Structural Syllabus is synthetic as the rules and forms are listed and highly controlled by the teacher.

The learners may be expected to have various abilities in the Structural Syllabus. First of all, they might be required to have the descriptive ability, which means that they have to describe or explain the grammar rules. Another one might be to expect them to judge the acceptability of an utterance, which is actually an ability that native speakers have. Finally, the learners might be expected to use the linguistic items which are taught (Krahnke, 1987). That is to say, in brief, the structural syllabus deals with the linguistic elements of the language which are decided and controlled by the teacher or the syllabus designer.

Krahnke explains that the selection of the content is not difficult and problematic in the structural syllabus since the grammatical structures of a language are usually known by the designers and all linguistic structures of the target language should be taught. According to him, the only problem might be the degree of detail. The grammatical structures are more or less the same according to the syllabus designers; however, how much detail should be included might vary, which might create some problems.

A significant concern in the Structural Syllabus is the sequencing of the content in the structural syllabus. This might be done according to simplicity, regularity, frequency, or difficulty. Another criterion may be the social utility; however, it is not considered as important as the others (Yalden, 1987). Some other criteria might be "... communicative facility, communicative generalizability, degree of facilitation of acquisition of other structures, perceptual accessibility, and dialectical markedness"

(Krahnke, 1987, p. 18). Whether the structure in question and its native language equivalent are similar or different may be another consideration. (Krahnke, 1987). Therefore, it is clear that sequencing is an important consideration in the Structural Syllabus, which is done according to different criteria.

The structural syllabus has been exposed to criticism due to several weaknesses. For example, how meaning is conveyed in social context is not considered as it is given in isolated sentences. Therefore, it is difficult to transfer the rules into real language use (Krahnke, 1987; Yalden, 1987; Feez, 1998). Another shortcoming is that while the learners think that they are learning a language, what they are actually doing is learning the rules and the structures of the language. The last problem with the structural syllabus according to Krahnke is about the sequencing of the content. This impedes the learners to use the forms that have not been taught. Moreover, Yalden (1987) explains that the structural syllabus expects learners to learn whatever is taught to them, which is not the case most of the time. This is because in reality, students do not always learn what the teacher teaches or plans to teach.

As Krahnke summarises (1987), in spite of these shortcomings, there are also various positive sides of the structural syllabus. For example, grammatical structures can be generalized and they might be argued to be central to the syllabus. Secondly, grammar is familiar to the learners as they all know that grammar is taught in a language class. Moreover, it is easy to define and assess the structures. Furthermore, as it presents rules, fossilization is hindered. Teachers can provide feedback on the accuracy of the learners. Finally, the structural syllabus does not concern about the cultural, social, or institutional values. Therefore, in contexts where the learners are only willing to learn the language instead of the social and the cultural values, the Structural Syllabus seems to be effective.

2.4.1.2. The Situational Syllabus

The second syllabus type which deals with the content is the situational syllabus. The starting point of organization is the situations; thus, language is presented in its social context. The situational syllabus aims to provide learners with as many situations as

possible so that they can use them in real life since language is taught bearing the communicative functions and cultural factors in mind (Krahnke, 1987; Yalden, 1987; White, 1989; Feez, 1998).

Krahnke explains that the situational syllabus may include various linguistic and lexical focuses. It can also emphasize functions or it might present discourse. Situations are generally presented in the form of dialogues or role plays. Actually situations do not generally form the whole content of a language course. They might be used to present new language; to practice the language that is already taught or "...to provide comprehensible input" (Krashen 1982, p. 43). According to Krahnke, (1987), one of the reasons why the whole content of a language course is not formed by situations are that the learners might not be able to transfer what they have learnt to real-life situations. Secondly, it is difficult to find authentic language for instruction. Moreover, if the educational context does not allow for cultural values, it may create a problem because the situational syllabus reflects cultural values through the use of dialogues or role plays. Finally, the sequencing of the items may be problematic as it is not easy to specify the difficulty of the situations.

Krahnke argues that despite these problems, the situational syllabus has some positive characteristics. To begin with, the learners may often be engaged in communication. Furthermore, the meanings are not given in isolated sentences; they are embedded in context, which is effective in language learning and teaching. Finally, the situations supply social and cultural information about the target language.

2.4.1.3. The Topic-Based Syllabus

The Topic-Based Syllabus is another syllabus type which is concerned with the content in White's (1989) classification. This type of syllabus is similar to situational syllabus; however, it is organized around topics rather than situations (Yalden, 1987; Brown, 1995). Topics to be chosen are decided by the syllabus designer according to the interests and needs of the learners. After that, they are sequenced in terms of the perceived importance or of the difficulty of the reading texts (Brown, 1995).

Topics are related to meaning not form; and meaning is not something concrete like form. Therefore, topics might be expressed in different ways by different people. They may be interpreted as too general or too specific (White, 1989). However, there are two good sides of them. The first one is about the content, which means that learners can get lots of information with the help of the target language (Abbott 1987 as cited in White, 1989). The other one is about the motivation factor. White (1989) quotes a study which reports positive effects of using topics on intrinsic motivation (Fein & Baldwin, 1986, as cited in White, 1989). In this study, Fein and Baldwin were teaching a pre-university course which the students were not intrinsically motivated in. After they started using various topics for the course, the students were found to become more motivated as they felt that these topics were suitable for their improvement. This could prove that interesting topics were effective in enhancing the intrinsic motivation of the students.

2.4.1.4. The Notional/Functional Syllabus

The Notional/Functional Syllabus is the third syllabus type in White's (1989) classification. There is some confusion about the use of the terms "notional" and "functional". Some writers use these terms in different meanings (Yalden, 1987). For example, Brown (1995) makes a differentiation between notional and functional syllabuses. According to him, the notional syllabus is organized in terms of abstract concepts such as distance, duration, quantity, and so on, whereas the functional syllabus is organized around some language functions like promising, prediction, suggestion, and so forth. Although this distinction is preferred by some authors, there is not an agreed usage yet (Yalden, 1987).

The Notional/Functional Syllabus is seen a revolutionary movement by many language professionals because it focuses on learners' needs motivations, characteristics, abilities, limitations, resources and communicative purposes. Therefore, form becomes important only when the learners wish to say something in the target language. This idea is expressed by Trim (1980 as cited in Yalden, 1987) as

follows: “Grammatical categories, rules and structures are taught, not simply ‘because they are there’, like Mount Everest, but in so far as they enable the learner to construct those utterances he needs to achieve his personal and social purposes” (p. 69).

This type of syllabus is based on language use instead of on language form. Meaning is believed to be related with the whole sentence rather than with isolated words or sentences. This is especially significant when a person is active as the speaker or the writer because he/she has to choose the form that is appropriate for the present situation (Krahnke, 1987; Yalden, 1987; Savignon, 1991).

Selecting and sequencing of the content are not problematic. Finocchiano and Brumfit (1983) think that learners’ needs, their already existing knowledge, grammatical complexity of the structures that are necessary for the functions and the length of the utterance necessary for the functions are the criteria for selecting and sequencing of the content in the Notional/Functional Syllabus.

Although the Notional / Functional Syllabus is seen as a revolution, some researchers state that there are some weaknesses of it as well. First of all, if a notional/functional syllabus consists only of simple, isolated form-function pairs, the learners will not be able to become communicatively competent. Secondly, it is not easy to generalize the instruction as it deals with functions. In other words, there might be a few structures to carry out a lot of functions, which makes it unnecessary to learn a lot of structures. Moreover, if only short utterances are introduced to the learners, they may not be able to perform longer utterances. Finally, if the phrases that are taught remain unanalyzed, it might be difficult for learners to produce new language (Krahnke, 1987). Therefore.... (sentezleyelim, yorumlayalım lütfen) it could be concluded that the Notional/Functional Syllabus might not be effective in terms of being communicatively competent, forming long utterances, producing new sentences, and learning new structures if some variables are not considered discreetly.

Krahnke explains some positive features of the Notional/Functional Syllabus as well. The first positive characteristic is that teaching language use is significant in language

instruction. Secondly, learners have the opportunity to be exposed to some kind of real interaction, which will definitely improve their communication skills. The last positive feature of the Notional/Functional Syllabus is that if the discourse types are analyzed, the learners will be able to produce new language more effectively. All in all, the Notional-Functional Syllabus is like a revolution in language learning and teaching as it introduced some novelties, such as learner needs, meaning for communication, holistic approach, functions, as White, (1989) suggests.

2.4.1.5. The Content-Based Syllabus

Although it is not included in White's classification, the Content-Based Syllabus is also one of the syllabus types which might be approached from the content part of the classification (Krahnke, 1987).

In its simplest sense, the Content-Based Syllabus refers to teaching the content in the target language. The target language is not taught separately or explicitly as the learners are provided with the subject matter in it. Some versions of the Content-Based Syllabus allow for explicit formal instruction if the learners do not have sufficient command of the target language, though. The Content-Based Syllabus includes communicative competence, sociolinguistic and discourse competence, and strategic competence (Krahnke, 1987). These components are all significant in language learning and teaching since they are all necessary in real-life communication as well.

Krahnke claims that the Content-Based Syllabus has both its weaknesses and strengths. The weaknesses include fossilization due to the fact that the learners rely on communication strategies more than necessary. Another weakness is about the level of the learners. It is very difficult to use this type of syllabus with beginner adult learners because adults might expect to receive formal instruction (Krahnke, 1987). Therefore, it might be claimed that young learners, teenagers, and adult learners might benefit more from the Content-Based Syllabus.

The strengths of the Content-Based Syllabus involve the simultaneous learning of both the target language and the subject, the contextual presentation of language, which removes the transfer problem and an intrinsically motivated environment as the syllabus is designed according to the needs of the learners (Krahnke, 1987). Thus, with the help of the Content-Based Syllabus, the students have the opportunity to improve their general knowledge of the world as well as their foreign language.

2.4.1.6. The Skills-Based Syllabus

Another syllabus type in Type A syllabuses is the Skills-Based Syllabus in White's (1989) classification. In order to explain what the Skills-Based Syllabus is, Krahnke (1987) first defines the word "skill" as "... a specific way of using language that combines structural and functional ability but exists independently of specific settings or situations" (p. 49). The Skills-Based Syllabus design claims that language can be separated into small skills so that the learners will be able to put them together. These syllabuses are usually organized around language and academic skills that might be useful for the learners (Brown, 1995). The Skills-Based Syllabus has both positive and negative characteristics. It is useful in contexts where the learners have to be competent in specific types of language use and it is consistent with the needs of the learners (Krahnke, 1987). Therefore, it might increase the intrinsic motivation of them, which will affect their success in a positive way.

In spite of these positive sides, there are two shortcomings of the Skills-Based Syllabus. The first one is that it may not be able to improve the overall proficiency of the learners if the learners' needs are specified narrowly. Moreover, according to Auerbach (1986 as cited in Krahnke, 1987), this type of syllabus might expect the learners to behave in a particular way, which may be dangerous because of cultural reasons (Krahnke, 1987). That is to say, some cultures might be devalued whereas some others are highly praised and that could cause demotivation. Thus, syllabus designers should be careful so that cultural values will not be affected.

Figure 1 summarizes the classification of the syllabus types in terms of the content, skills and methods. Types of syllabuses dealing with the content and skills are already discussed. They are all included in Type A syllabuses. Now we turn to the Type B syllabuses which are related with the method concern and with the question “How?” These kinds of syllabuses are concerned with psychology or pedagogy rather than with linguistics. Thus, the syllabus designer or the teacher does not generally intervene with the learning process by selecting or grading the content. This leads to the idea that Type B syllabuses are either learner-centred or learning-centred. There are two types of syllabuses in this tradition, the Process Syllabus and the Procedural Syllabus (White, 1989).

2.4.1.7. The Process Syllabus

The Process Syllabus is concerned with education rather than linguistics. According to Breen and Candlin (1987 as cited in White, 1989), the Process Syllabus is learner-led, which is different from traditional syllabuses that are mostly led by teachers in terms of the selection and grading of the content. In a learner-led syllabus, learners decide on the direction; that is why, it is not possible to know beforehand how the syllabus continues. The only thing that is known in advance is the general idea of the outcome.

Bearing this learner-centeredness in mind, Candlin (1984 as cited in White, 1989) claims a need for an interactive syllabus which is based on an interaction and negotiation between the teacher and the learners. Candlin suggests that what the teacher and the learners do are not generally the same. What the teacher plans to do may not always occur in the real classroom environment. Thus, he tries to build a system of the negotiation between the teacher and the learners (White, 1989). As a result of this negotiation, the gap between what the teacher plans to teach and what the students learn might become narrower, which is an important aspect of the learner-centeredness.

Similarly, Breen (1984 as cited in White, 1989) suggests a syllabus type that is related with the teaching and the learning process. In Breen’s opinion, the learners should be

involved in the designing process. Negotiation between the teacher and the learners lead to the organization of the content, methods and objectives. Therefore, learner needs are very important in the Process Syllabus (White, 1989). As an obvious deduction, it could be stated that, when the learner needs are taken into consideration, an intrinsically- motivated environment is created, which results in more success in education.

2.4.1.8. The Procedural Syllabus

The last syllabus type in White's (1989) classification is the Procedural Syllabus. It involves the use of tasks that encourage learners to use the language for a real purpose in order to complete the task, consequently bringing the real world into the classroom environment (Krahnke, 1987; Nunan, 1989; White, 1989).

2.4.1.8.1. The Task-Based Syllabus

The Procedural Syllabus was studied by Prabhu (1987) who was not content with the Structural-Oral-Situation Method. He conducted a study called the Bangalore/Madras Communicational Teaching Process (CTP) that involved the use of tasks which encouraged learners to think and to focus on the completion of the task (White, 1989). Beretta and Davies (1985, as cited in White, 1989) evaluated the CTP project. Their findings suggest that both groups (i.e. the group that received form-focused teaching and the group that received meaning-focused teaching) performed well on their own achievement tests. On the other hand, the CTP group scored better than the form-focused group on the proficiency test that measured reading and listening comprehension. These two findings suggested that the CTP project was successful.

As it can be understood from the components of the CTP project, this type of syllabus has come to be called as the Task-Based Syllabus. Although the Task-Based Syllabus was introduced as a syllabus type at first, it turned into an instruction type that has been used by teachers in the language classroom. According to Nunan (1989), this might be due to the various changes in syllabus design and methodology

after the development of the CLT. In the past, syllabus design involved selection and grading of the content whereas methodology dealt with the selection and sequencing of learning activities. However, with the introduction of the CLT, syllabus and methodology have been integrated. Similarly, Avamaet and Gysen (2008) claim that tasks can be used as the basis for curriculum design, language teaching and assessment. Therefore, the Task-Based Syllabus has become the Task-Based Instruction which is used as a language teaching method in language classes. As to be reminded, in this thesis, the TBI is used in a language class to teach vocabulary.

2.4.1.8.1.1. The Definitions of the Term “Task”

In prior to getting into details about the TBI, the definition of “task” should be considered. The term ‘task’ has been defined in various ways by specialists in the field according to different teaching and learning contexts (Nunan, 1989; Willis, 2004). In its most general sense, “A task is an activity or a piece of work which you have to do, usually as part of a larger project” (Collins English Dictionary of Advanced Learners, 2001, p.1597). From the point of view of education, the earliest definitions of ‘task’ belong to Long (1985) and Richards et. al. (1985). Nunan (1989) quotes Long (1985) for the definition of a “task” as follows:

... a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, taking a driving test, typing a letter, weighing a patient, sorting letters, taking a hotel reservation, writing a cheque, finding a street destination and helping someone across the road. In other words, by ‘task’ is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between. ‘Tasks’ are the things people will tell you they do if you ask them and they are not applied linguists.

(p. 5)

Nunan (1989) states that this definition is not viewed from the perspective of linguistics as some of the examples given do not involve language use. On the other hand, Richards et. al. (1985 as quoted in Nunan, 1989) defines “task” from the point

of view of language education. According to them, a “task” is defined as the following:

... an activity or action which is carried out as a result of processing or understanding language, i.e., as a response. For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape, listening to an instruction and performing a command may be referred to as tasks. Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of a task. The use of a variety of different tasks in language teaching is said to make teaching more communicative... since it provides a purpose for classroom activity which goes beyond practice of language for its own sake.

(p. 6)

In this definition, tasks refer to anything students carry out in the classroom. Similarly Breen (1987) views a ‘task’ as follows:

... any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. ‘Task’ is therefore assumed to refer to a range of workplans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities and decision-making. (Branden, 2006, p. 8)

As Breen suggests, there should be a specified objective and outcome of a ‘task’ to facilitate language learning and the complexity of it should be increased. In other words, it should start with simple types, continuing with more complex ones. Like Breen (1987 as quoted in Branden, 2006), Candlin (1987 as quoted in Branden, 2006) believes that a ‘task’ refers to “... one use of a set of differentiated, sequencable, problem-posing activities involving learners’ cognitive and communicative procedures applied to existing and new knowledge in the collective exploration and pursuance of foreseen or emergent goals within a social milieu” (p. 7).

Candlin pays attention to communication similar to Richards et. al. (1985) as he states that the tasks that are used should trigger learners to use communication no matter they are learning something new or not. Prabhu (1987) agrees with the idea of

reaching an outcome and adds the teacher control to his definition. According to Prabhu (1987), a 'task' is "... an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some processes of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process was regarded as a task" (p. 14). Likewise, Nunan (1989) states the comprehension and manipulation processes adding the focus on the meaning component. In his view, a 'task' is "... a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form" (p. 10).

Like Breen (1987 as quoted in Branden, 2006) and Prabhu (1987), Bachman and Palmer (1996 as quoted in Branden, 2006) believe in the significance of arriving at an outcome. According to them, a 'task' is "... an activity that involves individuals in using language for the purpose of achieving a particular goal or objective in a particular situation" (p. 4). Similarly D. Willis (1996 as cited in Willis, 2004) defines 'task' as follows:

... a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome. In other words, learners use whatever target language resources they have in order to solve a problem, do a puzzle, play a game or share and compare experiences.

(p. 15)

J. Willis (1996), too, pays attention to reaching an outcome and the communication aspect. In her definition, 'tasks' are "... activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome" (p. 23). Moreover, Skehan (1996) believes in arriving at an outcome adding the assessment component to his definition. According to him, a 'task' is "... an activity in which: meaning is primary; there is some communication problem to solve; there is some sort of relationship to comparable real world activities; task completion has some priority; and the assessment is in terms of task outcome..." (p. 15).

Similarly, Bygate et. al. (2001 as quoted in Branden, 2006), define 'task' as "... an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain

an objective” (p. 4). Ellis (2003) and finally Branden (2006) stress the importance of language use and reaching an outcome. Ellis (2003) defines a ‘task’ as follows:

... a work plan that requires the learners to process pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills, and also various cognitive processes. (p. 64)

According to Branden (2006), a ‘task’ is “... an activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language” (p. 4).

As it can be seen above, although the term “task” has been defined in various ways, most of these definitions have a lot in common. For example, most of them stress the idea of reaching an outcome with a specified goal or objective. Although this is not mentioned explicitly in some of them, it is implied. Another commonality is that tasks focus on meaning rather than form. Learners can use any language they would like to as there is not a predetermined structure to be studied. The idea is to complete the task successfully, rather than to use a specific structure accurately. Therefore, tasks might require the use of any language skills (Willis, 2004).

In this thesis, J. Willis’s (1996) definition “.... activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome.” (p. 23) is referred by a ‘task’. As taking such a theoretical base, during the present study, the learners are given various activities the main aim of which is reaching an outcome through communication.

2.4.1.8.1.2. Dimensions of Tasks

Littlewood (2004) claims that there are two dimensions of a task. One of them is the continuum of focus on forms and focus on meaning, whereas the other one concerns the learner involvement in the task. The first dimension, focus on forms and focus

on meaning, is like a continuum rather than a dichotomy, because there cannot be a clear-cut distinction in the activity types. It is divided into five parts. The following figure illustrates the continuum starting from non-communicative learning to authentic communication through examples.

Figure 2. The continuum from focus on forms to focus on meaning

Focus on forms					Focus on meaning
		←	→		
Non-communicative learning	Pre-communicative language practice	Communicative language practice	Structured communication	Authentic communication	
Focusing on the structures of language, how they are formed and what they mean, e.g. substitution exercises, 'discovery' and awareness-raising activities	Practicing language with some attention to meaning but not communicating new messages to others, e.g. 'question-and-answer' practice	Practicing pre-taught language in context where it communicates new information, e.g. information-gap activities or 'personalized' questions	Using language to communicate in situations which elicit pre-learned language, but with some unpredictability, e.g. structured role-play and simple problem-solving	Using language to communicate in situations where the meanings are unpredictable, e.g. creative role-play, more complex problem-solving and discussion	
'Exercises'		(Ellis)		'Tasks'	
'Enabling tasks'		(Estaire and Zanon)		'Communication tasks'	

(Resource: Littlewood, 2004, p. 322)

As seen in Figure 2, the left end of the figure includes non-communicative learning which provides the learners only with the language forms in a context-reduced form through drills. After that, pre-communicative language practice comes. This column focused on both forms and meaning. An example for this could be display questions of which answers are known to everyone. The third column includes communicative language practice. This kind of language practice requires the learners to work on language forms but in order to convey meaning. For example, the learners might be asked to carry out a survey with their peers and complete a chart. After communicative language practice, structured communication is seen in the figure. Structured communication mainly focuses on communication; however, the situation is structured by the teacher so that the learners will be able to complete the task with

their already existing knowledge or they will be able to use the structures that they have recently been studying. Examples include structured role-play activities and information-exchange tasks. Finally, in authentic communication, there are not any pre-determined language forms to be used. The learners are encouraged to use whatever language they have in order to reach an outcome. Problem-solving, content-based or discussion tasks are examples of authentic communication activities.

The second dimension involves the learners' active participation in the task. As it is the main goal of education in general, all teachers are aware that learners should participate in tasks as actively as possible. Keating (2008) carried out a study to investigate the effects of the involvement load of tasks on short-term and long-term retention of vocabulary. Three tasks with different involvement loads are used in the study with three different groups of learners. The results revealed that the tasks with more involvement loads led to more learning in terms of both active and passive vocabulary in short-term and long-term retention.

A similar study was conducted by Kim (2008). The study consisted of two experiments. Experiment 1 was carried out with 64 adult ESL learners to investigate whether tasks with different involvement loads affected vocabulary learning and retention. Experiment 2 aimed to analyze whether two tasks with the same involvement loads led to similar level of learning and retention. The results of the Experiment 1 showed that when the learners were involved in the task, they learnt and recalled vocabulary better. The results of the Experiment 2 suggested that different tasks with the same involvement load led to similar vocabulary learning and retention. These two studies suggest that the more the learners are involved in the task, the better they learn and recall vocabulary items.

2.4.1.8.1.3. The Definitions of the Term “Task-Based Approach” to Language Education

Similar to the definitions of the term “task”, the “Task-Based Approach” has been defined by various educators. One of the earliest definitions of the term “Task-Based

Approach” belongs to Krahne (1987). According to him, the Task-Based instruction “... uses activities that the learners have to do for non-instructional purposes outside of the classroom as opportunities for language learning” (p. 57). Krahne goes on to say that “...the intent of task-based learning is to use learners’ real-life needs and activities as learning experiences, providing motivation through immediacy and relevancy” (p. 58). Similarly, Avamaet and Gysen (2008) believe that the Task-Based Approach to teaching a foreign language attempts to take learners’ language learning needs as its starting point by interpreting them in the first place as an answer to the question ‘why’” (p. 43).

These three definitions of Task-Based Approach to language education focus on the learner needs and motivation. On the other hand, Prabhu (1987) is concerned with the subconscious acquisition of the rules by the learners. He suggests the following propositions:

Task-Based teaching operates with the concept that, while the conscious mind is working out some of the meaning-content, some subconscious part of the mind perceives, abstracts or acquires (or recreates, as a cognitive structure) some of the linguistic structuring embodied in those entities, as a step in the development of an internal system of rules.

(p. 104)

Nunan (1991) is concerned about communication, the use of authentic materials and relating classroom instruction with using the language outside. In his definition, the Task-Based Approach to language teaching and learning has the following characteristics:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language, but also on the learning process itself.
4. An enhancement of the learner’s own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom.

(p. 279)

Skehan (1996) pays attention to the learning process and engaging in meaningful use of the language. He claims that “A task-based approach to learning sees the learning process as one of learning through doing- it is by primarily engaging in meaning that the learner’s system is encouraged to develop” (p. 20). Like Skehan, Richards (2002) focuses on the meaningful context and the process of learning, adding the importance of reaching an outcome. He states that the TBI “... involves the use of tasks that engage learners in meaningful interaction and negotiation focusing on completion of a task” (p. 153). Likewise, according to Shehadeh (2005), “Task-based language teaching (TBLT hereafter) proposes the use of tasks as a central component in the language classroom because they provide better contexts for activating learner acquisition process and promoting L2 learning” (p. 15).

Similarly, Jeon and Hahn (2006) claim that “TBLT provides learners with natural sources of meaningful material, ideal situations for communicative activity, and supportive feedback allowing much greater opportunities for language use” (p. 124). In the same direction, Jacops and Navas (2007) display their opinions on the same issue as follows:

- TBLT promotes language acquisition by:
- a. providing learning with opportunities to make the language input they receive more comprehensible,
 - b. furnishing contexts in which learners need to produce output which others can understand, and
 - c. making classroom closer to real-life language situations.
- (p.1)

Finally, Larsen-Freeman (2004) claims that “... a task-based approach aims to provide learners with a natural context for language use” (p. 144). As it can be seen from the definitions, the concept of real-life context is significant in the TBI. This is because real-life contexts or examples make the foreign language learning process more meaningful and permanent for the learners.

The TBI has been defined by various educators and researchers more or less in a similar way. It might be concluded from the definitions above that the TBI pays attention to learner needs, which is believed to enhance motivation among the learners. Moreover, through the use of tasks in the language class, the learners are

encouraged to use the language in meaningful contexts, which leads to bringing real-life into the class. Language learning process is another thing that can be inferred from the definitions. The TBI is concerned about the process rather than just the product. Finally, with the help of tasks, the learners are thought to acquire the rules subconsciously (Krahnke, 1987; Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 1996; Larsen-Freeman, 2004; Shehadeh, 2005; Jeon & Hahn, 2006; Jacobs & Navas, 2007; Avamet & Gysen, 2008).

2.4.1.8.1.4. Task Types

Tasks are divided into various types or categories by different researchers (Prabhu, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Long 1990 as cited in Jacobs & Navas, 2007; Pica, Kanagy and Falodun, 1993; Estaire and Zanon, 1994 in Zhang, 2006; J. Willis, 1996; Ellis, 2003).

Prabhu (1987) classifies tasks according to the cognitive activity they require. In his classification, there are three types of tasks. The information gap activity is the first one. This requires the transfer of information across people or forms. The second type is the reasoning-gap activity, which involves deriving information by deduction, inference or reasoning. The opinion-gap activity is the last type. It requires the expression of one's feelings and ideas about a given topic.

In terms of designing tasks, Long (1990 as cited in Jacobs & Navas, 2007) highlights three important variables. These variables include planned versus unplanned, open versus closed and required information exchange or not. The first one, planned versus unplanned, is about whether or not learners are given time to plan the language they will produce. Planned activities provide learners with time to decide what to say, whereas unplanned activities require learners to interact with other members of the group without being given any time. Foster and Skehan (1999) conducted a study which aimed to investigate the effects of planning and different source of planning on the language that the students produced. 66 intermediate level students participated in the study. The participants were given a decision-making task under different conditions, such as teacher-led planning, group-based planning,

solitary planning and no planning. The results indicated that the most beneficial condition was the teacher-led planning since the utterances of the students were more accurate, fluent as well as complex than the group-based planning, solitary planning and no planning. Thus, if the tasks are planned with the teacher, they could be more useful for the learners as they become more accurate, fluent and complex.

Likewise, Taguchi (2007) carried out a study to investigate the effect of pre-task planning on the learners' fluency and accuracy. The results indicated that when the learners were given time to plan the task, the complexity, fluency and lexical variety were enhanced. On the other hand, if planning took place while doing the task, the language they produced became more accurate. Djpoura's study (2005) revealed similar results. The study was conducted in Cyprus with twelve pre-intermediate learners whose native language was Greek. Djpoura used three different tasks, namely, problem solving, ordering and sorting, and comparing. Some of the learners were given time to plan the task, whereas the others were expected to start doing the task immediately. The results showed a significant difference between the groups in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity when the learners were given time to plan the task. Similarly, Essig (2005) investigated the effects of pre-task planning on the learners' accuracy and fluency with eight students from a women's college in Japan. The students were asked to tell an event to their group members twice: once without planning and once after planning. The results suggested that planning time had a positive effect on the students' both accuracy and fluency. They were also found to use a wider range of vocabulary after they planned their narratives.

The second variable in types of tasks is closed versus open tasks. Closed activities have one or a set of correct answers which are known by the teacher (Long, 1990 as cited in Jacobs & Navas, 2007). According to J. Willis (1996) closed tasks have a structured instruction as the outcome is limited. Therefore, the teacher expects learners to say or produce a specific outcome and he/she decides whether the answer is right or wrong. On the contrary, open activities do not have a correct answer. The answers can change from person to person; thus, everyone is free to express their own opinion. The answers' correctness depends on the participants' point of view.

Long (1990 as cited in Jacobs & Navas, 2007) claims that if learners know that there is one or a set of correct answers for a task, they tend to negotiate more. This is because they try to find the correct answer. On the other hand, Bono (1973 as cited in Jacobs & Navas, 2007) argues that open tasks lead to more creative thinking. This issue of whether open or closed tasks lead to more negotiation or more language production has been under research recently.

Duff's study (1993) was concerned with this. It was carried out to see whether open-ended tasks affect the production of interlanguage structures. The participant, who was a 28-year-old Cambodian immigrant in Canada, was audio taped for eight hours carrying out different types of tasks, namely, interview discussion, picture description and Cambodian folktale narration. Although the results indicated that the participant produced more in the folktale narration task than in the other tasks, the researcher could not conclude that this change was due to the type of the task; because the language production of the participant differed through the same type of the task as well. For example, during one interview, he produced a lot of interlanguage structures, whereas in another interview, he did not produce much.

Swain and Lapkin's (2001) study which was carried out to investigate the effects of task types on accuracy, the degree of attention to language forms, vocabulary use and knowledge of meta-language reached more conclusive results. Two different tasks were used in the study. One of them was a jigsaw task that required the learners to construct a story by looking at the pictures. The other one, a dictogloss task, asked the learners to listen to a text and take notes about it, and after that to write the text again according to these notes. The results of the study showed that the dictogloss group was more accurate than that jigsaw group as they tended to use more complex structures. On the other hand, the jigsaw group was found to use a wider range of vocabulary and they had the knowledge of meta language, which might be due to the fact that this task was open-ended. Therefore, it could be concluded that in this study, open-ended tasks enhanced negotiation among the learners.

Poupore's study (2005) revealed similar results. The study took place in a Korean university with 21 students. The students were recorded performing problem-solving, jigsaw and information-gap tasks. Problem-solving tasks, in this study, were considered as more open-ended than the jigsaw/information-gap tasks, which was because the students were free to reach an outcome however they wished. On the other hand, the jigsaw/information-gap tasks required them to tell their group members the information they had, so these tasks were more closed. Similar to the results of Swain and Lapkin's study (2001), closed tasks did not produce as much negotiation as the open tasks.

In addition, Lehtonen (2008) conducted a study with Master's level learners from the University of Helsinki in Food Marketing Department. There were both individual and group/pair tasks with a wide range of types, such as writing journals, choosing an academic article, preparing a word list, preparing a test and participating in a meeting about the topic of the article. The results showed that open-ended tasks enhanced negotiation and they helped the learners to engage in meaningful communication more than closed tasks.

As these studies suggest, open-ended tasks have been found to lead to more negotiation among the learners due to the fact that all of them have different ideas about something and they tend to share their ideas with each other.

The last variable concerns, as Long (1990 as cited in Jacobs & Navas, 2007) suggests, about whether the task requires exchange of information or not. If learners are given a text and some comprehension questions, there is no exchange of information because all the members have a copy of the text and there is no information gap. On the other hand, if there is information gap, exchange of information is inevitable. Information gap activities are divided into two types: one-way and two-way. In one-way information gap activities, only one of the members has the information. For example, when one of the members of the group has a picture and describes it to the others, there is one-way flow of information. In two-way information gap activities, each member has some information that is unique.

For instance, when each person has a different part of a text, they have to come together and tell each other the information they have. Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) claim that according to this one-way versus two-way classification, there are five types of tasks: jigsaw, information gap, problem solving, decision-making and opinion exchange.

There are divergent claims about the frequency of negotiation of meaning in one-way and two-way tasks. Shortreed (1993) cited Long's study (1981), which indicated that two-way tasks required more negotiation between the learners. On the contrary, Shortreed's study (1993) revealed different results. In his study, two tasks were used to investigate the effects of different tasks on foreigner talk. One of the tasks was a picture recognition task in which the learners had the same pictures but in different orders. One of them was asked to tell the order of the pictures and the other was required to put them into an order accordingly. In the second task, one of the learners had some drawings and she/he was expected to tell those drawings to the other learner while the other one tried to draw those pictures. The results of the study showed that the second task that was classified as a one-way task required the learners to produce more speech than the first task, which contrasted with the results of Long's study.

Similar results were revealed by Foster (1998) who aimed to investigate the effects of task types on the language produced by the EFL learners at a college. The learners were given four tasks two of which were classified as optional information exchange and two were as required information exchange. The learners carried out a grammar-based task, a picture differences task, a discussion task and a problem-solving task. The results suggested that the tasks that required information exchange did not lead to more talk, on the contrary, the optional information exchange tasks were found to create more negotiation among the learners.

Slimani-Rolls (2005), too, investigated the differences between two-way tasks as opposed to one-way tasks and decision-making tasks. 20 students from an education institution on International Business Administration with French for Business

Purpose participated in the study. The students were given a two-way task, a one-way task and a decision-making task. The results showed that similar to Shortreed (1993) and Foster (1998), the two-way task did not lead to much negotiation between the pairs since the students only tried to get the missing information. On the other hand, the one-way task and the decision-making task provided real communication for the students.

Another classification of task types is done by Nunan (1989) as real-world and pedagogic tasks. Real-world tasks require the learners to do things which they might come across in real life. On the other hand, pedagogic tasks expect the learners to perform things which are unlikely to take place outside of the class. These kinds of tasks are thought to help the learners with the language learning process. Pedagogic tasks are chosen according to a theory or model, whereas real-world tasks are selected according to the needs and interests of the learners. A similar classification is claimed by Estaire and Zanon (1994 as cited in Zhang, 2006). They classify tasks as communication tasks and enabling tasks in similar fashion with Nunan. Communication tasks might be real-life tasks in Nunan's view while enabling tasks may be similar to pedagogic tasks.

According to J. Willis (1996), tasks are divided into six types. The first one is 'listing' (p. 26), which creates a lot of talk among learners. Listing tasks can be carried out by brainstorming or fact finding. The outcome of listing tasks is a completed list or a draft of a mind map. The second type of tasks is 'ordering and sorting' (p. 26). These tasks could be done in four ways. The items may be ordered chronologically or logically, or they might be ranked according to personal values; they might be sequenced according to groups or headings or they could be classified in different ways if there are not any categories given. 'Comparing' is the third type of task (p. 27). These tasks involve learners to compare similar information from different sources. Learners might relate specific points to each other; they may find the things that are similar or in common, or they may find the differences. Another type is 'problem solving' (p. 27). These tasks require learners to use their intellect and reasoning abilities. They are generally challenging and engaging. The fifth type

is 'sharing personal experiences' (p. 27). Learners are encouraged to talk freely about themselves. The last type of tasks is 'creative tasks' (p. 27). These require learners to carry out free creative projects usually in pairs or groups. The other five types can be embedded in creative tasks as well.

Some studies have been done to explore whether the task type is effective on the language development of the learners. For example, Yoshimura (2006) conducted a study to investigate whether the foreknowledge of different types of output tasks affected the learners' reading behaviour, text comprehension and noticing of language forms through the use of three different tasks. One of these tasks was reading for memorization; the other one was reading for retelling and the last one was reading for visualization. The results showed that although the learners showed no significant gains in terms of the text comprehension, they tended to have different behaviours in different tasks. For instance, the first and the second group (reading for memorization and reading for retelling) engaged in translation more often than the third group (reading for visualization). Similarly, in terms of verb production, which required the learners to fill in the blanks according to the text, the first group produced more same words than the second group, and the second group produced more than the third group.

Similarly, Taguchi (2007) studied the effects of the task type on the learners' language ability. The results revealed that the learners produced more speech in the conversation task than in the narrative task. This might be due to the fact that they were asked to speak freely in the conversation task whereas in the narrative task they were required to describe their roommate, which was limited in nature.

2.4.1.8.1.5. Stages of a Task Presentation

J. Willis (1996) claims that tasks should not be presented haphazardly. Otherwise the TBI might encourage fossilization, hindering language development (Skehan & Foster, 2001). Therefore, there should be a cycle through which tasks are presented to the learners in a motivating way (Dörnyei, 2001). However, this cycle is

interpreted in different ways by different researchers (White, 1989; J. Willis, 1996; D. Willis, 2003; Ellis, 2006). White (1989) divides tasks into two stages: the pre-task and the task. The pre-task stage is carried out by the teacher who introduces the task with a different content. This stage helps the teacher have an idea of the learners' comprehension so that he/she can make necessary changes, and the task stage consists of the completion of the task by the learners.

On the other hand, J. Willis (1996), D. Willis (2003) and Ellis (2006) divide tasks into three stages. According to J. Willis (1996) the stages consist of the pre-task, the task and the language focus. Similarly, Ellis (2006) classifies tasks as the pre-task, during task and post-task stages. However, D. Willis does not include a pre-task stage; instead he starts with the task, then planning and report stages and finally the language focus stage.

Various activities could be carried out during the pre-task stage. For example, according to Skehan and Foster (2001), actual teaching, implicit language instruction, model tasks or consciousness raising activities are some of the alternatives. However, J. Willis (1996) believes that the pre-task stage does not include any explanations of new language or grammatical structures as the teacher does not focus on a single point of language. Instead, the teacher should enable the learners to understand the topic area first, and then activate their already existing knowledge or phrases. Learners might also be introduced some new vocabulary about the topic. However, the main purpose is to introduce the topic and the task; therefore, it is very important to make sure that all learners are informed about the goals and the outcome of the task. Thus, instructions are crucial during this stage. There are various alternatives of giving instructions, for instance, making the learners read the instructions themselves, the teacher's demonstrating, playing the recording of somebody performing a similar task or showing what the previous learners did.

Ellis (2006) presents four alternatives for the pre-task stage. The first one is performing a similar task; the second one is providing a model; another alternative is non-task preparation activities and the last one is strategic planning. J. Willis gives

some examples for such activities as classifying words and phrases, odd one out, matching phrases to pictures, memory challenge, brainstorming and mind-maps, thinking of questions to ask and teacher recounting a similar experience. Although J. Willis states that the pre-task stage should not involve any explanations about the language to be produced, Rosa and Leow (2004) carried out a study which aimed to investigate the effects of explicit pre-task language instruction on the learners' language development. 100 adult learners of Spanish from Georgetown University participated in the study. Data were collected through the use of a multiple-choice recognition test, a written production test and an awareness questionnaire. The results revealed that in terms of the recognition of the items, the explicit pre-task language instruction did not have a significant effect; whereas with regard to production of new items, explicit pre-task language instruction was found to be significantly effective.

A similar study was conducted by Muller (2006) in which he presented language forms during the pre-task stage. The results of the study revealed that in terms of grammar forms, the learners were found to be using the ones in their textbook as they were explicitly presented to them. However, with regard to vocabulary, they tended to use the words both from their textbook and others. This suggests that the explicit pre-task language instruction is effective in grammar but not in vocabulary.

Another study was conducted by Boston (2008) with low-level Japanese learners. They were asked to perform the same task; however, one group listened to some audio recordings before they performed the task, whereas the other group listened to these recordings after the task. The results of the study suggested that low-level learners did not mine whole structures from pre-task audio recordings, which indicated that although the learners were presented with new language items during the pre-task stage, they did not focus on them during the task unless the teacher drew explicit attention to them.

The second stage of the task cycle is the task stage according to J. Willis or the during task stage according to Ellis. In D. Willis's (2003) classification, this is the

first stage of the task cycle. During this stage, learners are encouraged to use what they already know about the language to complete the task. This stage helps learners become fluent in the target language as their focus is on negotiation of meaning rather than on form. The main aim is to complete the task to reach an outcome (J. Willis, 1996; D. Willis, 2003). Ellis (2006) claims that there are two options in during task stage. The first one is task performance options. The first task performance option is about time limitation. The teacher should decide whether to set a time limitation or not. This influences the accuracy of the language. If learners are given a limited amount of time, they tend to be more fluent rather than being accurate. On the other hand, if there is not a time limitation, the language they produce is likely to be more accurate. The second option is about whether the learners should be allowed to see the input data or not. The teacher may want learners to look at the data or he/she may forbid this. This option affects the complexity of the task. When learners are allowed to see the data, they are likely to produce more complex language. The last option involves whether to include a surprise element in the task or not. Foster and Skehan (1996) carried out a study on this option. Their study did not reach any conclusive results such as the positive effect of the surprise element on fluency, accuracy or complexity. However, it does not mean that the surprise element is meaningless, because it might be more motivating and challenging for the learners. The second option about during task stage is the process options, which are decided during the task. Schon (1983) and Eraut (1994, as cited in Ellis, 2006) claim that these options reflect the teacher's "theory-in-use" and "practical knowledge".

Unlike Ellis (2006), J. Willis (1996) divides the task stage into two phases: planning and report. According to D. Willis's (2003) framework, planning and report is the second stage, as well. Preparing an oral or written report is significant; because learners might have the opportunity to improve their language while planning for the report. If they only carry out the task, there is a risk of becoming inaccurate but fluent. Thus, in order to prepare a report, the learners have to be both accurate and fluent (J. Willis, 1996). However, they do not focus on the form imposed by the teacher; they try to convey their messages (D. Willis, 2003). During the planning

phase, learners can get help from each other, the teacher, dictionaries or from grammar reference books. The teacher should explain what is expected of the learners; how much time they have; and how the report should be prepared. Reporting the results is crucial as it is the product of the learners. All learners in the class have the opportunity to learn about the findings of the other groups. Teacher feedback is very important at this stage. The teacher should not focus on the learners' mistakes, instead he/she should pay attention to the things they have got right (J. Willis, 1996).

Johnston (2005) carried out a study to investigate the effects of the planning/report stage on grammatical accuracy and complexity, and lexical variety and accuracy and found that planning/report stage was beneficial for accuracy, variety and complexity in terms of grammar and vocabulary.

The third stage of the task cycle is the language focus (J. Willis, 1996; D. Willis, 2003). This stage is important in promoting learning. It is divided into two phases: analysis and practice. Analysis aims to make learners identify some features of language form and use. These are also called as consciousness-raising activities, language awareness activities or meta-communicative tasks. Analysis activities are given in context not in isolation. Learners already know the meanings and they have the opportunity to study the forms at this stage. The practice phase is useful for revision. It provides controlled practice which is important in a language classroom (J. Willis, 1996; D. Willis, 2003). According to J. Willis, language focus activities include repetition, listen and complete, gapped examples, progressive deletion, unpacking a sentence, repacking a sentence, memory challenge, concordances of common words, dictionary exercises, personal recordings and computer games.

J. Willis and D. Willis's task presentation stages end in language focus part. On the other hand, according to Ellis (2006), the third stage is the post task stage. He presents some alternatives for this stage. For instance, the task may be repeated under the same conditions as the first one or it may be changed. Lynch and Maclean (2000) conducted a study to investigate the effects of task repetition that was similar to

Ellis's (2006) post-task stage. The researcher did not expect the learners to carry out the same activity. The basic communication goal was the same, but the content was different. The results showed that this type of repetition or recycling was helpful for the learners.

Németh and Kormos (2001), too, aimed to investigate the effects of task repetition on language performance of 24 Hungarian learners of English. The learners were asked to carry out a series of argumentation tasks twice. The results revealed that during the second performance of the same task, the learners were found to convey their message better since they became familiar with the task type.

Likewise, Pinter (2005) conducted a study with 10-year old children. 10 pairs of students were asked to perform two different tasks. These two tasks were repeated three times with the same learners; however, the content was different. At the end of the study, it was found that the learners liked the tasks and enjoyed the lessons. Moreover, some changes were detected between the first performance and the last performance. The learners were found to become faster and grammatically more accurate. They also improved their interaction skills; they became more self-confident, which decreased their anxiety level.

Similarly, Birjandi and Ahangari (2008) aimed to investigate whether there was an effect of task repetition on the fluency, accuracy and complexity of the learners' oral production. The study was conducted with 120 intermediate level learners of English at Tabriz Islamic Azad University. Three types of tasks, namely a personal task, a narration task and a decision-making task, were given to the learners twice. The results indicated that task repetition had a positive impact on the learners' oral performance with regard to fluency, accuracy and complexity, which was due to the fact that they tried to repair their language problems while carrying out the task for the second time.

Ellis (2006) states that another alternative for the post-task stage is to make the learners reflect on the task they have performed. This point was made clear in

Otlowski's study (2008) that was carried out at a Japanese university in the International Studies Department. The learners were taking the Oral Communication course from a native speaker of English. The unit about the Job Interviews was presented to the learners in the task-based format as the pre-task, the main task and the post-task. The learners were asked to reflect on the task during the post-task stage. The ideas taken from their reflections made positive contributions to the classes as the teacher had the opportunity to see the needs and interests of the learners.

2.4.1.8.1.6. Teacher and Learner Roles in TBI

According to Nunan (1989), a 'role' is the part which the learner and the teacher play while they are carrying out the tasks. It may also refer to the social and interpersonal relationships between the learners and the teacher. Agreeing with the same definition, Ellis (2006) claims that the TBI offers different roles for both teachers and learners, because it tries to encourage them to forget that they are in the classroom to learn a second language and to enable them to carry out tasks which they may encounter outside the class.

2.4.1.8.1.6.1. Teacher Roles in TBI

According to J. Willis, preparing a task-based lesson requires some advance preparation for the teacher. If the teacher uses a task from a coursebook, it is not difficult since coursebooks generally provide useful activities. However, if there is no coursebook, the teacher has to prepare some materials and tasks himself/herself. For example, he/she has to find relevant pictures, relevant texts or activities. He/She should work on creative ideas about how to introduce the task or to build vocabulary. It is his/her duty to select and sequence the tasks according to the levels of the learners (J. Willis, 1996; Oxford, 2006).

J. Willis states that teacher roles differ along with the task cycle. During the pre-task stage, the teacher should control the class and learner talk, balancing the target

language and the mother tongue. He /She should set some rules of converting to the mother tongue. This issue has been the focus of various studies as it is accepted as a problematic situation by most of the language teachers implementing the TBI. For example, Swain and Lapkin (2000) conducted a study to investigate the effects of the use of the native language while the learners were performing some tasks. Contrary to J. Willis's opinion, the results indicated that the native language of the learners might have contributed to the completion of the task as they had converted to the native language to make sense of the instructions and the content of the task, to focus on grammatical forms, vocabulary use and organization, and to establish the nature of their collaboration.

A similar study was carried out by Carless (2002) to investigate the reasons why the learners shift to their mother tongue while they are working on the foreign language learning tasks. Three EFL classes in Hong Kong primary schools were observed along with their teachers. The learners were found to be using their mother tongue due to various reasons, such as to clarify what the teacher said, to discuss on how to carry out the task, and to create group cooperation. In another study, Carless (2008) reported interviews with ten teachers and ten teacher educators. According to them, the students were reluctant to speak English during the classes. With regard to using the mother tongue during the classes, they claimed that it was inevitable, adding that it was generally used "... to maintain the students' attention, interest or involvement..." (p. 333). The mother tongue was also claimed to support the students in expressing meaning and humour. The overall findings were consistent with the previous research that the mother tongue should be used in a balanced way in order not to risk the failure of communication.

The role of the teacher during the task stage is to act a monitor (J. Willis, 1996; Oxford, 2006). He/She should not interfere with the learners while they are trying to complete the task. Teacher interference might only be necessary when one of the groups speaks in the mother tongue or seems to be stuck. At this stage, the role of the teacher is not an active one. He/She should be sure that all of the learners have understood the task; that all of them are participating; and so on. Lynch (1997)

claims that when communication breaks down in the group, the teacher should not intervene immediately. First of all he/she should act as a supporter, trying to enable the negotiation to continue. He /She should also keep the time. During the time when the learners are planning their reports, the teacher is like an adviser. If learners want to ask something, the teacher should help them. However, he/she should encourage them to self-correct, to use dictionaries, and to help each other. At this stage, the teacher should try to suggest learners ways to improve their language. The report stage requires the teacher to act as the chairperson. He/She should introduce the presentations; put them into an order, to motivate learners to listen and to summarize them in the end (J. Willis, 1996; Oxford, 2006).

During the last stage, language focus, learners first analyze the structures. While they are making analysis, the teacher should monitor and not interfere. At this stage, learners may ask individual questions, which the teacher may want them to look up the dictionary or in a reference book or he/she may answer it quickly. After they have finished with the analysis, the teacher should review their findings with the class. Here learners might be asked to explain their reasons (Willis, 2004).

2.4.1.8.1.6.2. Learner Roles in TBI

As much research indicates, with the introduction of the CLT, learner-centred approaches have become important. These approaches suggest that learners be involved in the learning and teaching process, such as decisions on content selection, methodology and evaluation. Breen (1987 in Nunan, 1989) claims that learners' perceptions influence what they learn from the tasks, so learners might be involved in choosing tasks. Another role for the learners is that they should discover the language themselves before the teacher makes any explanations. They should also learn to make intelligent guesses with the help of the context; they should learn from their errors and they should be ambiguity tolerant during the tasks (Krahnke, 1987; Nunan, 1989).

While describing students' role in TBI, J. Willis (1996) claims that the learners should be responsible for their own learning; they should be motivated to accomplish the task and they should be willing to take risks while carrying out the task.

2.4.1.8.1.7. Vocabulary Teaching and Learning in the TBI

As it was stated earlier in this chapter, the TBI is one of the methods stemming from the Communicative Approach, which was a current trend in foreign language teaching with its novel ideas, methods and techniques.

Harmer (1991) points out that tasks can help learners learn and remember new words more easily. Instead of explaining the definite literal meaning of the word, the teacher might provide the learners with various tasks with which they can discover the meanings of them. According to Nation and Newton (1997) and Nation (2005), this will encourage them to use the words in genuine communication. Nation and Newton (1997) claim that communicative tasks might aim to teach vocabulary. They state some advantages of these communicative tasks. First of all, in group-work tasks the learners see each other and they adjust their speech according to the levels of the group members while they are speaking. Therefore, the learners might learn from each other through negotiating meaning. Moreover, as these kinds of activities have a meaningful context, the learners have the opportunity to see the new words in meaningful settings. Thirdly, when the learners have to repeat the new words throughout the task, the words are learnt more permanently as the learners repeat them in meaningful context.

Furthermore, Hall (1992 as cited in Nation and Newton, 1997) claims that the learners might be expected to use the new words in production after seeing them in context, which will result in more effective learning. Finally, Long and Porter (1985 as cited in Nation and Newton, 1997) states that the learners are more relaxed while working in groups. That is to say, although they make a mistake, they do not feel humiliated as they are not talking to the whole class. The factors discussed above are all important for broadening the vocabulary knowledge of the learners. However,

what is more important is the type and placement of these activities as well as the need and the levels of the learners.

How vocabulary is dealt with during the task cycle is stated by J. Willis (1996). For instance, throughout the pre-task stage, the words that the learners already know are activated or new words which might be necessary during the task are introduced. J. Willis (1996) states various vocabulary tasks for the pre-task stage. These include classifying words and phrases, odd one out, matching phrases to pictures, memory challenge, brainstorming and mind mapping. The learners are thought to use these words while preparing their reports or presenting them to the class. During the language analysis stage, words the meanings of which are related to the topic of the task are dealt with. With regard to starting points for the language analysis activities, the teacher might start with “semantic concepts (themes, notions, functions), words or parts of a word and categories of meaning or use” (p. 105). According to J. Willis (1996), the activities which are about the vocabulary that expresses the main idea of the text are the most useful ones. These types of activities improve the learners’ vocabulary knowledge. The learners might be given activities like classifying the words according to their functions, finding the collocations of them, finding similar examples, classifying the words according to their meaning or use and so forth.

As vocabulary teaching and learning is thought to be more effective through the TBI, it has been the focus of various studies so far. In general, the results of such studies suggested positive effects of the TBI on the retention of vocabulary. For instance, Zaki and Ellis’s study (1999) aimed to investigate whether it was possible to learn vocabulary by performing various tasks about a text. 28 students from an ESL program at a college in New Jersey participated in the study. They were asked to carry out some tasks about a written text. The results showed that using tasks made a positive effect on the comprehension of the text, whereas it did not have any significant effects on vocabulary learning.

Similarly, Huyen and Nga (2003) conducted a study to investigate the effects of vocabulary games on vocabulary acquisition and motivation. Their study took place

at the Distance Education Centre in Vietnam. The vocabulary was taught by using some tasks like games. The learners reflected that they were able to recall vocabulary better as the games were engaging and motivating for them.

Compared to the others, Stark's study (2005) revealed a more positive effect of the TBI on vocabulary acquisition. The participants of the study were at University of Fribourg in Switzerland. The learners carried out a task-based project during their Business English course. The results of the project suggested that the learners improved their vocabulary and they became aware of the differences between spoken and written English.

Similarly, De La Fuente (2006) aimed to investigate the impact of the TBI on vocabulary acquisition. Three groups of learners participated in the study. The first group received Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) instruction; the second group took the lesson by the TBI without a language focus part; the third group performed a task with a language focus component. The test that evaluated the immediate acquisition revealed no significant difference across the groups. However, the retention test which was applied one week after the first test indicated that the third group did significantly better than the first and the second group.

On the other hand, Mehrpour (2008) conducted a study to investigate the differences between bilingual word lists and sentence-making tasks. The study was carried out with 50 male Iranian learners of English at beginner level. The results of the data analysis revealed that the experimental group which was given bilingual word lists outperformed the control group which was required to carry out sentence-making tasks. The students in the experimental group were better at both the rote memorisation test and the sentence-making test although the control group was given instruction on sentence making tasks during the treatment.

2.4.1.8.1.8. Other Studies related with the TBI

As stated before, the TBI has recently been the focus of various studies. The effects of the TBI have been investigated not only in terms of vocabulary acquisition but also in terms of other linguistic components and skills such as grammar, speaking, writing or reading and affective factors that encompass motivation or self-confidence. The results of these studies have sometimes revealed that the TBI has had positive effects on language improvement or sometimes it has been found to have a negative impact or it has neither positive nor negative effects.

The effect of the TBI on the acquisition of various grammatical items has been one of the concerns of the research. Fotos (1993) conducted a study to investigate whether explicit knowledge of grammar structures through formal instruction and tasks would affect the noticing of the structures in the communicative input and to see whether there would be a significant difference between the grammar lesson group and the grammar task group. 160 Japanese EFL learners were divided into three groups as the grammar lesson group who received formal instruction, the grammar task group who carried out grammar consciousness-raising tasks and the control group who performed communicative tasks without grammar instruction. The structures under study were adverb placement, relative clause usage and indirect object placement. In terms of the adverb placement and the relative clause usage, there found to be no significant difference between the grammar lesson group and the grammar task group. However, with regard to indirect object placement, the grammar lesson group was found to be better than the grammar task group. On the other hand, the control group showed no notice of the structures. The overall findings suggested that grammar consciousness-raising tasks could be considered as almost effective as the formal instruction; however, communicative tasks without any grammatical content did not seem to enable the learners to notice the structures.

Similarly, Fotos and Ellis (1999) carried out a study to investigate whether there was a significant difference between learners who received the TBI and learners who were taught by a traditional method. The participants included two groups of

Japanese EFL College students: first-year English language majors at a women's junior college and first-year Business Administration majors at a private university. The students were randomly assigned to one of the three groups: the task treatment group, the traditional grammar treatment group and the control group who were given a reading assignment in a separate classroom. The results of the women's junior college suggested no significant difference between the post-test scores of the task treatment and the grammar treatment. The grammar treatment group did not reveal any significant difference between the post-test and the retention test, which indicated that there was not a loss of proficiency in the grammar treatment group. On the other hand, the task-based treatment was found not to be effective in terms of the difference between the post-test and the retention test as there was a loss of proficiency for this group. For the students at the university, the results indicated that the grammar treatment group did significantly better than the task treatment group, which led to the conclusion that the TBI was not an effective method with regard to learning grammatical items.

Mohamed's study (2004) revealed similar results. The use of tasks was found to have no significant effect on teaching grammatical items. Both traditional and task-based approaches were effective in terms of grammar teaching.

Contrary to Fotos and Ellis (1999) and Mohamed (2004), Mutlu's study (2001) revealed different results. Her study took place at the School of Foreign Languages with 102 students as participants at Anadolu University, in Eskişehir, Turkey. Two different grammatical items were chosen as the focus of the study. The students in the control group received traditional instruction while the students in the experimental group were taught by the TBI. The data were gathered through pre-test, post-test and retention test. The results for the two different grammatical items were not the same. For the first grammatical item, both the TBI and the traditional instruction were effective in the immediate acquisition; however, in terms of retention, the TBI was found to be significantly better than the traditional instruction. For the second grammatical item, the TBI was found to be more effective in terms of

the immediate acquisition, whereas both instruction types were effective with regard to retention.

Uysal (2003) reached similar results in his study. His study was carried out at Anadolu University, the School of Foreign Languages in Eskişehir, Turkey and “Relative Clauses” were chosen as the focus of the study. The students were given a pre-test, a post-test and a retention test after they received the TBI and a traditional method. The results suggested that for immediate acquisition both the TBI and the traditional instruction were effective. In terms of retention, both types were found to be effective; however, the TBI was found to be better in comprehension type questions.

Likewise, Orhan (2004) investigated the effect of the TBI on the acquisition of “Relative Clauses” by high school prep-class students. Her study included totally 58 participants from Yunus Emre High School, in Istanbul, Turkey. They were divided into the control and experimental groups for different types of instruction, traditional instruction and the TBI respectively. The analysis of the data gathered from the pre-test, the post-test and the retention test scores indicated that the differences between the experimental group and the control group were significant in both the post-test and the retention test scores for the advantage of the TBI group.

Loumpourdi’s study (2005) suggested consistent results. The study was conducted with 12 intermediate level students at a language school in Greece. The researcher chose the “If Conditional Type 2” as the grammatical item. He applied a PPP (Presentation-Practice-Production) in one hour and a TBI lesson in the other hour. The results showed that the learners liked the tasks more than the exercises as they found them more motivating and engaging. Moreover, they became more successful at remembering the rules better.

On the contrary, Yaylı (2005) found out that there was not a significant difference between the TBI and PPP in terms of the acquisition of the Present Simple Tense by the sixth grade students from Ufuk Primary School, in İzmir, Turkey. The analysis of

the pre-test and the post-test scores showed that there was not a significant difference between the control group who were taught by PPP and the experimental group who received the TBI.

Another area of study in the TBI is the productive skills, speaking and writing. Whether using tasks enhances the automaticity and fluency (both written and spoken) of the learners has been investigated by the researchers. For example, Harrison (1996) conducted a study in the Sultanate of Oman where there was a curriculum renewal. The new curriculum encouraged the use of pedagogical tasks in the class. The data included the reports of the inspectors, comparing the old and the new curriculum, lesson observations by the inspectors, reports of the teacher meetings and videotaped recordings of the teachers. The study did not reach conclusive results; because, although some inspectors claimed that the students' speaking abilities improved, only half of them believed that they became more fluent. Similarly, some inspectors thought that the students started to speak more, but only three of them stated that their speech was natural and realistic. Therefore, it could not be concluded from the study that the TBI had a positive effect on the students' speaking abilities.

Pellettieri's study (1999) reached more conclusive results. The aim of the study was to investigate the effects of TBI on students' communicative abilities. The results suggested that the students were able to communicate with their partners and complete the tasks effectively. Likewise, the study done by Beglar and Hunt (2002) revealed positive effects of the TBI on the students' fluency, the use of communication strategies and general speaking skills.

Similarly, Başaran's study (2004) which was conducted with two groups of 28 students in Gaziantep, Turkey revealed consistent results. The TBI was found to be an effective tool to improve the students' writing skills. Kasap's study (2005) that took place at Anadolu University, in Eskişehir, Turkey with 45 students from the School of Foreign Languages revealed both negative and positive results. In terms of the differences between the post-test scores, no significant effect of the TBI was found. However, the students' general ideas on the TBI were neutral or positive as

they thought that tasks helped them improve their speaking skills. On the contrary, Robinson, Strong and Whittle's study (2006), which was carried out with six classes from Aoyama Gakuin University, in Tokyo, Japan revealed that there was no significant difference between the task-based and the skills-based groups in terms of the acquisition of discussion skills. Actually, skills-based group performed slightly better than task-based group due to the transfer of previous knowledge.

Similarly, Kavaliauslienė (2005) investigated the attitudes of the learners towards the TBI and found out that the learners improved their speaking skills with the help of the TBI. Lochana and Deb (2006) informed about the results of the Bangalore Project in India. The project involved the use of tasks within the framework of the CLT. The researchers taught at the Basaveshwara Boys High School from 2 p.m. to 4 p.m., five days a week for four months. The researchers had the opportunity to talk to the students and the teachers informally. The data were gathered through the pre-test and the post-test as well as the discussions with the teachers and the students. The observations made during the project were consistent with the results of the studies of Pellettieri (1999), Beglar and Hunt (2002), Başaran (2004) and Kavaliauslienė (2005). They indicated that the students' general language skills improved due to the use of tasks. Specifically, they started speaking English and their interest and motivation increased.

Tilfarlıoğlu and Başaran's study (2007) reported positive effects of the TBI as well. They aimed to analyze the effects of task-based writing tasks on reading comprehension in English. They conducted the study at a university in Turkey with approximately 90 students. The control group received traditional instruction, whereas the experimental group carried out task-based writing activities. The results showed that task-based writing activities had a positive impact on reading comprehension as the experimental group outperformed the control group in the post-test.

Ahmed's research (2008) was conducted at the Intensive English Program at the International University of Japan in Nigata. The aim of this program was to improve

the communication skills of the learners who attended the course. The learners were asked to carry out various tasks, such as discussions, oral presentations, problem-solving, etc. The results showed that this programme was successful as the TBI emphasized real language use. The learners believed that they used the language for real-life purposes.

Finally, DeRidder, Vangehuchten and Gomez (2007) conducted a study which aimed to investigate the effects of the TBI on automaticity, analyzing some criteria, pronunciation, intonation, grammar, vocabulary, social adequacy and fluency. 68 students from the University of Antwerp participated in the study. It consisted of four stages. The first three stages were the same for both groups; however, the fourth stage required the control group to carry out an individual assignment, whereas the experimental group was given a task to complete. The experimental group was found to be significantly better with regard to grammar, vocabulary and social adequacy; but they did not reveal any significant difference in terms of fluency and the control group was more successful than the experimental group at pronunciation.

2.4.1.8.1.9. Motivation and the TBI

Apart from the linguistic factors, the effectiveness of the TBI on affective factors of the learners has been investigated. Some of the studies cited above have also reached results that favour the TBI in terms of the motivation of the learners (Beglar & Hunt, 2002; Loumpourdi, 2005; Stark, 2005; Lochana and Deb, 2006). There are some researchers who have mainly investigated the motivation factor as well.

Vilches (2003) took the learners' feedback on the task-based syllabus that was used in EN10 which was a university program to teach learners English. The learners claimed that they had developed confidence in English; their motivation was increased and they became more patient.

Similarly, Leaver and Kaplan (2004) described the programmes that taught Czech, Ukrainian, Russian and English for Russian speakers at the Defense Language

Institute and the Foreign Service Institute through a task-based syllabus. The outcomes included the greater motivation and more satisfaction of the learners, greater rate of risk taking as well as higher proficiency results.

Yaylı (2004), too, revealed consistent results with his study which took place at Vilnius University Faculty of Philology Lithuanian Philology-Turkish Language Program with 10 students who were learning Turkish. The data were collected through the learner diaries and interviews. The results indicated that most of the participants liked the TBI as they enjoyed the lesson. They stated that they had the opportunity to use the language for real-life purposes via meaningful activities and they had to think in English.

Consistent results were revealed in Ruso's (2007) action research study that was conducted with 54 students at Eastern Mediterranean University in Cyprus to investigate the effects of the TBI on the students' performance and opinions. The analysis of diaries, semi-structured interviews and questionnaires revealed that the students were satisfied with the use of tasks during the classes, claiming that tasks helped them learn better, participate in the lessons actively and be more motivated to learn. It was also found that the students' vocabulary as well as their knowledge of social issues improved along with the treatment.

Shak and Gardner's study (2008) which was carried out to investigate the effects of different form-focused tasks on the students' motivation and enjoyment indicated similar results. Four different form-focused tasks, consciousness-raising, dictogloss, grammar interpretation and grammaring, were used in Primary 5 English classes in Brunei Darussalam. The results revealed that the students found the tasks more engaging and motivating, consequently more effective since they involved illustrations, humour and context.

However, Ojeda (2004) found some contrastive results. The study was conducted to investigate the effects of word games on the motivation of the learners while learning Spanish. The results were not conclusive, because the students claimed that some of

the games were useful for them as they enhanced their motivation, whereas some other games were found to have been boring and useless.

As it can be concluded from the studies cited above, the TBI has recently been a popular issue for research. The results of these studies have revealed positive, negative or neutral effects of the method on a variety of language areas. Therefore, further research will certainly shed some light on the issues with the development of various language areas.

III. METHOD

In this study, both qualitative and quantitative methods (triangulation) were used in order to increase the validity and reliability of the data (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989). The term ‘triangulation’ is defined as using different types of data so that you will be able to get a better understanding of the phenomenon you are investigating (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Richards, 2003). Therefore, six different types of instruments were used during the treatment. They included a pre-test and a post-test, 2 written quizzes, 2 open-ended questionnaires, 8 video recordings, a communicative writing task and a communicative speaking task. A formal training about the TBI was not provided to the students; instead they were expected to comprehend the techniques for applying the TBI during the treatment themselves in an inductive design. The participants, the instruments, data collection procedure and the analysis of the data were explained in detail in this chapter.

3.1. PARTICIPANTS

The subjects of the study comprised 100 students from the Basic English Department of the School of Foreign Languages at Yıldız Technical University in İstanbul. The subjects were chosen randomly for the study. Two of the classes were assigned as the control group and two were assigned as the experimental group. 23 of the 100 students were eliminated from the study due to attendance problems. Therefore, a total of 77 students, 37 in the control group and 40 in the experimental group namely, participated in the study. According to the system of the university, the students of this study took the proficiency test at upper-intermediate level after they had registered in the university since it was compulsory for all students. As they had not been successful in the exam, which meant that they got below 60, they were required to take a placement test so as to be offered a place in the classes for A, B or C levels. A-level students were at intermediate level, whereas the students in B-level classes were at pre-intermediate and C-levels were at elementary level. The participants of this study comprised A-level students who were at the intermediate level at the time of the study. Before the treatment started, information about their ages, genders,

types of high school they had graduated from and the intervals after graduation had been received from the student identity cards which were kept by the administration. Table 1, showing the age distribution of the control group was displayed below.

Table 1. Age Distribution in the Control Group

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	17	45,9	45,9	45,9
	19	13	35,1	35,1	81,1
	20	4	10,8	10,8	91,9
	21	2	5,4	5,4	97,3
	22	1	2,7	2,7	100,0
	Total	37	100,0	100,0	

N= 37

As it can be seen in Table 1, 17 (45,9 %) of the students in the control group were 18 years old; 13 (35,1 %) of them were 19; 4 (10,8 %) were 20; 2 (5,4 %) of them were 21; and 1 (2,7 %) of them was 22 years old. Their mean of age was 17,7 ($\bar{x}=17,7$) The following table (Table 2.) shows the age distribution of the experimental group.

Table 2. Age Distribution in the Experimental Group

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	17	2	5,0	5,0	5,0
	18	22	55,0	55,0	60,0
	19	14	35,0	35,0	95,0
	20	2	5,0	5,0	100,0
	Total	40	100,0	100,0	

N=40

The table above shows that 2 (5 %) of the students in the experimental group were 17 years old; 22 (55 %) of them were 18; 14 (35 %) were 19; and 2 (5 %) were 20 years old. Their mean of age was 18,4 ($\bar{x}$ =18,4) The gender distribution of the participants can be seen in the tables below (Table 3 and Table 4).

Table 3. The Gender Distribution in the Control Group

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	female	12	32, 4	32, 4	32, 4
	male	25	67, 6	67, 6	100,0
	Total	37	100,0	100,0	

N=37

As it can be seen in Table 3, 12 (32, 4 %) of the students in the control group were female and 25 (67, 6 %) of them were male. The following table shows the gender distribution of the students in the experimental group.

Table 4. The Gender Distribution in the Experimental Group

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	female	17	42,5	42,5	42,5
	male	23	57,5	57,5	100,0
	Total	40	100,0	100,0	

N=40

The table which shows the gender distribution of the students in the experimental group indicates that 17 (42, 5 %) of the students were female and 23 (57, 5 %) of them were male.

The students who participated in the study had different backgrounds in terms of the high school type they had graduated from. There are five different types of high schools, namely English Medium, Anatolian, Science Medium, Anatolian Teacher Training, and Private high schools in this distribution. Of these high school types, Anatolian, Science Medium and Anatolian Teacher Training High Schools accept students according to their scores in an exam which is administered by the Ministry of National Education to the students at primary schools. English Medium High schools accept students according to their cumulative some of the grades that they had at primary school. Finally, private high schools are divided into two types. Some of them accept students according to the results of a special exam which is conducted just for the admission to the private schools, whereas some of them do not have such a criterion. All of these high schools provide students with a preparation class, where the medium of education is English in Turkey (www.meb.gov.tr). Table 5 shows the high school types of the students in the control group.

Table 5. The Types of High School of Graduation in the Control Group

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	English Medium	15	40, 5	40, 5	40, 5
	Anatolian	14	37, 8	37, 8	78, 4
	Science Medium	3	8, 1	8, 1	86, 5
	Teacher Training	4	10, 8	10, 8	97, 3
	Private	1	2, 7	2, 7	100,0
	Total	37	100,0	100,0	

N=37

As it can be seen in Table 5, 15 (40, 5 %) of the students in the control group graduated from an English Medium High School; 14 (37, 8 %) of them graduated

from an Anatolian High School; 3 (8, 1 %) graduated from a Science Medium High School; 4 (10, 8 %) of them graduated from an Anatolian Teacher Training High School; and 1 (2, 7 %) of them graduated from a Private High School. Table 6, shows the distribution of the high school types in the experimental group.

Table 6. The Types of High School of graduation in the Experimental Group

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	English Medium	7	17,5	17,5	17,5
	Anatolian	26	65,0	65,0	82,5
	Teacher Training	7	17,5	17,5	100,0
	Total	40	100,0	100,0	

N=40

Table 6, shows that 7 (17, 5 %) of the students in the experimental group graduated from an English Medium High School; 26 (65 %) of them graduated from an Anatolian High School; and 7 (17, 5 %) graduated from an Anatolian Teacher Training High School. The participants also differed from each other in terms of the year they graduated from high schools. Some of them started university without any intervals after graduating from the high school whereas some of them gave a break after their graduation. Tables 7 and 8, show the percentages of the interval level of the participants.

Table 7. Intervals after Graduation from High School in the Control Group

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no interval	19	51,4	51,4	51,4
	1 year	14	37,8	37,8	89,2
	2 years	2	5,4	5,4	94,6
	3 years or more	2	5,4	5,4	100,0
	Total	37	100,0	100,0	

N=37

As it is seen in Table 7, 19 (51,4 %) of the students in the control group started university without any intervals after they had graduated from high schools; 14 (37,8 %) students gave 1 year of interval; 2 (5,4 %) of them started university 2 years later than they graduated from the high school and 2 (5,4 %) of them gave 3 years or more interval after their graduation. The following table (Table 8) displays the intervals after the graduation from high schools in the experimental group.

Table 8. Intervals after Graduation from High School in the Experimental Group

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No interval	26	65,0	65,0	65,0
	1 year	13	32,5	32,5	97,5
	2 years	1	2,5	2,5	100,0
	Total	40	100,0	100,0	

N=40

Table 8 shows that 26 (65 %) of the students in the experimental group started university without any intervals after they graduated from high school; 13 (32,5 %)

of them gave 1 year of interval; and 1 (4, 2 %) of them started university 2 years later than they graduated from high school.

3.2. INSTRUMENTS

There were mainly six instruments used in this research; a written pre-test and a post-test, 2 quizzes which were conducted by the testing office, an open-ended questionnaire that was applied at the beginning and at the end of the research, video recordings of the control group and the experimental group, a communicative writing task, and a communicative speaking task performed by both the control and the experimental groups.

3.2.1. The Pre-Test and the Post-Test

A pre-test was designed by the researcher. The test consisted of 25 items (See Appendix A). The first 10 items were comprehension questions about the reading passage given in the test. The questions about the reading passage included both multiple-choice and true/false items. The last 15 items were solely about vocabulary. The vocabulary section was divided into two parts. The first part required learners to fill in the blanks with the words given, whereas the second part included matching the definitions with the words. After this test had been written by the researcher, it was shown to 13 English language teachers to measure its validity. These teachers had the experience of teaching English between 5 and 10 years at university preparation level. All of them were either working for the Testing Office or had some previous experience with the Testing Office when the study was conducted, and one of them was a native speaker of English. The teachers were also given a Likert-Scale questionnaire that asked them to evaluate the questions as “acceptable”, “needs changing” and “not acceptable” (See Appendix B)

According to the feedback received from the teachers, the test was changed in some ways. First of all, most of the teachers thought that the reading passage was too easy for A-level classes. They also suggested that the parts of speech of the words should

have been included in the test. Moreover, they stated that ‘matching the definitions with the words’ technique was not a suitable activity since the learners might have guessed the meaning too easily.

Due to these criticisms, the test was edited. The reading passage was changed. As in the first test, 10 questions were about the reading passage. 5 of them were multiple-choice; 3 of them were true/false and 2 of them were vocabulary questions that asked the learners to find some words in the text. In terms of the vocabulary section, a new part which was about the parts of speech of the words was added. In this section, the learners were required to fill in the table with the correct noun, verb, adjective or adverb forms of the words. Then using the same words in the table, they were asked to fill in the blanks in the sentences. The last part in the test consisted of 10 items. The learners were to fill in the blanks with one of the words given. The new test consisted of totally 30 questions (See Appendix C).

After the test was changed, it was shown to the same English teachers again. They all agreed that the test was suitable for A-level classes.

Before the pre-test was conducted in the real control and the experimental groups, it was piloted with a similar group of 24 students. The piloting of the test helped the researcher decide on the timing to conduct the test. Furthermore, some words were written in bold to make them more noticeable, and some of the instructions were changed to make them clearer.

After these necessary changes were made, the test was applied to both the control and the experimental groups at the beginning of the treatment for diagnostic reasons in reality just to see the present levels of the students being aware of the fact that they could not have been able to know the words. The same test was given as the post-test to both groups at the end of the treatment as well to see whether they learned them during the study or not.

3.2.2. The Quizzes

There were two quizzes written by the Testing Office of the department. These quizzes each included 5 questions related with the vocabulary that had been taught during the reading classes which also covered the time period of the study (See Appendix D).

3.2.3. The Questionnaires

A questionnaire was applied to the students in the control and the experimental groups at the beginning of the research. The questionnaire consisted of five open-ended questions about the TBI and vocabulary learning strategies (See Appendix E). The following questions were asked in the questionnaire:

1. Have you got any information about the Task-Based Instruction?
2. What kinds of techniques do you exploit while learning vocabulary individually?
3. What kinds of vocabulary learning techniques are appropriate for you during the class?
4. What kinds of vocabulary teaching techniques do you prefer to be used by the instructor/teacher during the class?
5. What is your expectation related to vocabulary learning during reading classes?

Another questionnaire was conducted at the end of the study in the control and the experimental groups (See Appendix F). The following questions were asked in the questionnaire:

1. Do you think now you have learnt what the Task-Based Instruction to vocabulary learning is?
2. What kinds of techniques do you think now you can exploit while learning vocabulary individually? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)
3. What kinds of vocabulary learning techniques now do you think are appropriate for you during the class? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)

4. What kinds of vocabulary teaching techniques now do you prefer to be used during the class? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)
5. Do you think that your expectations related to vocabulary learning during reading classes have been met? (Have your expectations changed so far during the reading classes in this term?)

The students were given these questionnaires in their native language, which is Turkish, so that they would have been able to express their ideas better and more freely.

3.2.4. The Video Recordings

Each class was video-recorded twice for 60 minutes during the study. Thus, there were totally 8 recordings 4 of which belonged to the control group and 4 of which belonged to the experimental group. The recordings were then transcribed and categorised by the researcher/instructor.

3.2.5. The Communicative Writing Task

The students were given a writing task to be evaluated to see whether they were able to use the new words that they had learnt during the study communicatively. The task consisted of one question which required the students to write a paragraph about the things they desired to be changed about their campus. They were encouraged to be coherent and to use the new words they had studied during the term (See Appendix G). The writing task was given to both groups at the end of the treatment along with the post-test.

3.2.6. The Communicative Speaking Task

After the treatment had finished, the students had a term break of 5 weeks. At the beginning of the second term, the control group and the experimental group were asked to carry out a communicative speaking task which was thought to require using

the new words that had been taught during the treatment. First of all, the students watched a video and carried out some tasks (See Appendix H). Then they were given an oral assignment for the next lesson. In the next lesson, the students performed the oral task in pairs while they were being video-recorded. The video-recordings were, then, transcribed by the researcher and the frequency of the use of vocabulary items that had been studied in the class during the study was counted for a comparison between the control group and the experimental group.

3.3. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative instruments were used as it exploited the triangulation technique (Selinger and Shohamy, 1989). Data collection procedure included eight steps. Table 9 displays these steps and time amount spent for each step.

Table 9. The Overall Design for the Study

	Procedure	Duration
Pre-Treatment	Pre-test preparation	2 weeks
	Pre-test validity measurement	1 week
	Making necessary changes to the pre-test	1 week
	Pre-test piloting	1 week
	Questionnaire + Pre-test	1 week
Treatment	Implementation of the treatment	8 weeks
Post-Treatment	Post-test + The writing task + Questionnaire	1 week
	The speaking task	1 week

As it can be seen in Table 9, the first step was the pre-test preparation. The test was designed by the researcher/instructor. Then it was given to 13 English teachers for

validity measurement. According to the opinions and feedback of the teachers, some changes were made with the test. After that, it was applied to a pilot group who were similar to the control and the experimental groups. Considering the ideas of the students in the pilot group, some of the instructions were changed so that it would be easier for students to understand them better; some words were highlighted and time to be given was decided. The next step included the application of the pre-test to the control and the experimental groups. Both groups took the test in a week. Along with the pre-test, the open-ended questionnaire was also given to the students in the control and the experimental groups. Then the treatment started. Since the students were divided into two groups as the control group and the experimental group, their lesson plans were different. A traditional way of teaching English as a foreign language was used in the control group, whereas the experimental group received the TBI instruction (See Appendix I and J). Both groups studied the reading course at Basic English Department of the School of Foreign Languages at Yıldız Technical University. The students were studying “Concepts and Comments” as the course book written by Ackert and Lee and published by Thomson Heinle in 2005. The control group studied the book without any changes, whereas in the experimental group, the researcher/instructor adapted it to the TBI by adding some tasks. She made use of the tasks suggested by Morgan and Rinvoluceri (2004) in Vocabulary published by Oxford University Press in 2004. The treatment continued for eight weeks. The groups met twice a week for 90 minutes on each occasion. After the eight-week-treatment, students were given the same pre-test as the post test along with a writing task and an open-ended questionnaire. Then, both groups were asked to perform a speaking task and their performance was video-recorded to be transcribed.

3.4. DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected throughout the study were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. In terms of the quantitative data analysis, SPSS 16.0 was used. The results of the test scores were compared both between the groups and within the groups. First of all, the differences between the pre-test scores of the control group

and the experimental group were measured by independent samples *t*-test in order to see whether there was a significant difference between the two groups at the beginning of the treatment.

Secondly, an independent samples *t*-test was performed to investigate whether there was a significant difference between post-test scores of the control group and the experimental group. Finally, the pre-test and the post-test scores of each group were compared through paired samples *t*-test to analyze whether there was any significant difference within the groups.

With regard to qualitative data analysis, the open-ended questionnaires were coded and categorised with the principles of the Pattern-coding Approach (Miles and Hubermann, 1994). Then the differences between the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire were analyzed through those categories. Moreover, the control group and the experimental group were compared according to these categories in order to investigate whether there was a difference between them. Furthermore, the video recordings were transcribed by the researcher and then the students' motivation level was analyzed by categorising the data. The writing task was checked by the researcher and a colleague of the researcher. This was due to make the task more reliable which is defined as the inter-rater reliability. Firstly, a list of words taught during the study was prepared by the researcher/instructor (See Table 10 below). Then it was given to the other scorer along with the writing task. Each scorer analyzed the students' paragraphs in terms of the words they used. The number of words which were taught during the study and then, used by the students was counted for each group to evaluate the frequency of use. In terms of the speaking task, the video recordings were transcribed by the researcher. Similar to the analysis of the writing task, the students' correct use of words that had been taught during the treatment was counted and the groups were compared to evaluate the frequency of use in that way.

Table 10. The List of Words that were taught during the Study

adapt	expose	jail	ratio
amateur	exquisite	ladder	require
ancestor	extraordinary	landscape	resistant
anticlockwise	extensive	laundry	respect
antiwar	extremely	mainly	restore
artefact	fine	material	reverse
assistant	fire	misjudge	rough
bilingual	for instance	misunderstand	scratch
bleed	withdraw	moved	semicircle
bury	fragile	negotiate	shading
cheerful	harm	nonsense	shorten
clay	harsh	notice	sophisticated
component	heal	one-on-one	spread
controversy	ignore	original	stiff
curve	identify	overcrowded	structure
darken	illegible	oversleep	style
decorate	illiterate	overwork	subway
delegate	impatient	perfect	tapestry
durable	imperative	polygamy	tracing
elaborate	in action	possession	trial and error
endless	in fact	pottery	underestimate
enormous	inaccessible	prehistoric	unforgiving
entirely	incapable	preserved	uniformly
even	incredibly	promise	unique
eventually	indestructible	properly	unidentified
evil	indicate	protect	vast
exhibition	inedible	pro-war	vehicle
experiment	interrupt	punishment	weave
export	irrelevant	purpose	well-being

Table 11 below shows the instruments used in order to answer the research questions one by one.

Table 11. Instruments used for Research Questions

Number of the Research Question	Instruments used
	Pre-test (across groups)
	Post-test (across groups)
Question 1	Open-ended
“Is there a significant impact of the TBI on vocabulary learning of university preparation class students of EFL?”	questionnaire
	<i>question 2</i>
	<i>question 3</i>
	<i>question 4</i>
	The Writing Task
	The Speaking Task
Question 2	
“Is there a significant difference between the academic success of the experimental group who received the TBI and the control group who received the traditional instruction in learning the key vocabulary (active vocabulary) throughout their English reading lessons during the implementation of the study?”	Pre-test and Post-test
	Quiz 1
	Quiz 2
	Pre- and Post
	questionnaires
	<i>question 2</i>
	<i>question 3</i>

Question 3 “Is there a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of the communicative use of the new vocabulary items that they learned during the implementation of the study?”	The Writing Task The Speaking Task
Question 4 “Is there a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of motivation and participation during the implementation of the study?”	Video Recordings
Question 5 “Is there a reported difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of their expectations related to reading classes?”	Question 5 in the pre-questionnaire
Question 6 “Is there a reported significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of the fulfilment of their expectations?”	Question 5 in the post-questionnaire
Question 7 “Is there a significant difference on the awareness level of the experimental group related to the TBI after the treatment?”	Question 1 in the pre- and the post-questionnaire

III. RESULTS

In this section, the results of the study are presented under the following sub headings including the results of the pre-test and the post-test scores, the quiz scores, open-ended questionnaires, the writing task, the video recordings, and the final speaking task.

4.1. THE RESULTS OF THE PRE-TEST SCORES

The pre-test scores of the control group and the experimental group were compared through the independent samples *t*-test in order to see whether the groups were similar in terms of academic level or not at the beginning of the study. The questions included some of the words to be taught during the study. They were used in the pre-test to see if any of the students had learned them before they entered the university. The results are presented in Table 12 as the following.

Table 12. The Results of the Independent Samples *t*-test for the Pre-Test Scores across Groups

Test	Groups	$\bar{x}$	<i>sd</i>	$Se \bar{x}$	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>P</i>
Pre-Test	Control	36,81	12,177	2,002	1,532	75	,130
	Experimental	31,98	15,216	2,406			

N=77

Table 12 indicated that the control group and the experimental group were similar in terms of level since there was not a significant difference between their pre-test results with a $p>,130$. This shows that both groups were approximately at the same level in terms of their vocabulary knowledge before the treatment and that could be a base for a sound start for such an experimental study. Therefore, the pre-test was used as a diagnostic instrument in the beginning

4.2. THE RESULTS OF THE POST-TEST SCORES ACROSS GROUPS

The post-test scores of the control group and the experimental group were compared through the independent samples t-test to investigate whether there was a significant difference in terms of reading and vocabulary level between the groups or not. The results of the independent samples t-test are displayed in Table 13.

Table 13. The Result of the Independent Samples *t*-test for the Post-Test Scores across Groups

Test	Groups	$\bar{x}$	Sd	$Se \bar{x}$	t	df	P
Post-Test	Control	50,92	12,902	2,121	-1,540	75	,128
	Experimental	55,92	15,393	2,434			
N=							

Table 13 which shows the results of the independent samples t-test indicated that it was not statistically significant ($t = -1,540$; $p = .128$; $p > .05$) although the mean score of the experimental group was higher than the control group. This suggested that there was not a significant effect of the TBI on vocabulary learning in terms of the written tests and both groups were able to answer the questions asked in the test similarly. The post-test scores were used in order to answer Research Question 1, “Is there a significant impact of the TBI instruction on vocabulary learning of university preparation class students of EFL?” and Research Question 2 “Is there a significant difference between the academic success of the experimental group who received the TBI and the control group who received the traditional instruction in learning the key vocabulary (active vocabulary) throughout their English reading lessons during the implementation of the study?”.

4.3. THE RESULTS OF THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST SCORES WITHIN GROUPS

In order to see whether the control group and the experimental group improved in terms of vocabulary knowledge during the study, the pre-test and the post-test scores of each group were compared performing the paired samples t-test. The results of the pre-test and the post-test scores within groups are shown in Table 14.

Table 14. Paired Samples t-test Results of the Control Group

Groups	$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd</i>	Se $\bar{x}$	<i>T</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>P</i>
Pre-test	36,81	12,177	2,002	-6,237	36	,000
Post-Test	50,92	12,902	2,121			

Table 14 indicates that the control group performed significantly better at the post-test than they did at the pre-test ($t=-6,237; p=.000; p<0.001$), which means that the students succeeded in using the new words for comprehending the reading passage, filling in the blanks and using the parts of speech without receiving any TBI. However this result can be misleading since the pre-test was used as a diagnostic test to see the present levels of the students before the treatment was initiated because the lessons were already designed for teaching those new words during the course. Therefore the significance of the differences between the pre-test and post-test scores within the groups is not very meaningful presuming that students did not know the vocabulary items at the beginning of the term and they learned them during the reading lessons. However, statistically the results of the test seem significant and they are displayed in Table 15.

Table 15. Paired Samples t-test Results of the Experimental Group

Groups	$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd</i>	Se $\bar{x}$	<i>T</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>P</i>
Pre-test	31,98	15,216	2,406	-8,778	39	,000
Post-Test	55,92	15,393	2,434			

Similarly, Table 15 shows that the experimental group benefited from the treatment as there was a significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores ($t=-8,778$; $p=.000$; $p<0.001$). It is revealed that, like the students in the control group, the students in the experimental group were more successful at using the new words for comprehending the reading passage, filling in the blanks and using the parts of speech when their pre-test and post test scores were compared. However, it is necessary to state here again that this result can be misleading since the pre-test was used as a diagnostic test to see the present levels of the students before the treatment was initiated. The significance of the differences between the pre-test and post-test scores within the groups is not very meaningful presuming that students did not know the vocabulary items at the beginning of the term and they learned them during the reading lessons. However, statistically these results indicate that the students benefited from both the traditional instruction and the TBI.

4.4. THE RESULTS OF QUIZ 1

Quiz 1 was one of the regular quizzes that were prepared by the Test Office of the department for all courses and it included 5 items about the vocabulary taught during the treatment. Two of the groups were compared through the independent samples *t*-test to answer Research Question 2, “Is there a significant difference between the academic success of the experimental group who received the TBI and the control group who received the traditional instruction in learning the key vocabulary (active vocabulary) throughout their English reading lessons during the implementation of the study?” Table 16 presents the results of Quiz 1 for the comparison between the control and the experimental groups.

Table 16. Independent Samples t-test Results of Both Groups for Quiz 1

Test	Groups	$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd</i>	<i>se</i> $\bar{x}$	<i>t</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>P</i>
Post-Test	Control	3,59	,927	,152	-1,614	75	,111
	Experimental	4,00	1,240	,196			

As Table 16 shows, the results indicated that there was not a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of the scores of Quiz 1 ($t = -1,614$; $p = .111$; $p > 0,05$). Considering the post-test scores, it could be said that the TBI was not found to be significantly effective in terms of the results of quiz 1.

4.5. THE RESULTS OF QUIZ 2

Quiz 2, as well, was prepared by the Test Office of the Basic English Department of School of Foreign Languages at Yıldız Technical University, and included 5 questions about the new vocabulary items that had been taught during the study. The scores of the control group and the experimental group were compared using the independent samples *t*-test in order to answer Research Question 2. This shows that contrary to the results of the post-test and Quiz 1, the instruction was found to have a significant effect on vocabulary learning. The results are shown in Table 17.

Table 17. The Results of the Independent Samples t-test of the Control Group and the Experimental Group for Quiz 2

Test	Groups	$\bar{x}$	<i>sd</i>	<i>se</i> $\bar{x}$	<i>t</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>p</i>
Post-Test	Control	2,59	1,755	,289	-2,914	75	,005
	Experimental	3,73	1,648	,261			

According to the table above, there was a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group with regard to the scores of Quiz 2. The experimental group did significantly better than the control group ($t = -2,914$; $p = .005$; $p < 0.05$) in this test.

4.6. THE RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES

The questionnaires were analyzed qualitatively. The pre- and the post-questionnaires were used in order to find an answer to Research question 1 and Research question 2. The answers of the students were categorized and coded by Pattern-Coding techniques (Miles & Huberman, 1994) . The results of the questionnaires are presented by splitting as the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire results in this section.

4.6.1. The Results of the Pre-Questionnaire

The pre-questionnaire consisted of 5 questions related with vocabulary learning and teaching through the use of the TBI, teaching strategies and the students' expectations about the reading classes in terms of vocabulary learning. The questionnaire was administered to diagnose the students' awareness level regarding the TBI and their own vocabulary learning strategies. The following questions were asked in the pre-questionnaire:

1. Have you got any information about the Task-Based Instruction?
2. What kinds of techniques do you exploit while learning vocabulary individually?
3. What kinds of vocabulary learning techniques are appropriate for you during the class?
4. What kinds of vocabulary teaching techniques do you prefer to be used during the class?
5. What is your expectation related to vocabulary learning during reading classes?

31 students in the control group and 36 students in the experimental group took the pre-questionnaire. This was due to the fact that some students were absent during the application of the questionnaires. The results were presented question by question below as follows.

Question 1 asked about the students' awareness about the TBI. The students were expected to explain what they knew about it. The results of the control group are shown in Table 18.

Table 18. Responds of the Students in the Control Group to Question 1 in the Pre-Questionnaire “Have you got any information about the Task-Based Instruction?”

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	“No”	31	83,8	100,0	100,0
Missing		6	16,2		
Total		37	100,0		

As it can be seen in the table above, 31 (83, 8 %) students in the control group implied that they had no idea what the TBI was with a missing value of 6 (16, 2%) students. The missing value indicates the students who did not attend the class at the time of the questionnaire. The table (Table 19) which shows the results of the experimental group is below.

Table 19. Responds of the Students in the Experimental Group to Question 1 in the Pre-Questionnaire “Have you got any information about the Task-Based Instruction?”

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	“No”	33	82,5	91,7	91,7
	“Yes”	3	7,5	8,3	100,0
	Total	36	90,0	100,0	
Missing		4	10,0		
Total		40	100,0		

Table 19 indicates that 33 (82, 5 %) of the students in the experimental group stated that they did not know anything about the TBI. 3 (7, 5 %) of them said that they had heard of vocabulary teaching and learning through the TBI. Their quotations below display what they know about it.

Student 1:

“I have some limited information about it. I have heard that student centered instruction is more effective. This is based on giving some tasks and responsibilities to the students to make them more active. By this way, the students are not like an audience in the class.”

Student 2:

“I do not know much about it, but I think the aim is to make the students more active participants in the class by giving them some tasks.”

Student 3:

“Giving the students homework beforehand to make them more active and more responsible.”

These definitions show that first two of these three students were aware of the TBI and the last one includes some misconceptions.

Question 2 sought what kinds of techniques the students used while learning vocabulary individually. According to the answers of the students, 13 categories were developed. Table 20 shows the categories based on the techniques used and/or the habits of the students in the control group.

Table 20. Responds of the Students in the Control Group to Question 2 in the Pre-Questionnaire “What kinds of techniques (ways) do you exploit while learning vocabulary individually?”

Categories	The number of the Students	The Percentages
Reading books	8	25,8 %
Making associations	8	25,8 %
Using the words in sentences	6	19,3 %
Memorising the words (memorization)	6	19,3 %
Watching films and listening to music	5	16,1 %
Using a dictionary	4	12, 9 %
Doing translation	3	9, 67 %
Creating/Using flashcards	3	9, 67 %
Matching definitions	3	9, 67 %
Filling in the blanks (fill-in-the blanks)	2	6, 45 %
Repeating the words (repetition)	2	6, 45 %
Examination	1	3, 22 %
No special technique	1	3, 22 %

N=31

Table 20 indicated that 8 (25, 8%) of the students in the control group learnt vocabulary individually by reading books. 8 (25, 8%) of them stated that they

preferred making associations between the words and objects. 6 (19, 3 %) of them mentioned using the words in sentences and memorising them. 5 (16, 1 %) students said that they learnt vocabulary through watching films or listening to music. 4 (12, 9 %) preferred using a dictionary while learning vocabulary individually. 3 (9, 67 %) of the students mentioned doing translation work, creating and using flashcards and matching definitions. Fill-in-the blanks and repetition techniques were stated by 2 (6, 45 %) of the students. Only 1 (3, 22 %) student said that taking an exam was an effective technique although this could not be considered as an individual vocabulary learning technique. Finally, there was one (3, 22 %) student who stated that he/she did not have a special technique to exploit while learning vocabulary individually.

In the experimental group, the students' answers for question 2 were divided into seventeen categories. These categories and the number of the students can be seen in Table 21 below.

Table 21. Responds of the Students in the Experimental Group to Question 2 in the Pre-Questionnaire “What kinds of techniques (ways) do you exploit while learning vocabulary individually?”

Categories	The Number of the Students	The Percentages
Repeating the words (repetition)	9	25 %
Using the words in sentences	7	19, 4 %
Watching films	6	16, 6 %
Using a dictionary	6	16, 6 %
Making associations	5	13, 8 %
Listing	3	8, 33 %
Reading books	3	8, 33 %
Revising vocabulary items (revision)	3	8, 33 %
Seeing the words in sentences	3	8, 33 %
Matching definitions	2	5, 55 %
Memorising the words (memorization)	2	5, 55 %
Asking and answering (Question-answer)	2	5, 55 %
Using visual aids	1	2, 77 %
Filling in the blanks (Fill-in-the blanks)	1	2, 77 %
Sticking the words on the walls	1	2, 77 %
Using the learning tools from the classroom environment	1	2, 77 %
No special technique	1	2, 77 %

N=36

As the results suggested, it was reported that repetition was the most commonly used vocabulary learning technique exploited by 9 (25 %) students while learning vocabulary items individually. After that, using the words in sentences was reported

to be an effective technique as 7 (19, 4 %) students stated that they used it for their individual vocabulary learning. Watching films and using a dictionary were other techniques which were stated to be used by 6 (16, 6 %) students. 5 (13, 8 %) of the students stated that they preferred to make associations while learning vocabulary individually. Listing, reading books, revising vocabulary items and seeing the words in sentences techniques were also stated to be exploited by the students. Each was chosen by 3 (8, 33 %) of the students. Matching, memorization and question-answer were claimed to be effective individual vocabulary learning techniques by 2 (5, 55 %) of the students. Finally, the least preferred techniques were found to be as fill-in-the blanks, using visual aids, and peripheral learning which means writing the words on cards and sticking them on the walls. These were stated by only 1 (2, 77 %) of the students. 1 (2, 77 %) of the students said that he/she had no special technique to learn vocabulary individually.

Question 3 aimed to investigate what kinds of vocabulary learning techniques the students found suitable for themselves. 13 categories were formed according to the answers of the students. The categories and the percentages of the control group are shown in Table 22.

Table 22. Responds of the Students in the Control Group to Question 3 in the Pre-Questionnaire “What kinds of vocabulary learning techniques (ways) are appropriate for you during the class?”

Categories	The Number of Students	The Percentages
Using the word in sentences	15	48,3 %
Reading books	4	12,9 %
Playing games	4	12,9 %
Doing translation	4	12,9 %
Making associations	3	9,67 %
Studying English definitions	3	9,67 %
Filling-in-the blanks	3	9,67 %
Matching definitions	2	6,45 %
Watching films	2	6,45 %
Revising vocabulary items	1	3,22 %
Using antonyms and synonyms	1	3,22 %
Guessing the meaning from the context	1	3,22 %
No special technique	1	3,22 %
N=31		

Table 22 shows that 15 (48, 3 %) of the students in the control group thought that using the words in sentences was an appropriate technique for learning vocabulary during the class. Reading books and playing games were mentioned by 4 (12, 9 %) of them. 3 (9, 67 %) of the students stated that making associations, using English definitions and filling in the blanks were suitable for learning vocabulary in the class. 2 (6, 45 %) students mentioned matching definitions and watching films as effective vocabulary learning techniques in the class. Revision of vocabulary, using antonyms and synonyms and guessing the meaning from the context were the techniques that

were stated to be effective by 1 (3, 22 %) of the students. 1 (3, 22 %) of the students said that he/she did not have a special technique which was appropriate for him/her to be used during the class.

When the answers of the students in the experimental group were analyzed, 16 categories were found. The categories, the number of the students and the percentages are shown in Table 23 below.

Table 23. Responds of the Students in the Experimental Group to Question 3 in the Pre-Questionnaire “What kinds of vocabulary learning techniques (ways) are appropriate for you during the class?”

Techniques	The Number of the Students	The percentages
Using the words in sentences	10	27, 7 %
Working in groups	6	16, 6 %
Revising vocabulary items	5	13, 8 %
Playing games	5	13, 8 %
Reading books	3	8, 1 %
Repeating the words	2	5, 4 %
Practicing the language	2	5, 4 %
Using a dictionary	1	2, 7 %
Making associations	1	2, 7 %
Learning synonyms	1	2, 7 %
Using the body language	1	2, 7 %
Listening to music	1	2, 7 %
Studying English definitions	1	2, 7 %
Using visual aids	1	2, 7 %
Listing	1	2, 7 %
No special technique	3	8, 1 %

N=36

As it can be seen in Table 23, using the words in sentences was preferred by 10 (27, 7 %) of the students while learning vocabulary during the class. 6 (16, 6 %) of the students stated that group-work was a suitable technique to be used for vocabulary learning during the class. Playing games and revision of vocabulary were considered to be other effective techniques to be used in the class as 5 (13, 8 %) students mentioned that. The third technique which was reported as an appropriate one for the students to learn vocabulary during the class was reading books. 3 (8, 33 %) students claimed that they could learn vocabulary effectively through reading books in the class. 2 (5, 55 %) of the students said that repetition and practice were effective techniques for them as class work. Other techniques stated by 1 (2, 77 %) of the students were using a dictionary, making associations, using synonyms, using the body language, listening to music, using English definitions, using visual aids and studying bilingual lists. 3 (8, 33 %) students stated no ideas about which technique was appropriate for them in the class.

Question 4 was related with the students' preferences about vocabulary teaching during the class. They revealed their thoughts about the techniques that they preferred their teacher to use in the class. According to the answers from the students, 16 categories were formed. These categories and the percentages are indicated in Table 24.

Table 24. Responds of the Students in the Control Group to Question 4 in the Pre-Questionnaire “What kinds of vocabulary teaching techniques (ways) do you prefer to be used during the class?”

Categories	The Number of the Students	The Percentages
Using the words in context	7	22,5 %
Making associations	4	12,9 %
Working in groups	3	9,67 %
Playing games	3	9,67 %
Reading books	3	9,67 %
Matching definitions	2	6,45 %
Filling-in-the blanks	2	6,45 %
Using interesting topics	2	6,45 %
Quizzes	1	3,22 %
Using antonyms and synonyms	1	3,22 %
Revising vocabulary items	1	3,22 %
Practising the language	1	3,22 %
Repeating the words	1	3,22 %
Using real-life examples	1	3,22 %
Watching films	1	3,22 %
No special technique	7	22,5 %

N=31

Table 24 indicates that 7 (22, 5 %) of them stated that they preferred their teachers to use the words in the context. Making associations was mentioned by 4 (12, 9 %) of the students. 3 (9, 67 %) students implied that they would prefer their teachers to make them work in groups, play games and read books, whereas 2 (6, 45 %) of the students stated that filling-in-the blanks and studying interesting topics were suitable for them. Taking quizzes, using antonyms and synonyms, revising, practicing,

repeating, giving real-life examples and watching films were mentioned by only 1 (3, 42 %) of the students. Finally, 7 (22, 5 %) of the students stated that they did not have any techniques that they preferred to be used during the class. The answers of the students in the experimental group for question 4 led to 11 categories. These categories are shown in Table 25 along with the numbers and the percentages.

Table 25. Responds of the Students in the Experimental Group to Question 4 in the Pre-Questionnaire “What kinds of vocabulary teaching techniques (ways) do you prefer to be used during the class?”

Categories	The Number of the Students	The Percentages
Playing games	12	33, 3 %
Watching films	6	16, 6 %
Using the words in sentences	4	11, 1 %
Doing group-work	3	8, 33 %
Using visual aids	2	5, 55 %
Revising words	2	5, 55 %
Doing translation	1	2, 77 %
Doing homework	1	2, 77 %
Pronouncing words	1	2, 77 %
Memorizing words	1	2, 77 %
No special technique	10	27, 7 %

N=36

Table 25 indicates a similar result. As in the control group, 10 (27, 7%) of the students in the experimental group stated that they did not have any preferences about the techniques to be exploited by their teacher for vocabulary teaching during the class. Except for these 10 (27, 7%) students, 12 (33, 3 %) of them implied that they prefer their teachers to make them play games during the class. It was followed by watching films, which was stated by 6 (16, 2 %) students. 4 (11, 1 %) of the

students assumed that they would prefer their teachers to make them use the words in sentences. Group-work activities were found to be stated by 3 (8, 33 %) of the students. Revision of vocabulary and using visual aids were preferred by 2 (5, 55 %) of the students. Finally, the least expected techniques from their teachers were translation, doing homework, studying pronunciation, and memorization. These were stated by only 1 (2, 77 %) of the students.

Question 5 asked about the students' expectations related to vocabulary learning during reading classes. The answers of the students for this question were analysed to find an answer for Research question 5, "Is there a reported difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of their expectations related to reading classes?" 10 different types of expectations were developed according to the answers of the students in the control group. The results are presented in Table 26.

Table 26. Responds of the Students in the Control Group to Question 5 in the Pre-Questionnaire "What is your expectation related to vocabulary learning during reading classes?"

Categories	The Number of the Students	The Percentages
Learning more words	15	48,3 %
Using the words in sentences	5	16,1 %
Learning pronunciation	4	12,9 %
Doing translation	3	9,67 %
Reading comprehension	3	9,67 %
Guessing the meaning from the context	1	3,22 %
Using memory techniques	1	3,22 %
Filling-in-the blanks	1	3,22 %
Revising vocabulary items	1	3,22 %
No expectation	4	12,9 %

N=31

As it can be seen from Table 26, 15 (48, 3 %) of the students' expectation was to learn more words during the reading classes. 5 (16, 1 %) students expected to use the words in sentences. Learning pronunciation was expected by 4 (12, 9 %) the students. 3 (9, 67 %) of them said that they expected to translate and understand reading texts. 1 (3, 22 %) of the students stated that they expected to learn vocabulary items through guessing the meaning from the context technique, memory techniques, fill-in-the blanks technique and revision technique. Finally, 4 (12, 9 %) students did not have any expectations related with vocabulary learning in reading classes.

The students in the experimental group wrote about 12 types of expectations related with their vocabulary learning through the reading classes. These categories can be seen in Table 27.

Table 27. Responds of the Students in the Experimental Group to Question 5 in the Pre-Questionnaire “What is your expectation related to vocabulary learning during reading classes?”

Categories	The Number of the Students	The Percentages
Learning more words	26	72, 2 %
Using the words in sentences	3	8, 33 %
Learning the pronunciation	3	8, 33 %
Reading comprehension	2	5, 55 %
Doing translation	1	2, 77 %
Working with lists	1	2, 77 %
Revising the vocabulary items (revision)	1	2, 77 %
Using drama	1	2, 77 %
Using memory techniques	1	2, 77 %
Writing the new words on the board	1	2, 77 %
Seeing the words in context	1	2, 77 %
No expectation	3	8, 33 %

N=36

Table 27 indicates that 26 (72, 2 %) of the students expected to learn more words during the reading classes. Using the words in sentences and learning how to pronounce the words correctly were also mentioned by 3 (8, 33 %) of the students. There were some other expectations as well; however, they were stated by 1 (2, 77 %) or 2 (5, 55 %) students. These included working with vocabulary lists, using translation, revision, memorisation and drama techniques, writing the new words on the board, seeing the words in the context and reading comprehension. 3 (8, 33 %) of

the students did not mention any expectations related to vocabulary learning during their reading classes.

4.6.2. The Results of the Post-Questionnaire

As in the pre-questionnaire, the post-questionnaire consisted of 5 open-ended questions about vocabulary learning and teaching through the TBI, vocabulary learning and teaching strategies and the students' expectations about reading classes. The aim of the post-questionnaire was to find out whether there was a difference in the students' ideas, perceptions and expectations between the pre- and the post-questionnaires for Research question 2 that asked "Is there a significant difference between the academic success of the experimental group who received the TBI and the control group who received the traditional instruction in learning the key vocabulary (active vocabulary) throughout their English reading lessons during the implementation of the study?". The following questions were asked in the post-questionnaire:

1. Do you think now you have learnt what the Task-Based Instruction to vocabulary learning is?
2. What kinds of techniques do you think now you can exploit while learning vocabulary individually? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)
3. What kinds of vocabulary learning techniques now do you think are appropriate for you during the class? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)
4. What kinds of vocabulary teaching techniques now do you prefer to be used by your teacher during the class? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)
5. Do you think that your expectations related to vocabulary learning during reading classes have been met? (Have your expectations changed so far during the reading classes in this term?)

31 students from the control group and 36 students from the experimental group took the post-questionnaire. This was because some of the students were absent at the time of the post-questionnaire administration. In the following section, the results will be presented question by question.

The first question asked about the awareness level of the students about vocabulary learning and teaching through the TBI. The students were asked to explain whatever they thought they knew if they said “yes”. Table 28 shows the answers of the students in the control group.

Table 28. Responds of the Students in the Control Group to Question 1 in the Post-Questionnaire “Do you think now you have learnt what the Task-Based Instruction to vocabulary learning is?”

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	29	78,4	93,5	93,5
	yes	2	5,4	6,5	100,0
	Total	31	83,8	100,0	
Missing	System	6	16,2		
Total		37	100,0		

As it can be seen in Table 28, 29 (78, 4 %) of the students in the control group stated that they did not have any information about vocabulary learning and teaching through the TBI. 2 (5, 4 %) of them said that they knew something about it. However, when their answers were analyzed, it was seen that their definitions were not related to the TBI. The quotations of the students are displayed as follows.

“Making students learn vocabulary by giving them homework. As students do not like homework, I don’t think it will be effective.”

“Giving homework or project assignment and teaching vocabulary.”

Therefore, it can be concluded that the students in the control group did have enough information about the TBI as a normal and expected situation since they were not informed about the TBI, as planned in the study. They were just found to guess what it was. Table 29 below indicates the results of the experimental group.

Table 29. Responds of the Students in the Experimental Group to Question 1 in the Post-Questionnaire “Do you think now you have learnt what the Task-Based Instruction to vocabulary learning is?”

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	26	65,0	72,2	72,2
	yes	10	25,0	27,8	100,0
	Total	36	90,0	100,0	
Missing	System	4	10,0		
Total		40	100,0		

The table above shows that 26 (65 %) of the students in the experimental group did not have any information about vocabulary teaching through the TBI. There were 10 (25 %) students who stated that they knew something about the TBI. When the explanations of these students were analyzed, it was seen that most of them talked about the classes they had had through the TBI which means they perceived the aims and the reasons behind the practices of the reading lessons. Although no formal explanation sessions on the TBI were held for the experimental group, some of the students were able to deduce what it meant to be. The quotations below display some of the students’ opinions about it.

“I think it is a useful method. The teacher teaches us the new vocabulary in an enjoyable way. She brings us materials apart from the texts in the book and we learn the vocabulary in those texts as well.”

Although the teacher did not use any texts apart from the book, this student thought that the texts which were given them as tasks belonged to different books. The following quotation from another student is pointing another issue.

“Learning vocabulary through group-work”

Some other students gave examples of tasks which had been carried out during the class. For example, one of them mentioned writing a paragraph about using the words they had just learnt. Another one said that they had played games like taboo. Using the words in context and exploring their meanings were also mentioned by one of the students. Some other students were clearer on what the TBI was. For instance, one of them wrote something as follows:

“Student-centred education. The students are more active than the teacher in the class. Making the students participate in the lesson by giving them some tasks.”

Another student mentioned using some tasks to learn vocabulary easily and permanently as follows.

The students are given some tasks to carry out; by this way, it is more permanent.

In brief, these results indicate that some of the students in the experimental group became aware of teaching and learning vocabulary through the TBI just because of the classroom applications and implementations indirectly, that is, in an inductive and bottom-up way.

Question 2 asked the students about the techniques they exploited while learning vocabulary individually, adding whether they had learnt any new techniques throughout the term. The answers of the students in the control group were categorized and 15 categories were formed. Table 30 presents the results of the control group.

Table 30. Responds of the Students in the Control Group to Question 2 in the Post-Questionnaire “What kinds of techniques (ways) do you think now you can exploit while learning vocabulary individually? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)”

Categories	The Number of Students	The Percentages
Using the words in sentences	7	22,5 %
Making associations	6	19,3 %
Reading books	5	16,1 %
Listing	5	16,1 %
Listening to music or Watching films	4	12,9 %
Repeating the words (repetition)	4	12,9 %
Memorising the words (memorization)	3	9,67 %
Using a dictionary	3	9,67 %
Guessing the meaning from the context	2	6,45 %
Filling-in-the blanks	2	6,45 %
Playing computer games	2	6,45 %
Learning synonyms and antonyms	1	3,22 %
Using the internet/Chatting	1	3,22 %
Using flashcards	1	3,22 %
No special technique	1	3,22 %

N=31

Table 30 shows that using the words in sentences was the most commonly preferred technique to be used while learning vocabulary individually as 7 (22, 5%) of the students mentioned it. 6 (19, 3%) students stated that making associations was an

effective technique as well. Reading books and listing words were stated by 5 (16, 1%) of the students in the control group. 4 (12, 9%) of the students believed that listening to music or watching films and repetition of the words were good for them in learning vocabulary individually. Memorising the words and using a dictionary were the techniques which 3 (9, 67%) of the students believed to be effective. 2 (6, 45%) of them stated that they tried to guess the meaning from the context, did fill-in-the blanks exercises and played computer games to learn vocabulary individually. Studying synonyms and antonyms, using the internet or chatting on the net and creating flashcards were mentioned by only 1 (3, 22%) of the students. 1 of the students stated that he/she had no special technique to learn vocabulary.

Table 30 shows the techniques which were used by the students in the control group while learning vocabulary individually. However, Question 2 also asked whether the students had learnt new techniques or not. When the answers of the students for the pre- and the post-questionnaire were analyzed, it was seen that 17 (54, 8%) of the students in the control group learnt new techniques. Nevertheless, although 2 (6, 45%) of the students specifically stated that they had not learnt new techniques, they were actually found to learn some new techniques. The new techniques which were exploited by the students were guessing the meaning from the context, using the Internet, chatting on the net, listing, playing computer games and using flashcards.

The answers of the students in the experimental group to question 2 were categorized and 17 categories were developed. Table 31 shows these categories, the number of the students and the percentages.

Table 31. Responds of the Students in the Experimental Group to Question 2 in the Post-Questionnaire “What kinds of techniques (ways) do you think now you can exploit while learning vocabulary individually? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)”

Categories	The Number of Students	The Percentages
Repeating the words	8	22, 2 %
Watching films/Listening to music	6	16, 6 %
Using the words in sentences	5	13, 8 %
Listing	4	11, 1 %
Reading books	4	11, 1 %
Memorising the words (memorization)	4	11, 1 %
Using a dictionary	4	11, 1 %
Making associations	3	8, 33 %
Guessing the meaning from the context	2	5, 55 %
Creating flashcards	2	5, 55 %
Working in groups	2	5, 55 %
Using the parts of speech	1	2, 77 %
Sticking the words on the walls	1	2, 77 %
Playing games	1	2, 77 %
Doing translation	1	2, 77 %
Using the Internet	1	2, 77 %
Revision of vocabulary	1	2, 77 %

N=36

As Table 31 indicates, 8 (22, 2 %) of the students stated that they learnt vocabulary by repetition. 6 (16, 6 %) of them mentioned watching films or listening to music,

whereas 5 (13, 8 %) students said that they used the words in sentences. Listing, reading books, memorising and using a dictionary were mentioned by 4 (11, 1 %) of the students. 3 (8, 33 %) of them said that they learnt new vocabulary through making associations. 2 (5, 55 %) students stated that they tried to guess the meaning from the context, prepared flashcards and did group-work. 1 (2, 77 %) of the students implied using the parts of speech, sticking the words on the walls of their room, playing games, translating, using the Internet and revising vocabulary.

When the second part of the question which asked the students whether they had learnt new techniques was analyzed, it was seen that 21 (58, 3 %) of the students had learnt new techniques along with the study. Among these 21 students, one of them stated that he/she had not learnt any new techniques; however, when his/her answers to the pre- and the post-questionnaire were compared, it was found that he/she had actually learnt a new technique, which was making associations among words. The techniques which were learnt by the students were studying the parts of speech, guessing the meaning from the context, working in groups, playing games, using flashcards, doing translation and using the Internet. Some students did not mention the name of the technique although they said that they had learnt some new ones. The following quotations display their ideas.

“I have learnt new techniques during the term, but I cannot use them properly as I do not have enough time.”

Another student stated that he/she had learnt new techniques throughout the term and he/she believed that these techniques were useful.

I learnt new techniques and they are useful.

Question 3 was about the vocabulary learning techniques which the students thought were appropriate for them to be used during the class. As in Question 2, the students were also asked to comment whether they had learnt some new techniques.

According to the answers of the students in the control group, 16 categories were formed. These are shown in Table 32.

Table 32. Responds of the Students in the Control Group to Question 3 in the Post-Questionnaire “What kinds of vocabulary learning techniques (ways) now do you think are appropriate for you during the class? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)”

Categories	The Number of the Students	The Percentage
Using the words in sentences	5	16,1 %
Matching definitions	4	12,9 %
Making associations	4	12,9 %
Revising vocabulary items	4	12,9 %
Doing translation	3	9,67 %
Guessing the meaning from the context	3	9,67 %
Filling-in-the blanks	2	6,45 %
Using the parts of speech	2	6,45 %
Listing	1	3,22 %
Working in groups	1	3,22 %
Using a dictionary	1	3,22 %
Watching films	1	3,22 %
Playing games	1	3,22 %
Using synonyms and antonyms	1	3,22 %
Using visual aids	1	3,22 %
No special technique	2	6,45 %

N=31

Table 32 shows that using the words in sentences was the most popular technique as it was preferred by 5 (16, 1%) of the students in the control group. Matching

definitions, making associations and revising vocabulary were mentioned by 4 (12, 9%) of the students. 3 (9, 67%) of them stated that translation and guessing the meaning from the context techniques were suitable for them to be used in the class, whereas 2 (6, 45%) of the students preferred the fill-in-the blanks and using the parts of speech techniques. 2 of the students said that they had no special preference in terms of the techniques used in the class. The other techniques which were chosen by only 1 (3, 22%) of the students were listing, doing group-work, using a dictionary, watching films, playing games, using synonyms and antonyms, and making use of visual aids.

The second part of the question revealed that 14 (45, 1%) of the students learnt some new techniques throughout the term. These techniques included studying the parts of speech, making use of visual aids, working in groups, listing the words and using a dictionary. The answers of the students in the experimental group to question 3 led to 15 categories. These are presented in Table 33.

Table 33. Responds of the Students in the Experimental Group to Question 3 in the Post-Questionnaire “What kinds of vocabulary learning techniques (ways) now do you think are appropriate for you during the class? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)”

Categories	The Number of the Students	The Percentages
Using the words in context	8	22, 2 %
Working in groups	5	13, 8 %
Playing games	4	11, 1 %
Revising vocabulary items	3	8, 33 %
Repeating the words	3	8, 33 %
Reading books	3	8, 33 %
Making associations	2	5, 55 %
Guessing the meaning from the context	2	5, 55 %
Doing translation	1	2, 77 %
Using a dictionary	1	2, 77 %
Matching definitions	1	2, 77 %
Teacher’s explanation	1	2, 77 %
Using visual aids	1	2, 77 %
Using practice exercises	1	2, 77 %
No special technique	3	8, 33 %

N=36

The students in the experimental group mostly preferred using the words in context. 8 (22, 2 %) of the students said that they would prefer this technique to be used during the class. 5 (13, 8 %) of them stated that working in groups was an effective technique for them. Playing games was mentioned by 4 (11, 1 %) of the students. Revision of vocabulary, repeating the words and reading books were stated by 3 (8, 33 %) students. 3 (8, 33 %) of the students said that they did not have any preference

of techniques to be used during the class. 2 (5, 55 %) of them preferred making associations and guessing the meaning from the context, whereas translation, using a dictionary, matching definitions, listening to the teacher's explanation, using visual aids and doing practice were stated by 1 (2, 77 %) of the students.

The results of the question whether they had learnt new techniques showed that 23 (63, 8 %) of the students stated that they had learnt new techniques. These techniques were making translation, matching definitions with the words, guessing the meaning from the context and the teacher's explanations. 1 of the students stated that he/she found the techniques effective; but he/she did not mention the names of them.

Question 4 asked about the vocabulary techniques which were preferred by the students to be used during the class. 16 categories were formed according to the answers of the students in the control group. These are shown in Table 34 below.

Table 34. Responds of the Students in the Control Group to Question 4 in the Post-Questionnaire “What kinds of vocabulary teaching techniques (ways) now do you prefer to be used by your teacher during the class? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)”

Categories	The Number of the Students	The Percentages
Playing games	4	12,9%
Watching films	4	12,9 %
Using the words in sentences	3	9,67 %
Working in groups	3	9,67 %
Learning synonyms and antonyms	2	6,45 %
Filling-in-the blanks	2	6,45 %
Making associations	2	6,45 %
Reading books	2	6,45 %
Revising vocabulary items	2	6,45 %
Using a dictionary	1	3,22 %
Using memory techniques	1	3,22 %
Doing translation	1	3,22 %
Using visual aids	1	3,22 %
Repeating the words	1	3,22 %
No special technique	1	3,22 %

N=31

The results suggested that 4 (12, 9%) of the students in the control group preferred their teachers to use the techniques such as playing games and watching films during the class for teaching vocabulary. 3 (9, 67%) of them stated that they would prefer their teachers to make them use the words in sentences and work in groups. Studying synonyms and antonyms, filling-in-the blanks, making associations, reading books and revising vocabulary were mentioned by 2 (6, 45%) of the students. The techniques which were preferred by only 1 (3, 22%) of them included using a

dictionary, using memory techniques, translation, making use of visual aids and repetition. There was also 1 student who did not prefer any technique to be used by the teacher during the class.

The second part of the questionnaire indicated that 18 (58, 06%) of the students in the control group were found to learn some new techniques throughout the term. Among these new techniques were exploiting memory techniques, making use of visual aids, using a dictionary and doing translation. The answers of the students in the experimental group were categorised and 11 categories were developed. Table 35 presents these categories, the number of the students and the percentages.

Table 35. Responds of the Students in the Experimental Group to Question 4 in the Post-Questionnaire “What kinds of vocabulary teaching techniques (ways) now do you prefer to be used by your teacher during the class? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)”

Categories	The Number of the Students	The Percentages
Playing games	8	22, 2 %
Using English in oral communication	7	19, 4 %
Watching films	3	8, 33 %
Using memory techniques	2	5, 55 %
Working in groups	1	2, 77 %
Using daily/authentic language	1	2, 77 %
Doing translation	1	2, 77 %
Using drama techniques	1	2, 77 %
Using flashcards	1	2, 77 %
Using the words in sentences	1	2, 77 %
No special technique	4	11, 1 %

N=36

Table 35 indicates that 8 (22, 2 %) of the students in the experimental group preferred their teachers to make them play games during the class. 7 (19, 4 %) of them stated that speaking English was effective for them. On the other hand, 4 (11, 1%) students mentioned no special techniques that they would prefer their teachers to use during the class. Watching films was implied by 3 (8, 33 %) of the students, whereas memory techniques were mentioned by 2 (5, 55 %) of them. Working in groups, using daily language, doing translation, using drama, using flashcards and using the words in context were the least preferred techniques to be used by the teacher as they were each stated by only 1 (2, 77 %) of the students.

When the second part of the question was analyzed, it was seen that 14 (38, 8 %) of the students stated that they had learnt new techniques. These new techniques included speaking English, speaking the daily language, using drama and memory techniques, and using flashcards. Apart from these 14 students, there were 12 (33, 3 %) students who did not explain the technique, but commented that they were happy with the techniques used during the classes. On the other hand, 2 (5, 55 %) of the students said that they had not learnt new techniques throughout the term.

The last question was about whether the students' expectation related to vocabulary learning during the reading classes had been met or not. The answers of the students for this question were used for Research Question 6 "Is there a reported significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of the fulfilment of their expectations?" The analysis of the control group suggested 3 categories which are shown in Table 36.

Table 36. Responds of the Students in the Control Group to Question 5 in the Post-Questionnaire “Do you think that your expectations related to vocabulary learning during reading classes have been met? (Have your expectations changed so far during the reading classes in this term?)”

The Answers	The Number of the Students	The Percentages
Yes	14	45,1 %
No	9	29 %
Partially	7	22,5 %

N=31

As it can seen from the table above, 14 (45, 1%) of the students in the control group thought that their expectations related to vocabulary learning during the reading classes had been met, whereas 9 (29%) of them believed that they had not found what they had expected and 7 (22,5%) students stated that their expectations had been partially met.

A similar categorization was carried out about the answers of the students in the experimental group. Table 37 presents the results.

Table 37. Responds of the Students in the Experimental Group to Question 5 in the Post-Questionnaire “Do you think that your expectations related to vocabulary learning during reading classes have been met? (Have your expectations changed so far during the reading classes in this term?)”

The Answers	The Number of the Students	The Percentages
Yes	19	52, 7 %
No	7	19, 4 %
Partially	6	16, 6 %
Irrelevant answers	5	13, 8 %

N=36

Table 37 indicates that 19 (52, 7 %) of the students in the experimental group thought that their expectations had been met. Among these 19 students, one of them especially stressed that he/she learnt more than he/she had expected. On the other hand, 7 (19, 4 %) of them stated that they had not learnt as much vocabulary as they had expected. 6 (16, 6 %) of the students claimed that their expectation had been partially met. Lastly, there were 5 (13, 8 %) students who gave irrelevant answers to this question. These answers included the restatement of their expectations, explanation of the idea that vocabulary learning was the duty of the students, or some recommendations like they should read more books; they should carry out more enjoyable techniques, and so on.

4.7. THE RESULTS OF THE VIDEO RECORDINGS

As mentioned earlier, there were totally four classes participating in the study. Two of them comprised the control group and two of them were regarded as the experimental group. Each class was video-recorded twice during the study, which makes a total of four sections of video-recordings for each group. The video-recordings were transcribed by the researcher/instructor and they were analysed through the Pattern-Coding Approach (Miles & Huberman, 1994) . This section presents the results of the analyses of the video recordings one by one. The analysis of the video recordings was used to answer Research question 4 “Is there a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of motivation and participation during the implementation of the study?”

4.7.1. Video recordings of Class 1 in the Control Group

The instructor started the lesson by homework check. The students were asked to read the exercises one by one. After that the teacher delivered a worksheet which involved matching the definitions with the words of the previous two chapters. At the end of the lesson, she started talking about suffixes and prefixes for explanation. There were 22 students attending the class. When the transcriptions were analyzed

along with the videos, three main categories were developed. Table 38 shows the categories for their frequencies of occurrence in the class.

Table 38. The Categories and the Frequency Distribution for the Video Recordings of Class 1 in the Control Group

Codes	Categories	Frequencies (f)
	Question and Answer	
QA	QAT (Number of questions asked by the teacher)	63
	SVP (Number of times for students' volunteer participation)	53
	TCN (Number of times for teacher's calling out names)	2
	SRS (Number of times for students remaining silent)	8
	Working on the Exercise	
WE	SAIE (Number of students actively involved in the exercise)	22
	Students' Mood	
SM	SYS (Number of times for students' yawning and/or sleeping)	9
	MN (Number of times for students' making noise)	1

As it can be seen in Table 38, three main categories were developed according to the analysis of the video recordings. In terms of the question and answer, the teacher was found to have asked 63 questions to the class. 53 of them were answered by several volunteer students, whereas in two of the questions, the teacher called out the names of the students to hear an answer and the students remained silent for 8 of the questions. The second category which was concerned about the students' working on the exercises indicated that all of the students were actively involved in them. With regard to the second main category, which was related with the students' mood, the students were found to be yawning and/or sleeping totally 9 times and a lot of noise was noticed once only.

4.7.2. Video recording of Class 2 in the Control Group

The class was working on suffixes and prefixes through the fill-in-the blanks exercises. 23 students attended the class. According to the analysis of the recordings, three main categories were found. These categories and the sub-categories along with the frequencies are presented in Table 39.

Table 39. The Categories and the Frequency Distribution for the Video Recordings of Class 2 in the Control Group

Codes	Categories	Frequencies (f)
QA	Question and Answer	
	QAT (Number of questions asked by the teacher)	98
	SVP (Number of times for students' volunteer participation)	78
	TCN (Number times for teacher's calling out names)	3
	SRS (Number of students remaining silent)	17

Working on the Exercises		
	SAIE (Number of students actively involved in the exercise)	15
WE	SNIE (Number of students not involved in the exercises)	8
	TPTDW (Number of times for students' providing Turkish definitions of the words)	27
	QAT (Number of questions asked to the teacher)	17
	The Students' Mood	
	SYS (Number of times for students' yawning and/or sleeping)	18
MO	SMN (Number of times for students' making noise)	7
	SLS (Number of times for students' laughing and/or smiling)	
	<i>TJ(at the teacher's joke)</i>	2
	<i>EO (at each other)</i>	7
	<i>SS (at the sample sentences)</i>	1
	CEO (Chatting each other)	22

Table 39 shows that three main categories, namely question and answer, the students' work on the exercises and the students' mood, were developed according to the analysis of the video recordings. The teacher asked totally 98 questions to the class. Totally, 78 of these questions were answered by volunteer students, whereas

the students remained silent for 17 questions. The teacher had to call out names 3 times since there were no volunteers. In terms of working on the exercises, 15 of the students were observed to be actively involved in them. However, there were 8 students who did not pay attention to the exercises and did not participate. While checking the answers to the exercises, the students were found to provide Turkish meanings of the unknown words 27 times. Totally 17 questions were asked to the teacher about the exercise. With regard to the students' mood, 3 sub-categories were found. In total, the students were observed to sleep 18 times; to make a lot of noise 7 times. Laughters were heard 10 times, 2 of which were due to a joke made by the teacher, 7 of which were because of their peers and 1 of which was about a sample sentence they saw in the exercises. Finally, the students were found to be talking to each other 22 times.

4.7.3. Video recordings of Class 3 in the Control Group

The class started with a warm-up activity about cave paintings. The teacher asked the students to talk about cave paintings before they listened to the text. After that, they answered the comprehension questions individually and then they checked the answers together. This was followed by exercises on suffixes and prefixes. The class consisted of 19 students. The analysis of the video recordings led to three main categories and these are shown in Table 40.

Table 40. The Categories and the Frequency Distribution for the Video Recordings of Class 3 in the Control Group

Codes	Categories	Frequencies
	Question and Answer	
QA	QAT (Number of questions asked by the teacher)	108
	SVP (Number of times for students' volunteer participation)	95
	TCN (Number times for teacher's calling out names)	4
	SRS (Number of students remaining silent)	9
	Working on the Exercises	
WE	SAIE (Number of students actively involved in the exercise)	18
	SNIE (Number of students not involved in the exercises)	1
	TPTDW (Number of times for students' providing Turkish definitions of the words)	18
	QAT (Number of questions asked to the teacher)	3
	The Students' Mood	
MO	SYS (Number of times for students' yawning and/or sleeping)	5
	SMP (Number of times for students' using mobile phones)	3
	SLS (Number of times for students' laughing and/or smiling)	
	<i>TJ(at the teacher's joke)</i>	1
	<i>EO (at each other)</i>	2

As it can be seen in Table 40, video recordings led to three main categories as question and answer, working on the exercises and the students' mood and they led to some sub-categories as well. The frequency distribution indicates that the teacher asked 108 questions in total. The students were voluntary to answer the questions 95 times. In 4 of them, the teacher called out the names of the students since there were no volunteers and the students chose to remain silent for 9 of the questions. With regard to working on the exercises, all the students except for one were actively involved in the exercises. The students tended to provide the Turkish meanings of the unknown words 18 times. The students asked questions to the teacher 3 times. In terms of the students' mood, they were observed to be yawning and/or sleeping 5 times. Moreover, they were found to be playing with their mobile phones 3 times. They laughed a total of 3 times, once at the teacher's joke and twice at each other.

4.7.4. Video recordings of Class 4 in the Control Group

The students were working on a reading passage. After they had read the text silently, they answered the comprehension questions individually and checked the answers with the teacher. There were 20 students in the class. The analysis of the video recordings led to three main categories. These categories and their frequencies of occurrence in the class are presented in Table 41.

Table 41. The Categories and the Frequency Distribution for the Video Recordings of Class 4 in the Control Group

Codes	Categories	Frequencies
	Question and Answer	
	QAT (Number of questions asked by the teacher)	64
QA	SVP (Number of times for students' volunteer participation)	54
	TCN (Number times for teacher's calling out names)	2
	SRS (Number of students remaining silent)	8
	Working on the Exercises	
	SAIE (Number of students actively involved in the exercise)	15
WE	SNIE (Number of students not involved in the exercises)	5
	The Students' Mood	
MO	SYS (Number of times for students' yawning and/or sleeping)	1

Table 41 indicates that the teacher asked 64 questions to the students in total during the lesson. The students were willing to answer 54 of these questions, whereas the teacher called out the names of them twice since there were no volunteers for 2 questions. The students remained silent 8 times. When the process in which the students were dealing with the exercises was analysed, it was found that 15 students

were actively involved in the exercises, whereas 5 of them were unwilling to participate in them. Finally, the students were observed to be yawning once during the lesson.

4.7.5. Video Recording of Class 1 in the Experimental Group

The teacher started the class by delivering some numbers to the students so that they would be able to form groups. Then the groups took a text with some missing sentences which were written on separate pieces of paper. The students were expected to put the sentences into correct places in the text. After that, they listened to the full version of the text to check out their answers. Then they carried out an information-gap activity about the unknown vocabulary related to the passage. Finally, the students worked in pairs and answered some questions about their real lives. At the end of the class, the teacher collected the papers and read the answers aloud to the students, making the meanings of the words clear. 17 students attended the class. The analysis of the video recordings revealed three main categories. These main categories and their sub-categories along with their frequencies of occurrence in the class are shown in Table 42.

Table 42. The Categories and the Frequency Distribution for the Video Recordings of Class 1 in the Experimental Group

Codes	Categories	Frequencies
QA	Question and Answer	
	QAT (Number of questions asked by the teacher)	7
	SVP (Number of times for students' volunteer participation)	5
	SRS (Number of students remaining silent)	2
GW-PW	Group-work and Pair-work	
	SAIT (Number of students actively involved in the task)	17
	SUD (Number of students who were using a dictionary)	10
	QAT (Number of questions asked to the teacher)	8
MO	The Students' Mood	
	SLS (Number of times for students' laughing and/or smiling)	
	<i>TJ(at the teacher's joke)</i>	3
	<i>EO (at each other)</i>	35
	<i>CEO (Chatting each other)</i>	2

As it can be seen in Table 42, the teacher asked 7 questions to the students. Of these 7 questions, 5 of them were answered voluntarily by the students, while the students remained silent twice namely for 2 of them. In terms of the group-work and/or pair-work, all the students in the class were actively involved in the task. They were found to be using the dictionary 10 times. 8 questions about the task were asked to the teacher. Considering the students' mood, they were found to be laughing and/or smiling at the teacher's joke 3 times and at each other 35 times. Finally, they were observed to be talking to each other twice.

4.7.6. Video Recording of Class 2 in the Experimental Group

The class was for revision of vocabulary taught before. First of all, the teacher divided the students into groups. Then, she gave each group a piece of paper on which a snake made of letters was drawn. The students were expected to find the words of which definitions were written at the end of the page in the snake. After they had finished the task, they checked the answers out with the teacher, commenting on the sentence that was formed after all the words were found in the snake. Then the groups merged together and two groups were formed. A volunteer from each group came to the board, chose a card, and tried to explain the word to his/her group members. When the group was able to find the word, they got a point. There were 14 students in this class. When the video recordings were analysed, three main categories were found. The categories and their frequencies of occurrence in the class are shown in Table 43.

**Table 43. The Categories and the Frequency Distribution of the Class 2
Recorded in the Experimental Group**

Codes	Categories	Frequencies
Question and Answer		
QA	QAT (Number of questions asked by the teacher)	32
	SVP (Number of times for students' volunteer participation)	25
	TCN (Number of times for teacher's calling out names)	4
	SRS (Number of students remaining silent)	3
Group-work and Pair-work		
GW-PW	SAIT (Number of students actively involved in the task)	12
	SRS (Number of students remaining silent)	2
The Students' Mood		
MO	SLS (Number of times for students' laughing and/or smiling)	
	<i>TJ(at the teacher's joke)</i>	5
	<i>EO (at each other)</i>	26
	CEO (Chatting each other)	1
	SAP (Number of times for students' applauding)	1
	SYS (Number of times for students' yawning and/or sleeping)	3

Table 43 indicates that the teacher asked 32 questions to the students. The students were voluntary to answer these questions 25 times. They answered the questions after the teacher called out their names 4 times and they remained silent 3 times. With regard to group-work and/or pair-work, 12 students were observed to be actively involved in the tasks, whereas 2 of them were silent, not participating the tasks. In terms of their mood, they were found to be laughing and/or smiling totally 31 times, 5 times at the teacher's joke and 26 times at each other. The students applauded once when they found out the word during the game. Finally, they were observed to be yawning 3 times.

4.7.7. Vide Recording of Class 3 in the Experimental Group

The students were studying suffixes and prefixes in groups, analyzing some sentences which contained prefixes. They tried to form a rule about the use of some prefixes. Then they looked for new words with some of the prefixes. After that, they focused on the meanings by giving examples from their real lives. Then they were given three sentences with new prefixes. In groups, they tried to find out their meanings. In the end, they discussed about the answers. There were 22 students in the class. According to the analysis of the recordings, three main categories were developed. Table 44 presents these categories and their frequencies of occurrence in the class.

Table 44. The Categories and the Frequency Distribution for Video Recordings of Class 3 in the Experimental Group

Codes	Categories	Frequencies
Question and Answer		
QA	QAT (Number of questions asked by the teacher)	64
	SVP (Number of times for students' volunteer participation)	51
	TCN (Number of times for teacher's calling out names)	6
	SRS (Number of students remaining silent)	7
Group-work and Pair-work		
GW-PW	SAIT (Number of students actively involved in the task)	22
	QAT (Number of questions asked to the teacher)	12
The Students' Mood		
MO	SLS (Number of times for students' laughing and/or smiling)	
	<i>TJ(at the teacher's joke)</i>	8
	<i>EO (at each other)</i>	7
	<i>CEO (Chatting each other)</i>	3
	SAP (Number of times for students' applauding)	1
	SYS (Number of times for students' yawning and/or sleeping)	1
	SMN (Number of times for students' making noise)	6

As it can be seen in the table above, the teacher asked totally 64 questions 51 of which were answered voluntarily by the students. The teacher had to call out some students' names to make them answer 6 of the questions, whereas the students were silent 7 times. Considering the group-work and/or pair-work, all of the 21 students were actively involved in the tasks. A total of 12 questions were asked to the teacher by the students. The students laughed at the jokes made by the teacher 8 times and at each other 7 times. They were found to talk to each other 3 times, applaud and yawn once and they made noise 6 times.

4.7.8. Video Recordings of Class 4 in the Experimental Group

The students were working on a reading passage named "Cave Paintings". Before they started the lesson, the teacher wanted them to brainstorm on the topic. They talked about what kinds of figures could be seen on the cave paintings, what kind of information they could provide with them and so on. After that, they were given the text and they were asked to work on the vocabulary by matching the words written on small pieces of paper with the definitions that appeared in the text. After the students had worked in groups to carry out the activity, they listened to the text to check out their answers. Then they discussed about the meanings of the words in the class. The teacher wanted them to read the text silently and carefully as they would play a memory game with the text. After they had read the text, they closed their books and each group chose a card from the teacher's hand. They tried to answer the question written on the card without looking back at the text. At the end of the class, each group prepared a question about the text and gave it to another group. Finally, the answers of the groups were checked out. 20 students attended the class. The video recordings were analyzed and mainly three categories were developed. The categories and their frequencies of occurrence in the class are shown in Table 45.

**Table 45. The Categories and the Frequency Distribution of the Video
Recording of Class 4 in the Experimental Group**

Codes	Categories	Frequencies
	Question and Answer	
QA	QAT (Number of questions asked by the teacher)	43
	SVP (Number of times for students' volunteer participation)	43
	Group-work and Pair-work	
GW-PW	SAIT (Number of students actively involved in the task)	14
	SNIT (Number of students who were not involved in the tasks)	6
	QAT (Number of questions asked to the teacher)	9
	The Students' Mood	
MO	SLS (Number of times for students' laughing and/or smiling)	
	<i>TJ(at the teacher's joke)</i>	3
	<i>EO (at each other)</i>	25
	<i>CEO (Chatting each other)</i>	6
	SLA (Number of times for students' looking around)	3
	SLW(Number of times for students' looking at the watch)	1
	SMN (Number of times for students' making noise)	15

Table 45 indicates that the teacher asked 43 questions to the students and all of them were answered by voluntary students. While working in groups or in pairs, 14 of the students were found to be actively involved in the task, whereas 6 students did not participate in the task at all. 9 questions about the task were asked to the teacher. In

terms of the students' mood, it was observed that they laughed totally 28 times during the class. They laughed at the teacher's joke 3 times and at each other 25 times. They talked to each other 6 times, looked around 3 times and looked at the watch once. Finally, they made noise 15 times which forced the teacher to warn them to be silent.

4.8. THE RESULTS OF THE WRITING TASK

The writing task was carried out in order to see whether the students were able to use the words that they had learnt during the study communicatively. It was specifically used to find an answer for Research question 3, "Is there a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of the communicative use of the new vocabulary items that they learned during the implementation of the study?" The students were asked to write a paragraph about the things they desired to change in their campus, considering the place, the transportation, the courses, the premises, the facilities, the library, the food, and so on. After the task was implemented, the paragraphs written by the students were checked by two scorers for inter-rater reliability. The researcher/instructor prepared a list of the words that had been taught during the study and she gave this list to the other scorer (See page 86). Each scorer underlined the target words which had been taught during the study and which had been used by the student during the performance of the writing task class. They also took notes about whether the student used the words correctly or not at the end of the paragraph. Table 46 shows the number and the percentages of the students and the words.

Table 46. The Number and the Percentage of the Students who used the Target Words in the Writing Task

	The total number of students	The number of students who used (at least) one of the words	The percentage of students who used (at least) one of the words
Control Group	37	12	32, 4 %
Experimental Group	40	20	50 %

Table 46 indicated that 12 (32, 4 %) of the students in the control group and 20 (50 %) of the students in the experimental group used at least one of the words from the list of target words. The table below shows the words used by the students in the control group along with the number of the students and the percentages of the students.

Table 47. The Target Words Used by the Students in the Control Group in the Writing Task

The Words that were used	The Number of Students who used the Words	The Percentage
endless	1	2, 7 %
exquisite	1	2, 7 %
extraordinary	1	2, 7 %
fragile	1	2, 7 %
heal	1	2, 7 %
sophisticated	1	2, 7 %
vast	7	18, 9%

As it is seen in Table 47, it was seen that the students in the control group tended to use the words “vast, sophisticated, heal, exquisite, fragile, endless and extraordinary”. Among these words, “vast” was found to be used 7 (18, 9%) of the students, whereas each of the other six words were used by only one of the students. The students made some mistakes about the usage of some words. For instance, a student used the word “sophisticate” instead of “sophisticated”, which could be considered as a mistake of the parts of speech. There was also one student who added a wrong suffix to the word “end”. Although he would like to write “endless”, he wrote “endness”. Finally, two of the students wrote sentences which did not reveal the meaning of the target word clearly. One of them wrote the sentence as the following:

“So I wonder I don’t see any problem for heal.”

Another student wrote the following sentence:

“Our campus was very exquisite. The buildings are very far from each other.”

In the first sentence above, the student was talking about the food at school. He, most probably, tended to write “health”; but he confused the words and wrote “heal”. The second sentence, actually, did not include any mistakes about the usage; however, when the sentence coming after was analyzed, there seemed to be confusion, because if something is exquisite, something positive should follow it. Therefore, the student was unlikely to be sure of the meaning of the word “exquisite”.

In conclusion, the students in the control group used totally seven words; however, there were some problems with four of them linguistically. Thus, it could be deduced that three of the words which were used were learnt literally by the students in the control group. The words used by the students in the experimental group were shown in Table 48.

Table 48. The Target Words used by the Students in the Experimental Group in the Writing Task

The Words that were used	The Number of Students who used the Words	The Percentage
amateur	1	2, 5 %
cheerful	1	2, 5 %
complicated	1	2, 5 %
darken	1	2, 5 %
enormous	1	2, 5 %
exhibition	1	2, 5 %
experiment	1	2, 5 %
for instance	1	2, 5 %
identification	3	7, 5 %
ignore	1	2, 5 %
indestructible	1	2, 5 %
material	1	2, 5 %
misunderstood	1	2, 5 %
perfect	1	2, 5 %
require	1	2, 5 %
subway	1	2, 5 %
success	1	2, 5 %
successfully	1	2, 5 %
unique	1	2, 5 %
vast	2	5 %
vehicle	1	2, 5 %

Table 48 indicates that the students in the experimental group used 21 words from the list. These included the words “complicated, success, material, successfully, for instance, exhibition, experiment, amateur, vehicle, cheerful, enormous, perfect, identification, darken, vast, misunderstand, subway, indestructible, require, unique and ignore”. Of these 21 words, “identification” was used by 3 (7, 5%) of the

students and “vast” was preferred by 2 (5%) of the students. The other words were each used by only one of the students. As the students in the control group did, the students in the experimental group also made some mistakes while using the words. Most of the mistakes were about spelling. For instance, one of the students wrote “succes” instead of “success”; another one wrote “cheerfull”. “enourmous” was another word which was misspelt. There was a student who wrote “identies” instead of “identities” and a student wrote “requense” instead of “require”.

The word “misunderstand” was used in their writing but the meaning was not clear at all. A student wrote the following sentence:

“The courses is misunderstand but some activities are joyful.”

The student who wrote the sentence above most probably wanted to say that he did not understand some parts of the course contents clearly; however, he was not able to express it briefly. Finally, there was a mistake about the part of speech of the word “identity”. One of the students aimed to say that they did not have identity cards; but choosing the verb form of the word, he wrote the following:

“And the last we haven’t identify card from the school.”

All in all, the students in the experimental group tried to use 21 words which had been taught during the treatment. However, there were some mistakes about 7 of them, which was due to the spelling, unclear meaning and parts of speech. Thus, it could be concluded that the students were able to learn and use 14 of the words from the list.

4.9. THE RESULTS OF THE SPEAKING TASK

The aim of the speaking task was also to see whether the students were able to use the new words that they had studied during the study communicatively. It was used to answer Research question 3, “Is there a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of the communicative use of the new vocabulary items that they learned during the implementation of the study?” For the speaking task, the students in both groups watched a video about a special kind of art form which they had actually studied in their reading classes during the study. In pairs, they were asked to carry out some tasks like guessing the missing words and discussion (See Appendix K). At the end of the video watching, they were assigned homework which required them to think about a tradition or something traditional about their hometown or somewhere in Turkey. In the next lesson, they talked about the traditions or traditional food, events, places, arts, and so on of their hometown and they were video recorded. After that, the video recordings were transcribed by the researcher/instructor and the same process which was applied in the writing task was implemented in order to see whether the students used the target words in communication or not.

The results of the analysis of the transcriptions implied that the students were not really using the target words that they had studied during the study in communication. A student from the control group tended to use the word “structure” while talking about the cocks in Denizli. She stated that as the following:

“They are; their structure is big, huge.”

Although the student chose the word “structure” to talk about the physical appearance of an animal, this word is not generally preferred with regard to living things. Therefore, there seemed to be a problem with the word choice.

Another student from the control group was talking about the people living in a particular city in Turkey. She wanted to say that these people were very impatient;

however, she could not remember the word and asked the teacher in Turkish although the word “impatient” has been taught during the study.

Findings related with the students in the experimental group revealed that one of the students used the word “weave” while talking about carpets. She implied it as the following.

“In the past, every woman had a weaving room but it’s made on factory now.”

On the other hand, another student from the experimental group tried to say “exhibition”; but he was not able to remember the word and preferred to ask the teacher in Turkish.

On the whole, the results indicated that the students in both the control group and the experimental group did not use the words that had been taught during the study for oral communication.

V. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In this section, the discussion and interpretation of the results were presented question by question commenting on the instruments that had been used.

Research Question 1: “Is there a significant impact of the TBI instruction on vocabulary learning of university preparation class students of EFL?”

In order to answer this question, the results related to the test which was written by the researcher/instructor, then validated by 13 English teachers and used both as the pre-test and the post-test were analyzed and interpreted. Moreover, three questions in the open-ended questionnaire which asked about the vocabulary learning strategies and/or techniques were analyzed. Finally, the communicative writing task and the communicative speaking task which were used to evaluate the students’ use of the target vocabulary were analyzed and interpreted to find out the answer to this research question. The results of the pre-and post- tests indicated that the TBI was significantly effective on vocabulary learning as the scores of the students in the experimental group for the post-test were significantly higher than those of the pre-test ($p=.000$). This finding showed that the students in the experimental group with which the tasks had been used during the study benefited from the TBI in terms of vocabulary learning. Similarly, the pre-test and the post-test scores of the control group were compared in order to see whether they benefited from the traditional instruction. The results suggested that there was a significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of the control group. This indicated that the students in the control group benefited from the traditional instruction as well. However, since the English reading lesson during which the study was implemented aimed to teach the target vocabulary, it was usual for the students in both groups to learn these vocabulary items through the communicative tasks and traditional techniques. On the other hand, when the post-test scores of the control group and the experimental group were compared through independent samples *t*-test, it was found out that there was not a significant difference between the groups ($p=.128$; $p>.05$). Therefore, the significant impact of the TBI was not seen in the pre-test and the post-test scores.

As it can easily be admitted, vocabulary learning covers exploiting effective strategies and techniques both individually and during the class. Thus the students in the experimental group were given an open-ended questionnaire both at the beginning and at the end of the study in order to find out the strategies and the techniques they used to learn vocabulary. The second question which asked “What kinds of techniques do you exploit while learning vocabulary individually in and out of the class?” in the questionnaire was related to the vocabulary learning techniques exploited by the students while studying vocabulary individually. A qualitative analysis of the answers of the students for Question 2 revealed totally 17 categories in the pre-questionnaire that had been applied at the beginning of the study. Among these categories, repetition was the most frequently preferred one as it was stated by 9 (25%) of the students. When the answers of the students for the same question in the post-questionnaire were analysed, again 17 categories were found. Similar to the pre-questionnaire, repetition was preferred by 8 (22, 2 %) of the students. Although repetition which was exploited to master pronunciation was not used or mentioned during the implementation of the study, the students preferred this technique, which might have been due to their habits in the high school. In conclusion, the answers of the students for question 2 in the open-ended questionnaire revealed the techniques and/or strategies which were used while learning vocabulary individually.

Having been related with the Research Question 1, Question 2 in the post-questionnaire, “What kinds of techniques do you think now you can exploit while learning vocabulary individually? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)” also asked whether the students had learnt new techniques during the term. 21 (58, 3 %) of the students implied that they had learnt new techniques. There was one student who stated that he/she had not learnt any new techniques; however, he/she was found to have learnt something new after the comparison between the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire. These new techniques included guessing the meaning from the context, preparing flashcards, working in groups, studying the parts of speech of the words, playing games, translating and using the internet. There were also some categories which had been mentioned in the pre-questionnaire, but

not in the post-questionnaire. These were matching the definitions, asking and answering questions, visualizing, filling-in-the blanks and learning during the class.

These findings indicated that more than half of the total number of students in the experimental group had learnt some new strategies and techniques to learn vocabulary individually. Among these newly-learnt strategies and techniques, some of them were explicitly taught as part of the syllabus during the classes. These included guessing the meaning from the context, creating flashcards and studying the parts of speech of the words. On the other hand, working in groups and playing games were exploited intentionally during the study. As they imply, using the Internet was most likely to be the personal interest of the students when the technological developments in the world were considered. Translating from the foreign language to the native language might have been one of the techniques that the students had been accustomed to and that they could not give up. Moreover, as translation was not used in the class, the students might have thought that they needed it to learn vocabulary. Through the answers of the students in the experimental group for the second question in the questionnaire, whether the students had learnt new techniques or not were revealed.

The overall results of the answers of the students to Question 2 in the open-ended questionnaire led to the conclusion that although 21 students assumed that they had gained new techniques and strategies for studying vocabulary individually, only two of these strategies, namely, working in groups and playing games, could be considered to have been learnt thanks to the treatment as the others had either been included in the syllabus or the personal interest of the students. Moreover, mostly stated technique in both the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire was repetition, which could not be related to the content of the study that was totally communicative. During the study, the students were never taught such a technique nor were they recommended. This finding could be because of the habits of the students or they might have felt the need to repeat the words in isolation.

The reason for this might have been that the students in the present study had been accustomed to traditional ways of teaching and formal instruction. Therefore, it was difficult for the students to change their habits quickly. Since the time given to the study was not too long, the students might not have got used to the TBI which was different from what they had experienced before. It could be concluded from these findings that the effect of the TBI in terms of vocabulary learning strategies and/or techniques was not visible in the students' answers to the second question in the questionnaire which asked about individual vocabulary learning strategies and/or techniques. Therefore, the students were found not to have gained new techniques and/or strategies, which could affect their vocabulary learning.

So as to answer Research Question 1, the third question in the questionnaire which asked "What kinds of vocabulary learning techniques are appropriate for you during the class?" was interpreted as well. Similar to Question 2, the students were expected to comment on whether their ideas had changed. The analysis of the pre-questionnaire led to 16 categories. 10 (27, 7%) of the students stated that they thought using the words in sentences was a suitable technique for them. According to the analysis of the post-questionnaire, 18 categories were developed. In contrast to the pre-questionnaire, 5 (13, 8%) of the students mentioned using the words in sentences, and 5 (13, 8%) students stated that working in groups was appropriate for them. 23 (63, 8%) of them assumed that they had learnt some new techniques and strategies which included guessing the meaning from the context, doing translation, matching definitions and the teacher's explanations.

Actually, the new techniques and strategies mentioned above had not been the core of the present study since guessing the meaning from the context had been taught in both the control and the experimental groups; but matching definitions, translation and the teacher's explanation had been applied only in the control group. Therefore, it could be claimed that some of the students in the experimental group needed the techniques like translation and matching definitions. As these had not been used during the classes, they might have wished to mention them. This could also be related to the education system the students had been accustomed to. Some of the

students might have thought that they would be taught the forms, the list of isolated words, or that they would translate the texts from Turkish to English or vice versa. However, they had not received such training during the treatment, which might have led them to mention these techniques and/or strategies as the ones that they had been accustomed to a lot.

It was also found out that the students mentioned some of the strategies only in the pre-questionnaire. These were studying the synonyms, using the body language, listening to music, studying English definitions and listing. This indicated that although some students had thought studying definitions and making lists of isolated words would be suitable for them before the treatment, they changed their minds along with the study and they did not mention these techniques in the post-questionnaire. This might show that some of the students gave up expecting to work with some traditional techniques. Similarly, 5 (13, 8%) of the students claimed that working in groups would be appropriate for them during the class in the post-questionnaire, which might be an indicator of paying attention to communication. The overall results of the third question of the questionnaire showed that the TBI was partly effective with regard to learning vocabulary.

The fourth question in the questionnaire which sought “What kinds of vocabulary teaching techniques do you prefer to be used by the instructor/teacher during the class?” was also analysed and interpreted in order to answer the first research question. The analysis of the answers of the students in the experimental group to this question in the questionnaire revealed 11 categories, where playing games was the mostly preferred technique. The same technique was preferred by most of the students in the post-questionnaire, as well. 14 (38, 8%) of the students claimed that they had learnt new things along with the study. They mentioned speaking English, exploiting memorization techniques, using the daily language, making use of drama techniques and creating and using flashcards.

Among these techniques and strategies, creating and using flashcards had been taught in both the control group and the experimental group as part of the usual

syllabus. Thus, the effect of the TBI could not be claimed here. Nevertheless, speaking English, using the daily language, and making use of the drama techniques could be related to the TBI. It was also seen that the students mentioned visualizing, revising vocabulary, doing homework, studying pronunciation and memorising the words only in the pre-questionnaire. That is to say, it could be claimed that the students had gained some communicative techniques such as speaking English, or daily language, and using drama techniques along with the treatment.

Finally, two communicative tasks one of which was about written communication and one of which was about oral communication were used to investigate the answer to the first research question that asked whether the TBI had a significant impact on vocabulary learning of university preparation class students.

The results of the writing task revealed that the students in the experimental group tried to use 21 words that had been taught during the study. However, there were some problems with 7 of them, which meant that 14 of the words which were the core of the study were learnt literally by the students in the experimental group. On the other hand, the students in the control group tried to use 7 of the words, 4 of which included mistakes. Thus, the students in the control group were found to have used only three of the words that had been taught during the study. This indicated the impact of the TBI in the experimental group since the students in the experimental group were accustomed to seeing and using these words in context during the tasks.

With regard to the communicative speaking task, only one of the students in the experimental group was observed to be using one of the words that had been taught during the study. Similarly, the students in the control group were not observed to be using the words in oral communication. Only one of the students tended to use a word; however, she/he made a mistake. Therefore, no student from the control group was able to use a word correctly in the speaking task.

These results indicated that the students used the words that they had learnt in their English reading classes in written communication, whereas they were not able to use

them while speaking. This might have been due to the fact that the students were not able to remember the words; instead they preferred to use easier and more common words.

In conclusion, the answer to the first research question of the study did not reach very conclusive results. Although the effect of the TBI could be seen in the comparison between the scores of the pre-test and the post-test, the same was also true for the control group, who had received a traditional instruction. Therefore, it was difficult to say that the success of the students was due to the use of tasks during the classes. This finding found support in the literature as the effects of the TBI was the focus of fruitful studies. Among these, Fotos's (1993, Harrison's (1996), Mohamed's (2004), Kasap's (2005) and Yaylı's (2005) studies did not reach conclusive results similar to the present study.

The results of the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire were similar, as well. In spite of the fact that the students in the experimental group were found to have learnt new techniques and strategies along with the study, not all of them could be considered because of the treatment. In order to understand whether these changes were due to the TBI, the control group and the experimental group should be compared. The second research question aimed to compare the two groups.

Research Question 2: "Is there a significant difference between the academic success of the experimental group who received the TBI instruction and the control group who received the traditional instruction in learning the key vocabulary (active vocabulary) throughout their English reading lessons during the implementation of the study?"

This question aimed to compare the groups. As in the first research question, vocabulary learning was explained with regard to the results of the pre-tests, the post-tests, the quizzes, the questionnaires the communicative writing task and the communicative speaking task.

First of all, the post-test scores of the control group and the experimental group were compared in order to see whether there was a statistically significant difference between them. The analysis of the results revealed that although the mean score of the experimental group was higher than that of the control group, the difference could not be considered statistically significant, which indicated that both groups had learnt vocabulary at approximately similar rates. This was not supported by the literature; however, because the studies that were carried out to investigate the effects of the TBI found out that it was significantly better than the traditional methods (Zaki & Ellis, 1999; Huyen & Nga, 2003; Stark, 2005; De La Fuente, 2006). Mehpour's study (2008), in contrast, revealed the negative effects of the TBI on vocabulary learning, claiming that the traditional methods were more effective.

Actually, there was another thing to be discussed in terms of the post-test scores. When the mean scores of each group was analysed, it was seen the mean score of the control group for the post-test was 50, 92 ($\bar{x}$ = 50, 92), whereas it was 55, 92 ($\bar{x}$ = 55, 92) for the experimental group. These mean scores could not be considered successful in our context, because these students took an 8-week-instruction, during which they focused on vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. Mainly two reasons of this failure might be discussed.

First of all, all the students participating in the study were aware of the fact that they were a part of a study as the researcher/instructor informed all of them about this due to ethical reasons. This might have led to the idea that they would not have been graded in these tests; consequently they might not have tried their best. This is completely related with the education system in Turkey. As the students are always educated for certain examinations, they do not pay attention to what they learn. Instead they care about what grade they get from the exam or whether they fail or succeed. This situation might be expressed as the "washback" (Bachman & Palmer, 2002, p. 30). Washback is defined as the impact of the tests on teaching and/or learning. According to Hughes (1989 as cited in Bachman & Palmer, 2002) it might be positive or negative. The students in our context were all university students, thus they were used to taking exams just to pass or fail. Therefore, during the

implementation of the post-test, they might not have done all they could have bearing in mind that the test would not have been effective in their end-of-the term grades. Thus, in our situation the effect of the examinations was negative as they hindered learning.

Secondly, the vocabulary that had been taught during the study appeared in the reading passages of the Reading Course. Although the Reading Course included a lot of new vocabulary items for the students, the Testing Office of the Basic English Department in the School of Foreign Languages at Yıldız Technical University did not prefer to ask any vocabulary questions of this course neither in the mid-term nor in the proficiency exams. They only included vocabulary questions in the pop quizzes. As the students were aware that none of the vocabulary items would appear in the exams except for the quizzes which had very little effect on their grades, they did not pay enough attention to studying for these words apart from the classes. Indeed this problem is also related to the education system of Turkey similar to the previous one. The students were accustomed to studying just to pass examinations or to get good grades, which influenced their success in the post-test. A similar idea was discussed by Loumpourdi (2005) who carried out a study in Greece. He claimed that since the students had to take exams at very young ages, it was impossible to make them and their teachers get accustomed to using tasks in the class. Although the tasks were believed to be enjoyable and engaging, most teachers did not prefer using them due to the formal examinations, which is also true in Turkey.

The second instrument which had been used to measure the vocabulary learning of the students was the quizzes that had been written by the Test Office of the department. Two quizzes were applied in both groups by the school administration and each included 5 questions related to the vocabulary that had been taught during the study. The results of the first quiz revealed no significant difference between the groups as in the post-test. However, a statistically significant difference was found between the control group and the experimental group in the comparison of Quiz 2 scores. The experimental group was better than the control group in the second quiz, which might have been due to the fact that the students got used to the school, types

of questions asked in the quizzes and the new vocabulary items. As the first quiz was administered at the very beginning of the academic year, the students might have had difficulty in adapting to those questions. In spite of the significance level ($p=,005$) reached in Quiz 2, it could not be concluded that the experimental group learnt significantly better than the control group, because there were three tests, the post-test, Quiz 1 and Quiz 2, and only Quiz 2 results revealed a significant difference.

All in all the comparison of the groups revealed no significant difference except for the second quiz, which could lead to the idea that the TBI had a slight effect on vocabulary learning of the students. These findings might have emanated from the learning cultures of the participants. As it was discussed earlier in this chapter, the participants of the present study were accustomed to receiving a traditional, formal instruction. That is why it was difficult for the experimental group to change their learning habits in 2 months and to benefit wholly from the new method. Various studies conducted to investigate the effects of the culture revealed that the learning habits of people were shaped by the culture. For instance, Rambourth and McCormick (2001), and Devlin and Godfrey (2004) found out that the students' behaviours differed according to the culture they were brought up.

As vocabulary learning was related to exploiting effective techniques and strategies, an open-ended pre- and post-questionnaires were given to the student in the control group and the experimental group. When the groups were compared with regard to their answers for Question 2 in the questionnaire which asked "What kinds of techniques do you exploit while learning vocabulary individually? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)", it was found that the students in the control group mentioned reading books and making associations while learning vocabulary individually in the pre-questionnaire, whereas the students in the experimental group stated that they learnt new words through repetition. The results of the post-questionnaire revealed that the students in the control group mentioned using the new words in sentences, while the students in the experimental group mentioned repetition again. This indicated that although using the words in sentences was not a communicative technique, it could be better than repetition which was like a drill.

Therefore, the effect of the TBI techniques was not reflected in the students' answers. This result might have been because the students in the experimental group thought that vocabulary should be taught through repetition as they were not provided such a technique.

Related with the second research question again, the other part of the second question in the questionnaire that dealt with whether the students had learnt new techniques and/or strategies revealed that totally 19 students in the control group had learnt new techniques and/or strategies. This number was 21 (58, 3%) for the experimental group. These new techniques and/or strategies included listing, guessing the meaning from the context, playing computer games, using the internet, chatting and using flashcards for the control group, whereas in the experimental group, guessing the meaning from the context, using flashcards, working in groups, studying the parts of speech of the words, playing games, translating and using the internet were mentioned.

These findings suggested that the TBI could be considered effective in terms of teaching some new vocabulary learning techniques and/or strategies like working in groups and playing games. The other new techniques and/or strategies that had been mentioned by the students were not only related with the TBI as they were included in the usual syllabus.

In order to answer the Research Question 2, Question 3 in the questionnaire which asked "What kinds of vocabulary learning techniques now do you prefer to be used during the class? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)" was analyzed. The analysis of the answers of the students revealed that 15 (48, 3%) of the students in the control group mentioned using the words in sentences in the pre-questionnaire. Similarly, in the post-questionnaire the same technique was the most frequent one. However, as the students learnt some other new techniques throughout the term, the number of the students who stated that using the words in sentences was appropriate for them declined to 5 (16, 1%). Likewise, 10 (27, 7%) students in the experimental group implied that using the words in sentences was appropriate for them during the

class, whereas this number declined to 5 in the post-questionnaire, because 5 (13, 8%) of them stated that working in groups was also suitable for them to learn vocabulary.

The analysis of the second part of the question that asked whether the students' idea had changed or not indicated that 14 (45, 1%) students in the control group and 23 (63, 8%) students in the experimental group had learnt new techniques and/or strategies. The analysis of these new techniques and/or strategies revealed an interesting result. The students in the control group mentioned studying the parts of speech, listing, working in groups, using a dictionary and making use of visual aids. On the contrary, the students in the experimental group mentioned matching the definitions with the words, guessing the meaning from the context, translating and the teacher's explaining the meaning of the words. This was interesting because the students in the control group did not carry out any group-work although they mentioned it. Similarly, they were not presented with any visual aids, either. Likewise, the students in the experimental group did not do any translations of any kind; they never matched definitions with the words and the teacher did not make any explanation of the new words. It could be concluded from the analyses of the answers for the third question in the questionnaire that the students participating in the study thought that the techniques or strategies which they had not actually applied in the class would have been suitable for them to learn vocabulary. In other words, the students in the control group looked forward to working in groups or playing games, while the students in the experimental group wished to match definitions with the words or making translations.

The last question about the vocabulary learning techniques and strategies was Question 4 that asked "What kinds of vocabulary teaching techniques now do you prefer to be used during the class? (Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?)". 7 (22, 5%) students in the control group stated using the words in sentences. 7 (22, 5%) students mentioned no special techniques or strategies in the pre-questionnaire. The answers of the students to the post-questionnaire changed as 4 (12, 9%) students mentioned playing games and watching films. The answers of the

students in the experimental group were the same both in the pre and the post-questionnaires. They preferred playing games in both of them. There was again an interesting finding, because the students in the control group never played games nor watched films in the class. Thus, they might have found these techniques and strategies interesting and engaging in the class.

The analysis of the answers for the other part of the question that asked “(Have there been any changes in your ideas so far?) revealed that 18 (58, 06%) of the students in the control group and 14 (38, 8%) students in the experimental group stated that they had learnt new techniques and /or strategies. The students in the control group mentioned using a dictionary, using memory techniques, doing translation and using visual aids as the new techniques and/or strategies. Speaking English, using memory techniques, daily language, drama techniques and flashcards were implied by the students in the experimental group. Despite the fact that fewer students had learnt new techniques or strategies in the experimental group, techniques and/or strategies that they stated were related to the TBI. Thus, the effect of the TBI was visible in the answers of the students to Question 4 in the questionnaire.

Research Question 3: “Is there a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of the communicative use of the new vocabulary items that they learned during the implementation of the study?”

In order to answer this question, the students carried out a communicative writing task and a communicative speaking task. The analysis of the writings revealed that 12 (32, 4%) of the students in the control group and 20 (50%) of the students in the experimental group used at least one of the words in the list. When the use of the words was analyzed, it was found that the students in the control group really learnt three of the words in the list due to the fact that they had made some mistakes while forming sentences.

On the other hand, the students in the experimental group tried to use 21 words from the list. After the sentences containing these words were analyzed, there found to be

some problems with 7 of them; consequently, 14 words from the list had really been learnt by the students in the experimental group.

The difference between the groups could be considered as significant. That the students in the experimental group tried to use more words than the students in the control group might have been due to the fact that they frequently saw these words in the context and they tried to use them while writing or speaking in groups. On the contrary, the students in the control group carried out traditional exercises like filling in the blanks, matching definitions with the words, translating the meanings of the words into Turkish, and so on. Therefore, they were not able to use the words correctly. This result was consistent with Başaran's (2004) and Tilfarlıoğlu and Başaran's (2007) studies.

With regard to the speaking task that had been applied in order to see whether the students would be able to use the words in oral communication, it was found that the students had not used many of the words that had been taught during the study. For instance, a student from the control group tried to use the word "structure" to talk about cocks; but, the word choice was not correct. Moreover, another student wanted to use the word "impatient"; however, she/he could not remember it although it had been taught during the study. With regard to the students in the experimental group, there was only one student who used one of the words correctly. She/He used the word "weave" appropriately. On the contrary, similar to the students in the control group, one of them wanted to say "exhibition" but she/he could not recall it and asked it to the teacher. Similar results were revealed by Harrison (1996), Robin, Strong and Whittle (2006), and DeRidder, Vangehuchten and Gomez (2007). On the contrary, the studies conducted by Pellettieri (1999), Beglar and Hunt (2002), Kavaliauslienė (2005), Lochana and Deb (2006) and Ahmed (2008) indicated that the TBI was more effective than the traditional methods with regard to oral communication.

All in all, the results of the speaking task revealed that the students did not use the target words while speaking although these words had been taught them during the

study, which might occur because of the reason that they felt anxious while speaking in front of the class. They might not have remembered the words easily like in the writing task. Another thing that might have added to their anxiety was the video recordings. The thought of being watched by someone else might have affected them negatively.

Research Question 4: “Is there a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of motivation and participation during the implementation of the study?”

In order to answer this question, both groups were video recorded for four times for 60 minutes during the implementation of the study; the recordings were transcribed by the researcher and analyzed by both the researcher and another scorer. According to the analysis of the recordings, some categories were developed. The categories included both the students’ participation and their mood. These analyses revealed that the students in the control group answered totally 84% of the questions asked, whereas the students in the experimental group answered 78, 6% of them. The teacher had to call out names 11 times; and the students remained silent 42 times in the control group. As for the experimental group, the teacher called out names 10 times; the students remained silent 12 times. The voluntary answers of the students in the control group were more than those of the experimental group, which might have been due to the fact that the experimental group carried out group-work and they were generally asked to present their answers group by group. However, in the control group, the students were expected to answer the questions individually and then they presented them one by one. Therefore, whether the students were willing to answer or not was more visible in the control group.

In terms of the students’ active participation in the exercises or tasks, the students in the control group were found to be actively involved in the exercises 48 times in total, while they did not participate 14 times. As for the students in the experimental group, they were actively involved in the tasks 66 times and they did not participate 8 times. This indicated that the students in the control group participated in the 77%

of the lessons, whereas this percentage was 89% for the students in the experimental group.

It might be deduced from these findings that the students in the experimental group participated the activities in the class more than the control group did, which could be due to the techniques exploited. Another criterion which indicated the participation level of the students was the questions they asked the teacher while doing the exercises or carrying out the tasks. The students in both groups were observed to have asked some questions to the teacher. These questions were generally about how to do the exercise or to carry out the tasks and sometimes about some unknown words. The students in the experimental group asked more questions than the students in the control group. This might have been the result of the fact that the students in the experimental group carried out tasks which were new to them, whereas the control group did exercises that they were already familiar with. That is to say, the students in the control group might not have needed to ask a lot of questions to the teacher. Finally, the control group tended to give Turkish definitions of the words, which was again related with the method that had been used before. Since they were mostly provided with either the Turkish meanings or the English definitions of the words by the teacher, they were used to analyzing the words in isolation and they felt that they had to tell the Turkish meaning.

The mood of the groups was also different. The students in the control group were found to be yawning or sleeping for 33 times in total, whereas this frequency was 4 for the students in the experimental group. This indicated that the students in the experimental group were not bored during the class. Similarly, the control group was observed not to be smiling or laughing as much as the experimental group. This might have been related not to being content with techniques exploited during the class. As they did not think that the activities were interesting, they preferred sleeping. Another result of boredom was that the students tended to chat with each other more. They were also observed to be playing with their mobile phones. On the contrary, the students in the experimental group were seen to be looking around or looking at the watch 4 times, which indicated that they could sometimes get bored, as

well. One more thing that was problematic about the experimental group was the noise level. They were not accustomed to working in groups or playing games; consequently, they did not know how loudly they should speak to their group members, which led to a lot of noise in the class.

The overall analyses of the video recordings indicated that the students in the control group were not lively and they did not look happy with what they were doing. On the contrary, the atmosphere was really positive in the experimental group since most of the students in the class were smiling or laughing. Nevertheless, as it was seen, the experimental group was noisier than the control group because of which some teachers may not be willing to apply the TBI in their classes. That the TBI created a positive and lively atmosphere was also supported by various studies in the literature. Vilches (2003), Leaver and Kaplan (2004), Yaylı (2004), Ruso (2007) and Shak and Gardner (2008) found out that through the use of tasks in the class, the students became more motivated to learn, consequently engaging in the learning process. There was one study which revealed contrastive results since the participants of that study found some of the tasks boring and useless (Ojeda, 2004).

Research Question 5: “Is there a reported difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of their expectations related to reading classes?”

In order to find an answer to this question, the last question in the questionnaire, “What is your expectation related to vocabulary learning during reading classes?” was exploited. The analysis of the answers of the pre-questionnaire for the control group indicated that the students mostly expected to learn more words. The other expectations included using the words in sentences, learning pronunciation, doing translation, reading comprehension, guessing the meaning from the context, using memory techniques, filling in the blanks and revising vocabulary. Similar expectations were mentioned by the students in the experimental group with a slight difference. They added listing, using drama techniques, writing the new words on the board and seeing them in the context. All in all, the expectations of the students in both groups did not differ much.

Research Question 6: “Is there a reported significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of the fulfilment of their expectations?”

The fifth question in the post-questionnaire which asked “Do you think that your expectations related to vocabulary learning during reading classes have been met? (Have your expectations changed so far during the reading classes in this term?) aimed to find the answer for this question. The results revealed that 14 (45, 1%) students in the control group believed that their expectations had been met; 9 (29%) of them stated that they did not reach what they had expected; and 7 (22, 5%) of the students implied that their expectations had been partially met.

The students’ answers in the experimental group indicated that 19 (52 7%) of them believed that their expectations had been met, whereas 7 (19, 4%) of them stated just the opposite. 6 (16, 6%) of the students implied that their expectations had been partially met.

These analyses indicated that more students in the experimental group reached their aims in terms of vocabulary learning during reading classes. However, this result was not reflected in the post-test scores. Although the students claimed that their expectations most of which were related with learning new words had been fulfilled, they were not able to show this in the test and the speaking task. They could only show it in the writing task. This could be because the students might have become anxious while taking an exam. Another reason might be that they might not have paid enough attention to the test as it would not be graded. With regard to the speaking task, the students were almost always had some speaking anxiety while speaking. They were not able to remember even the words they knew vey well. One more reason might be the effect of the video camera. Since the students were being video recorded while they were carrying out the task, they might have become more nervous. However, they felt more relaxed in writing as they were on their own.

Research Question 7: “Is there a significant difference on the awareness level of the experimental group related to the TBI after the treatment?” The first question in the

pre-questionnaire that asked “Have you got any information about the Task-Based Instruction?” aimed to answer this question. The answers of the students to this question revealed that the students in the control group stated that they did not have any information about vocabulary learning through the TBI in the pre-questionnaire. As for the students in the experimental group, 3 (7, 5%) of them implied that they had heard of the TBI and they were really aware of it in spite of some misconceptions. The analysis of the first question, “Do you think now you have learnt what the Task-Based Instruction to vocabulary learning is?” in the post-questionnaire indicated that 2 (5, 4%) of the students in the control group assumed that they knew about the TBI; however, their explanations revealed that they only tried to guess what it was. When the answers of the students in the experimental group were analyzed, 10 (25%) of them were found to have some information about vocabulary teaching through the TBI. This suggested that although the researcher/instructor had not made any explicit explanations about the TBI to the students in the experimental group, some of them were aware of the different techniques they had exploited during the study, which indicated that the students’ awareness of the TBI and its techniques increased along with the study in the experimental group.

All in all, the effect of the TBI on vocabulary learning and the motivation to learn vocabulary was investigated through various instruments in the present study. The results of the analysis of these instruments did not reveal very conclusive results except for the communicative writing task and two of the questions (question 4 and question 5) in the open-ended questionnaire. This might have been due to the fact that the participant students who were at the university preparation class level had already been accustomed to using traditional techniques during the English classes. That the time period given to the study was not long enough added to these results, as well. However, the most important thing that had been discussed was the education system of Turkey, which led the students to study only to pass the exams and get good grades. Thus, the students did not wish to learn anything just for the sake of learning. Moreover, as the participant students were aware that they were a part of a research study, they knew that their grades would not be so much affected by the

tests. The most significant effect might have come from the fact that the words that had been taught during the study were asked neither in the mid-term exams nor in the proficiency exam which would be administered at the end of the academic year as the final exam.

5.1. IMPLICATIONS

The results which were revealed through the present study could be related to several implications.

First of all, the context where the study took place is significant. The participants were all Turkish students at tertiary, that is, university preparation class. They were students at Basic English Department of School of Foreign Languages in Yıldız Technical University. This means that these students have already had some foreign language instruction before university. As most of the students were used to studying through traditional techniques like translation, listing, memorising and so forth at secondary schools, it was difficult for them to adapt to the TBI in two months. As the culture they were living in shaped their ideas, they were accustomed to taking exams starting from very young ages. Therefore, they had learnt to study just to pass certain examinations or to get good grades. However, in the present study, they were informed that they were participating in a research study; so they were aware that their grades would not be affected by the scores of the tests.

Moreover, the target vocabulary in the present study appeared in their Reading course; but, the new vocabulary items were asked neither in the Mid-term nor in the Proficiency exams. That is why; the students did not pay enough attention to these new vocabulary items. They did not want to study for the vocabulary, which they thought would be in vain. This was again related to the learning culture and the education system of the context in which the study was carried out. The students in our context did not want to learn anything just for the sake of learning it. According to them, there should be something extrinsic like an examination the scores of which would be really effective for their success or failure. In order to change this, the

students should be educated to learn something just for the sake of learning it. Therefore, instead of administering common examinations to place them into schools, there should be an evaluation system based on process.

This study aimed to make a humble contribution to the field of ELT although it would be recommended to carry out in different settings with different types of participants in order to reach more conclusive results on vocabulary learning and teaching through the TBI. There might be more participants, which will make it possible to generalise the results. Moreover, the study might take a longer period of time. In this way, the participants might get accustomed to learning through tasks leaving their traditions behind. If the students are used to carrying out tasks, they might be more successful language learners. Thus, using tasks in language classes should start from the beginning. In order to achieve this in our country, first of all, the teachers should be educated; they should receive special courses on how to design and use tasks in language classes. By doing so, the impact of using tasks might be more visible.

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VII. APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

The Pre-Test and the Post-Test

Name/Surname:

Class:

Time: 40'

A. Read the text. Then choose the correct answer (5x4=20 pts).

ESKIMO ART

A climate of ice and snow stretches across northern Siberia, Alaska, Canada, and Greenland for most of the year. Nothing grows. It is always cold. But the Eskimos are able to live there. They have lived in North America for at least 28,000 years. Eskimos call themselves Inuit, which means "people". For thousands of years the Inuit thought they were the only people in the world because they never saw other people.

Life in this part of the world is probably the most difficult anywhere. People have only necessary things. But they have developed beautiful art because for them art is very important--it is essential.

The Eskimo artist takes a piece of ivory from a sea animal and holds it in his hands. Slowly he turns it, feels it, and looks at it. Then he begins carving the piece of ivory. As the artist dreams and carves, the animal slowly appears. It might be a seal or a whale. It might be a fish or a bird. Eskimos understand animal forms because they live a life close to nature. They feel closeness to the land and to the people and animals that live there. Eskimos know how animals move and how they look when they stand still. The Eskimo artist is able to make an ivory or bone animal that catches the feeling of a living animal exactly.

Why do Eskimos make small animals from ivory? Do these animals have a special meaning in Eskimo society? Social scientists cannot answer these questions. The Eskimos do not tell them, so they can only guess.

A small ivory animal is not just a copy of a live one. It has something of the animal itself in it. Making the animal is more important to the Eskimo artist than owning or keeping it when it is finished. When an artist carves an ivory animal, he or she understands better how it feels to be an animal.

It is important to the Eskimos to feel and handle the small animal carvings. Handling makes them smooth, and smoothness improves the carvings. They become even more beautiful. Many of the ivory animals do not have perfect shapes and will not stand up. They fall over and roll around. This is not important. People should hold and feel the carvings, not just look at them.

Small Eskimo carvings of animals, birds, and people are very popular among people who visit northern Canada and Alaska. People who cannot visit the area where Eskimos live can see their art in museums. Most of us never see whales or seals, but then we see beautiful form and color of an ivory or bone animal, we know how beautiful the real animals are.

1. What is the main idea?
 - a. Eskimos call themselves *Inuit*, which means "people".

- b. Making a carving is more important than selling one.
 - c. Eskimo artists catch the feeling of living animals in their carvings.
- 2. For the Eskimos, art is
 - a. essential
 - b. just a copy
 - c. indestructible
- 3. Eskimos live close to nature, so
 - a. they have dreams.
 - b. their life is difficult.
 - c. they know how animals move.
- 4. Eskimo artists have the ability to
 - a. move animals anywhere.
 - b. create an animal from bone.
 - c. tell social scientists the meaning of animals in their society.
- 5. When an Eskimo artist handles the carvings,
 - a. they can stand still.
 - b. they become smooth.
 - c. they can guess what the carvings mean.

B. Write *T* if the sentence is true and *F* if it is false (5x4=20 pts).

- 6. Although it is always cold, the Eskimos can live in a climate of ice and snow. ____
- 7. Eskimos can tell the meanings of their carvings. ____
- 8. It is more important to make an ivory carving than to own or keep the carving. ____
- 9. Ivory comes from a sea animal. ____
- 10. When a carving is finished, it must have a perfect shape. ____

C. Choose the correct word from the box to complete the sentences (10x4=40 pts)

controversy	respect	healing	require	identification
purpose	fragile	indestructible	punishment	delegate

11. Making a sand painting is one part of a(n) _____ ceremony in the Navajo Indian culture.
12. Your passport is one kind of _____.
13. Everyone should _____ the opinions of others.
14. Plastic is almost _____. It lasts a long time.
15. There is a _____ about where the best English is spoken--in England, Australia or the United States.
16. We will choose one _____ to go to the meeting and the report back to us.
17. I have no doubt that the man is guilty and that he deserves _____.
18. If you _____ further information, you should consult the registration.
19. The _____ of the occasion was to raise money for medical supplies.
20. Be careful with that vase- it's very _____ and worth a lot of money.

D. Match the following words with their meanings (5x4=20 pts).

21. withdrawal _____
22. expose _____
23. extensive _____
24. preserve _____
25. representative _____

- a. to make sure that a situation or condition remains as it is and does not change or end.
- b. the act or process of removing or ending.
- c. a person who has been chosen to act or make decisions on behalf of another person or a group of people.
- d. covering a wide range of details, ideas or items.
- e. to uncover something so that it can be seen.

APPENDIX B

The questionnaire given to the teachers for validity measurement

Dear Colleague,

The following test has been designed to evaluate the A-Level students' vocabulary knowledge on 15 words and their reading comprehension skills. There are 25 items in the test and the students are expected to finish it in 40 minutes. The test will be used in an experimental study which aims to investigate the effects of the Task-Based Instruction on vocabulary acquisition. As the test has been prepared by the researcher, it is important to measure the validity of the items (whether the items reflect what the test aims to measure). Therefore, for each item in the test, please decide whether the item is "acceptable", "needs changing" or "not acceptable".

A= ACCEPTABLE (The item can be used in the test)

B= NEEDS CHANGING (The item should be changed in order to be used in the test)

C= NOT ACCEPTABLE (The item cannot be used in the test)

Please choose the option that corresponds to you.

1. Year of experience in teaching English a) 1-5 b) 6-10 c) 7-15 d) more

2. Degree a) BA b) MA c) PhD

Thanks a lot for your participation!

İlknur KARADAĞLI

Item Number	A (acceptable)	B (needs changing)	C (not acceptable)
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			
13			
14			

15			
16			
17			
18			
19			
20			
21			
22			
23			
24			
25			

APPENDIX C
The Revised Post-Test

Name/Surname:

Class:

Time: 45'

B. Read the text. Then choose the correct answer (5x4=20 pts).

CHANGES IN WORLD CLIMATE

- 1 Although the weathermen's forecasts for a month ahead are only a little better than guesswork, they are now making long-term forecasts into the next century with growing confidence. For the dominant trend in the world's climate in the coming decades will, scientists say, be a predictable result of man's activities.
 - 2 At the start of the industrial revolution nearly two centuries ago, man innocently set off a gigantic experiment in planetary engineering. Unaware of what he was doing, he spared no thought for the consequences. Today, the possible outcome is alarmingly clear, but the experiment is unstoppable. Within the lifetimes of many of us, the earth may become warmer than it has been for a thousand years. By the middle of the 21st century, it may be warmer than it was before the last Ice Age. And the next century may be hotter than any in the past 70 million years.
 - 3 Superficially, a warmer climate may seem welcome. But it could bring many **hazards** - disruption of crops in the world's main food-producing regions, famine, economic instability, civil unrest and even war.
 - 4 In the much longer term, melting of the great ice-caps of Greenland and Antarctica could raise sea-levels throughout the world. The average sea-level has already risen a foot since the early 20th century, and if the ice-caps disappear entirely, it will rise by nearly 200 feet. Complete melting might take many centuries, but even a small increase in sea-level will threaten low-lying parts of the world such *as* the Netherlands.
 - 5 The man-made agent of climatic change is the carbon dioxide that has been pouring out of the world's chimneys in ever-increasing quantities since the industrial revolution began. And in the past few years, scientists have begun to suspect that there is a second man-made source of carbon dioxide, which may be *as* important *as* the burning of fossil fuels, namely the steady destruction of the world's great forests. Trees and other vegetation represent a huge stock of carbon removed from circulation like money in a bank. *As* the vast tropical forests are cut down, most of the carbon they contain finds its way back into the atmosphere *as* carbon dioxide.
 - 6 The amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere is still tiny. But it has climatic effects out of proportion to its concentration. It acts rather like the glass in a greenhouse, letting through short-wave radiation from the sun, but **trapping** the longer-wave radiation, by which the earth loses heat to outer space.
 - 7 Computer studies have suggested that if the concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere were to be twice that of today's, there would be a rise of between 2°C and 3°C in average temperature.
1. Para. 3, '**hazards**' probably means _____ .
- a) advantages

- b) benefits
- c) problems
- d) precautions

2. Para. 6, '**trapping**' probably means _____.
 - a) not allowing to pass
 - b) making easier to pass
 - c) letting through a surface
 - d) losing heat
3. Which of the following **cannot** be one of the results of a warmer world climate?
 - a) An increase in food production.
 - b) Wars between countries.
 - c) The death of millions of people from starvation.
 - d) Economic instability.
4. Scientists predict that, in the long term _____.
 - a) there will be a Third World *War*
 - b) all countries will be flooded
 - c) the sea-level will not rise noticeably
 - d) the polar ice-caps might melt completely
5. If the amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere increases considerably, _____.
 - a) the world will become warmer
 - b) we can expect colder weather
 - c) plants will tend to grow faster
 - d) we will have to destroy more forests

B. Decide whether the following statements True or False according to the text. If it is False, state the reason (4x3=12 pts)

6. Weathermen believe that our future climate will be the direct result of scientific experiments. _____

.....

7. Man has changed the world's climate by building chimneys. _____

.....

8. According to computer studies, if the amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere doubled, the weather would be warmer. _____

.....

.....

C. Find the words which mean (4x2=8 pts)

9. results (Paragraph 2): _____

10. completely (paragraph 4): _____

D. Fill in the table with suitable words (1x10=10 pts)

Verb	Noun	Adjective	Adverb
withdraw	1	X	X
2	success	3	4
possess	5	6	7
X	8	sophisticated	X
9	10	resistant	X

E. Use the appropriate form of the words in the table (2x5=10 pts)

11. British scientists invented a large and _____ telescope. It is more advanced than the already existing one.

12. The walls of the building were specially built to _____ the cold weather.

13. The man was charged with illegal _____ of firearms. Nobody knows how he obtained them.

14. If you study hard, you will _____ in finishing the project on time.

15. The United States has announced that it will _____ forty-thousand troops from Western Europe next year.

F. Choose the correct word from the box to complete the sentences (10x4=40 pts)

identification	vast	inedible	punishment	delegate
purpose	negotiate	fragile	indestructible	exquisite

16. Your passport is one kind of _____. Another one is your driving licence.
17. Canada is a _____ country. It stretches for thousands of kilometres from west to east.
18. Plastic is almost _____. It lasts a long time.
19. The two countries had to _____ and reach an agreement to stop the war.
20. We will choose one _____ to go to the meeting and to report back to us.
21. I have no doubt that the man is guilty and that he deserves _____.
22. Indian artists created _____ beadwork to sell. They were absolutely excellent.
23. The _____ of the occasion was to raise money for medical supplies.
24. The Prime Minister complained about the _____ food at the restaurant.
25. Be careful with that vase- it's very _____ and worth a lot of money.

APPENDIX D

Quizzes prepared by the Test Office of the department

YTU SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES BASIC ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

2008-2009 ACADEMIC YEAR A LEVEL QUIZ I
21, 2008

October

(READING)

B. Complete the sentences with the words given in the chart. Do not change the form.

There are two extras! (5 x 1 = 5 pts.)

landscape	ancestors	imperative	adapt
heal	properly	harsh	

- 1) Vikings, the of Danish people, lived in the northwest of Europe about 1500 years ago.
- 2) Eskimos live happily in their snow houses although the environmental conditions are really in Alaska.
- 3) If you don't wash the vegetables before making a salad, you may get sick.
- 4) The Chinese have used many different kinds of plants and herbs to skin problems for hundreds of years.
- 5) If you live in a country that has a hot climate, it takes time to to Moscow's cold weather.

**YTU SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES BASIC ENGLISH
DEPARTMENT
2008-2009 ACADEMIC YEAR A LEVEL QUIZ I**

**November
27, 2008**

(READING)

B. Using a word from chart A and a prefix / suffix from chart B complete the sentences with the correct combination. You must use each word in A. There are two extras in B. (5 x 1 = 5 pts.)

A

calculate
accept
dark
lingual
thought

B

pre-
mis-
multi-
-less
-able
-en
-ship

1. At 7 p.m. the sky began to, so all the children ran home and the streets lights came on.
2. I advise you to use a(n) dictionary on the internet. There you can find the definitions of a word in English, German, French and Spanish.
3. Telling lies is not a(n) attitude in any culture throughout the world.
4. It was of you to invite people to my apartment without asking for my permission.
5. If you the speed of the car in front of you, you may crash into it.

APPENDIX E

The pre-questionnaire given to the students

Değerli Öğrenciler,

Bu anket, Görev Temelli Öğretim Yöntemi'nin kelime edinimine etkisini araştıran bir çalışmada kullanılacaktır. Anket sorularını gerçek düşüncelerinizi yansıtacak biçimde cevaplamanızı rica ederim.

Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

İlknur KARADAĞLI

Ad/Soyad:

Sınıf:

1. Görev Temelli Öğretim Yöntemi (Task-Based Instruction) ile ilgili bilginiz var mı?

2. Bireysel olarak sözcük öğrenirken özellikle kendinize yakın bulduğunuz teknikler nelerdir?

3. Sınıfta ne tür tekniklerle daha iyi sözcük öğrenebileceğinizi düşünüyorsunuz?

4. Nasıl teknikler uygulanmasını istersiniz?

5. Okuma dersi ile ilgili sözcük öğrenimine ilişkin beklentileriniz nelerdir?

APPENDIX F

The post-questionnaire given to the students

Değerli Öğrenciler,

Bu anket, 2008–2009 akademik yılı boyunca yürüttüğümüz Görev Temelli Öğretim Yöntemi'nin kelime edinimine etkisini araştıran çalışmada kullanılacaktır. Anket sorularını gerçek düşüncelerinizi yansıtacak biçimde cevaplamanızı rica ederim.

Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

İlknur KARADAĞLI

Ad/Soyad:

Sınıf:

1. Görev Temelli Öğretim Yöntemi ile sözcük ediniminin ne olduğu konusunda şu anda bilginiz var mı? Varsa ne olduğunu açıklayınız?

2. **Bireysel** olarak (örneğin evde kendi başınıza) sözcük öğrenirken kendinize özellikle yakın bulduğunuz teknikler nelerdir? (Dönem içinde aldığınız eğitimin bu konuda bir etkisi oldu mu? Yani bu konudaki fikriniz değişti mi? Sözcük öğrenimi konusunda yeni teknikler edindiğinizi düşünüyor musunuz?)

3. Sınıfta öğretmeniniz tarafından sözcük öğretilirken ne tür tekniklerin size daha uygun olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz? (Dönem içerisinde aldığınız eğitim nedeniyle bu konuda fikriniz değişti mi? Öğretmeninizden kendiniz için daha uygun olan yeni teknikler öğrendiniz mi?)

4. Sınıfta ne tür tekniklerin uygulanmasını istersiniz? (Dönem boyunca uygulanan teknikler nedeniyle fikriniz değişti mi? Sınıfta kullanılmasını tercih ettiğiniz yeni teknikler öğrendiniz mi?)

5. Bu dönemki okuma dersinde kelime öğretimiyle ilgili beklentilerinizin karşılandığını düşünüyor musunuz? (Dönemin başındaki beklentileriniz şimdi değişti mi?)

APPENDIX G
The communicative writing task

Name/Surname:

Class:

Think about the campus you are studying at. What kind of things do you prefer to change? Consider the place, the transportation, the courses, the building, the facilities, the library, the food, etc. and write a paragraph of 120-150 words. While writing your paragraph, be careful to

- a) use appropriate and suitable words you have learned this term
- b) use appropriate and correct grammar
- c) be consistent and clear

APPENDIX H

The Communicative Speaking Task

The task was included in Concepts and Comments written by Ackert and Lee published by Thomson Heinle in 2005. The students worked in pairs. Before they watched a video on Ndebele culture, they discussed about the photograph which belonged to that culture. After that, they tried to guess the missing words in 10 sentences. Then, they watched the video, checking the missing words that they had filled in. Finally, they discussed about the art forms that were a part of the Ndebele Culture and they presented their reports orally to the class. At the end of the class, as a follow-up task, they were required to think about various art forms in Turkey. In the next class, they talked about the art forms that they had thought of to the whole class.

APPENDIX I

A sample lesson plan for the experimental group

(DAILY) LESSON PLAN		
PART ONE	Teacher's Name: İLKNUR KARADAĞLI	Class(es): A5-A7
	Lesson Name: English	Date: 10 th – 12 th November 2008
	Book Name: Workbook	Duration: 90'
	Unit Name & Number: Prefixes and suffixes	Topic: General
	Objectives of the lesson	Linguistic: General
		Lexical: Prefixes: <i>anti-, dis-, mis-, un-, in-, im-, ir-, il-, semi-, multi-, post-, pre-, co-, re-, mono-, bi-, pro-, ex-, inter-, trans-, counter-, non-, super-, de-, sub-, uni-, tri-, over-, under-</i> Suffixes: <i>-ion, -ly, -y, -ness, -less, -ful, -able, -ity, -en, -ise, -ship, -er, -ee, etc.</i>
		Skills: Reading, Speaking
		(Expected) Behaviours: - Ss will be able to understand and use the correct prefixes and suffixes.
	Unit Concepts:	General
	Anticipated Problems:	- Ss may not be able to understand the meanings of the prefixes <i>il-/ir-/im-/ir-/un-</i> from the context. - Ss may not be able to find some

		other words starting with these prefixes. - Ss may not be able to understand the meanings of the other prefixes. - Ss may not be able to give an example for each prefix. - Ss may not be able to decide on the type of the suffix.
	Presumed Knowledge:	- Ss are already familiar with parts of speech of some words. - Ss are already familiar with some of the prefixes (un-, in-, il-, ir-, mis-, dis-, im-)
	Possible Solutions:	- The T will explain the meaning of one of them. - The T will encourage them to look for similar examples in their books or dictionaries. - The T will show the clues in the second sentence. - The T will encourage them to look for similar examples in their books or dictionaries. - The T will exemplify the type of suffixes through the word “relate”
	Technological Devices:	
	Student Resources:	- Workbook - Dictionary
	Teacher Resources:	- Workbook

			- Dictionary - Cards (words and suffixes)
PART TWO	PROCESS	Time	10'
			Linguistic: General
			Lexical: Prefixes: <i>dis-</i> , <i>mis-</i> , <i>un-</i> , <i>in-</i> , <i>im-</i> , <i>ir-</i> , <i>il-</i> ,
			Skills: Reading, Speaking
		P R O C E D U R E ONE	The T starts the lesson by writing the following words on the board: <i>Uncomfortable, disloyal, misunderstand, impatient, irregular, illogical, inconvenient.</i> Then she asks the Ss what the <i>un-</i>, <i>in-</i>, <i>il-</i>, <i>ir-</i>, <i>dis-</i>, <i>mis-</i>, <i>im-</i> mean. Ss express their answers individually. Together with the Ss, they make it clear that all these mean “not” and they are called prefixes.
		Techniques	Individual work, discussion
		Expected Behaviours	- Ss will be able to find out the meaning of the prefixes on their own. - Ss will be able to discuss about the meanings of the prefixes with the class.
PART TWO	PROCESS	Time	15'
			Linguistic: General
			Lexical: Prefixes: <i>un-</i> , <i>in-</i> , <i>im-</i> , <i>ir-</i> , <i>il-</i>
			Skills: Reading, Speaking
		P R O	The T divides the Ss into pairs. Then she delivers them a worksheet. Ss are expected to read the sentences and find the words with

		C E D U R E TWO	prefixes. After that, they are to construct a rule about the prefixes. In other words, they try to find before what kind of words a prefix is used. Finally they present their ideas to the class. The T writes the answers on the board and creates a discussion.
		Techniques	Pair-work, inductive rule construction, discussion
		Expected Behaviours	- Ss will be able to find the words with prefixes. - Ss will be able to construct a rule about the use of prefixes with their partners.
PART TWO	PROCESS	Time	10'
			Linguistic: General
			Lexical: Prefixes: <i>un-</i> , <i>in-</i> , <i>im-</i> , <i>ir-</i> , <i>il-</i>
			Skills: Reading, Speaking
		P R O C E D U R E ONE	The Ss work in pairs and try to find more examples which correspond to the rule or which do not correspond. They present their answers orally to the class and the T writes them on the board to discuss the meanings.
		Techniques	Pair-work, discussion, listing
		Expected Behaviours	- Ss will be able to find more examples of the prefixes and tell them to the class. - Ss will be able to discuss the meaning of the words written on the board.
PART	PROCESS	Time	20'
			Linguistic: General

			Lexical: Prefixes: <i>anti-, dis-, mis-, un-, in-, im-, ir-, il-, semi-, multi-, post-, pre-, co-, re-, mono-, bi-, pro-, ex-, inter-, trans-, counter-, non-, super-, de-, sub-, uni-, tri-, over-, under-</i> Skills: Reading, Speaking
		P R O C E D U R E ONE	The T forms groups of 3 or 4. Ss are given 21 sentences which contain some underlined prefixes. There are also another group of 21 sentences which express the meaning of each prefix. The T assigns each group 3 of the sentences and asks them to find out the meaning of the prefix from the context. After that, they each group tells the answers to the other groups, the other groups take notes and ask questions. Finally, each group finds one more example of the prefixes they analyze. They tell the examples to the class, the T writes them on the board.
		Techniques	Group-work, guessing the meaning from the context
		Expected Behaviours	- Ss will be able to guess the meaning of the prefixes from the context. - Ss will be able to explain their meanings to the class. - Ss will be able to find one example for the prefixes they analyze.
		Time	15'
PART TWO	PROCESS		Linguistic: General
			Lexical: Suffixes: <i>-ion, -ly, -y, -ness, -less, -ful, -able, -ity, -en, -ise, -ship, -er, -ee, etc.</i>
			Skills: Speaking
		P R O C E	The T delivers each group a piece of paper. There is a table on the paper. The table contains some words and some suffix types (i.e. suffixes that form adjectives form verbs, from nouns to adjectives, etc.) Ss are expected to fill in the table by looking at the underlined prefixes. The

		D U R E TWO	first one is given as an example and the T explains it to the class. The answers are discussed orally. The T asks Ss to find some more examples.
		Techniques	Group-work, discussion, filling in table, sorting
		Expected Behaviours	- Ss will be able to fill in the table according to the types of suffixes. - Ss will be able to discuss the results orally. - Ss will be able to find more examples.
PART TWO	PROCESS	Time	20'
			Linguistic: General
			Lexical: Suffixes: <i>-ion, -ly, -y, -ness, -less, -ful, -able, -ity, -en, -ise, -ship, -er, -ee, etc.</i>
			Skills: Reading, Speaking
		P R O C E D U R E TWO	The T delivers each group pieces of paper. There are words and some suffixes and prefixes written on the pieces of paper. The Ss work in groups and try to make as many words as possible. At the end, the T collects the papers and the next lesson will discuss about them.
		Techniques	Group-work, jumbles
		Expected Behaviours	- Ss will be able to make correct words from the given jumbles.

PART THREE	Assessment & Evaluation	Ss will be evaluated both individually and in groups. In terms of individual evaluation, there will be 2 pop-quizzes and 2 midterm exams in the 1st term. They will also be given homework on prefixes from the workbook. As group work evaluation, the Ss will be observed by the teacher and encouraged to take part in the group discussions.
PART FOUR	Possible Problems and Solutions Related to the Application of the Plan	The time might not be enough for the completion of the plan. Then in the next lesson, it will be continued.

APPENDIX J

A sample lesson plan for the control group

(DAILY) LESSON PLAN		
PART ONE	Teacher's Name: İLKNUR KARADAĞLI	Class(es): A4-A8
	Lesson Name: English	Date: 10.11.2008-13.11.2008
	Book Name: Workbook	Duration: 90'
	Unit Name & Number: Prefixes and suffixes	Topic: General
	Objectives of the lesson	Linguistic: General
		Lexical: Prefixes: <i>anti-, dis-, mis-, un-, in-, im-, ir-, il-, semi-, multi-, post-, pre-, co-, re-, mono-, bi-, pro-, ex-, inter-, trans-, counter-, non-, super-, de-, sub-, uni-, tri-, over-, under-</i> Suffixes: <i>-ion, -ly, -y, -ness, -less, -ful, -able, -ity, -en, -ise, -ship, -er, -ee, etc.</i>
		Skills: Reading, Speaking
		(Expected) Behaviours: - Ss will be able to understand and use the correct prefixes and suffixes.
	Unit Concepts:	General
	Anticipated Problems:	- Ss may not be able to understand the meanings of the prefixes <i>il-/ir-/im-/ir-/un-</i> from the context. - Ss may not be able to fill in the blanks with suitable prefixes.

	Presumed Knowledge:		- Ss are already familiar with parts of speech of some words. - Ss are already familiar with some of the prefixes (un-, in-, il-, ir-, mis-, dis-, im-)
	Possible Solutions:		- The T will explain the meaning of them. - The T will encourage them to look for similar examples in their books or dictionaries.
	Technological Devices:		
	Student Resources:		- Workbook - Dictionary
	Teacher Resources:		- Workbook - Dictionary
PART TWO	PROCESS	Time	10'
			Linguistic: General
			Lexical: Prefixes: <i>dis-, mis-, un-, in-, im-, ir-, il-,</i>
			Skills: Reading, Speaking
		P R O C E D U R E	The T starts the lesson by explaining what a prefix is. She gives some examples like uncomfortable, irregular, inappropriate, etc. She asks what these prefixes mean. Together with the Ss, they say that these all mean “not”.

		ONE	
		Techniques	Explanation, discussion
		Expected Behaviours	- Ss will be able to find out the meaning of the prefixes on their own.
PART TWO	PROCESS	Time	15'
			Linguistic: General
			Lexical: Prefixes: <i>un-, in-, im-, ir-, il-</i>
			Skills: Reading, Speaking
		P R O C E D U R E TWO	The T explains the meanings of the prefixes by showing some examples from the workbook. Then she asks the Ss to fill in the blanks with the correct prefixes of the words.
		Techniques	Explanation, fill-in-the blanks
		Expected Behaviours	- Ss will be able to fill in the blanks with the prefixes.
PART TWO	PROCESS	Time	20'
			Linguistic: General
			Lexical: Prefixes: <i>anti-, dis-, mis-, un-, in-, im-, ir-, il-, semi-, multi-, post-, pre-, co-, re-, mono-, bi-, pro-, ex-, inter-, trans-, counter-, non-, super-, de-, sub-, uni-, tri-, over-, under-</i>
			Skills: Reading, Speaking
		P R O C E D	The T explains the meanings of some new prefixes. After that, the Ss add the suitable prefixes to the words given in the workbook. Then their answers are checked.

		U R E	
		ONE	
		Techniques	Explanation, fill-in-the blanks
		Expected Behaviours	- Ss will be able to fill in the blanks with the suitable prefixes.
PART TWO	PROCESS	Time	15'
			Linguistic: General
			Lexical: Suffixes: <i>-ion, -ly, -y, -ness, -less, -ful, -able, -ity, -en, -ise, -ship, -er, -ee, etc.</i>
			Skills: Speaking
		P R O C E D U R E	The T explains what a suffix is. She adds that each suffix changes the parts of speech of the words. She wants the Ss to look at the words given in the workbook. The Ss add a suffix to each word and tell it to the T. They write the words on the board and the T asks the parts of speech of the words on the board. After that, the Ss fill in the blanks with the words.
		TWO	
		Techniques	Question-answer, fill-in-the blanks
		Expected Behaviours	- Ss will be able to add a suffix to the words given. - Ss will be able to tell the parts of speech of the words. - Ss will be able to fill in the blanks with the words.
PART TWO	PROCESS	Time	20'
			Linguistic: General
			Lexical: Suffixes: <i>-ion, -ly, -y, -ness, -less, -ful, -able, -ity, -en, -ise, -ship, -er, -ee, etc.</i>
			Skills: Reading, Speaking

		P R O C E D U R E TWO	The T wants the Ss to do the exercises in the workbook individually. After they finish, the answers are checked.
		Techniques	Fill-in-the blanks, question-answer
		Expected Behaviours	- Ss will be able to fill in the blanks with correct suffixes and prefixes.

PART FOUR	Possible Problems and Solutions Related to the Application of the Plan	Some of the Ss may have some difficulty in understanding the topic or they may not know the meaning of some words. The T will give them extra support while the other Ss are working on the exercises. They will also be given extra exercises.
PART THREE	Assessment & Evaluation	Ss will be evaluated according to their individual participation in the activities done during the class. This will be achieved with the help of the observation of the T. Moreover, there will be 2 quizzes and 1 midterm exams to evaluate their level.