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**COMPARING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CONTEXTUALIZED AND
DEFINITION-BASED VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION ON RECEPTIVE
VOCABULARY LEARNING AND RETENTION SKILLS OF PREPARATORY
CLASS UNIVERSITY STUDENTS**

MERVE GÜZEL

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DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

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ETİK İLKE VE KURALLARA UYGUNLUK BEYANNAMESİ

Yüksek lisans tezi olarak sunduğum “Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction on Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students” adlı çalışmanın içerdiği fikri izinsiz başka bir yerden almadığımı; çalışmamın hazırlık, veri toplama, analiz ve bilgilerin sunumu olmak üzere tüm aşamalarında ve bölümlerinin yazımında bilimsel etik ilke ve kurallara uygun davrandığımı, tez yazım kurallarına uygun olarak hazırlanan bu çalışmada kullanılan her türlü kaynağa eksiksiz atıf yaptığımı ve bu kaynaklara kaynakçada yer verdiğimi, ayrıca bu çalışmanın Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi tarafından kullanılan bilimsel intihal tespit programıyla tarandığını ve *intihal içermediğini* beyan ederim. Herhangi bir zamanda aksinin ortaya çıkması durumunda her türlü yasal sonuca razı olduğumu bildiririm.

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Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction on
Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students

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ÖZET

BAĞLAMSAL VE TANIMA DAYALI KELİME ÖĞRETİMİNİN HAZIRLIK SINIFI ÜNİVERSİTE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN PASİF KELİME ÖĞRENME VE AKILDA TUTMA BECERİLERİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİNLİĞİNİN KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI

Yabancı veya ikinci bir dil öğrenme bağlamında, kelime dağarcığının önemi göz ardı edilemez. Kelime bilgisi, dil öğreniminin merkezinde yer alır ve hedef dilde yeterlilik kazanmak isteyen ve İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrenciler için sözcüksel yeterliliğe sahip olmak oldukça gereklidir. Öğrencilerin kelime bilgisini genişletmek ve akılda tutma becerilerini geliştirmek için çeşitli öğretim yöntemleri bulunmaktadır ve son zamanlarda, yabancı dil eğitiminde sözcük öğretiminin iki farklı şekline odaklanılmıştır. Bunlar bağlamsal ve tanıma dayalı kelime öğretim yöntemleridir.

Bu yarı deneysel çalışmanın temel amacı, bağlamsal ve tanıma dayalı kelime öğretim yöntemlerinin etkinliği arasında önemli bir fark olup olmadığını araştırmaktır. Bu anlamda çalışmanın temel hedefi, bu iki öğretim yönteminin, Türkiye'nin batısında yer alan bir devlet üniversitesindeki hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerinin pasif kelime öğrenme ve akılda tutma becerileri üzerindeki etkilerini ortaya çıkarmaktır. Bu çalışmada nicel veriler, ön test, son test ve geciktirilmiş son test olarak kullanılan bir kelime başarı testi ile toplanmıştır. Bu kelime başarı testinin geçerlik ve güvenilirliğini hesaplamak için 110 adet B1 (orta) seviyesindeki öğrenci ile pilot çalışma gerçekleştirilmiştir. Esas çalışma ise 2020-2021 akademik yılının güz döneminde, üniversitenin resmi uzaktan eğitim platformu üzerinde A2 (orta öncesi) seviyesindeki 60 öğrenciyle yürütülmüştür. Bunların 30'u deney grubunda, diğer 30'u ise kontrol grubunda yer almışlardır. Deneyden önce her iki gruba da kırk beş dakika süren ön test verilmiştir. Deney grubunun uygulama süreci, bağlamsal tahmin çalışması üzerine beş haftalık bir strateji eğitimi ile öğrencilerin bağlam yoluyla 45 hedef kelime öğrendikleri haftalık dört oturumdan oluşmuştur. Kontrol grubunun uygulama sürecinde ise strateji eğitimi yer almamıştır. Bu süreçte öğrenciler haftalık oturumlarda aynı hedef kelimeleri sayfa kenarında bulunan sözlükçedeki İngilizce tanımlar ve iki dilli sözlükler yardımıyla öğrenmişlerdir. Uygulama süreci tamamlandıktan sonra, ilerlemelerini ölçmek için tüm katılımcılara son test uygulanmıştır. Son olarak, son testten üç hafta sonra, öğrenme kalıcılığını ölçmek için geciktirilmiş son test verilmiştir. Genel sonuçlar, her iki grubun da hedef kelime bilgisini arttırdığını, ancak deney grubunun hem son test hem de

geciktirilmiş son testte kontrol grubuna göre anlamlı derecede daha fazla ilerleme kaydettiğini göstermiştir. Bu sonuçlara göre, bağlamsal kelime öğretimi yoluyla eğitim alan deney grubu, hedef kelimeleri hem öğrenme hem de akılda tutma konusunda daha başarılı olmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Bağlamsal kelime öğretimi, bağlamsal tahmin çalışması, tanıma dayalı kelime öğretimi, sözlükçeler, hazırlık sınıfı üniversite öğrencileri.



ABSTRACT

COMPARING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CONTEXTUALIZED AND DEFINITION-BASED VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION ON RECEPTIVE VOCABULARY LEARNING AND RETENTION SKILLS OF PREPARATORY CLASS UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

In a foreign or second language-learning context, the significance of vocabulary cannot be underestimated. Vocabulary is central to language learning and having lexical competence is quite indispensable to EFL learners wishing to acquire proficiency in the target language. In order to expand learners' vocabulary knowledge and improve their retention, there exist various teaching methods, and recently in foreign language education, there has been an increasing focus on two distinct ways of presenting vocabulary: contextualized and definition-based.

The main aim of this quasi-experimental study is to investigate whether there is a significant difference between the effectiveness of contextualized and definition-based vocabulary instruction. Accordingly, the main scope of the study is based on finding out the effects of these two instructional methods on receptive vocabulary learning and retention skills of university students studying in the preparatory class at a state university in the western part of Turkey. In this study, the quantitative data were collected through a vocabulary achievement test, which was used as a pre-, post- and delayed post-test. The pilot study was conducted with 110 B1 (intermediate) level students to calculate the validity and reliability of the vocabulary achievement test. The main study was conducted with 60 A2 (pre-intermediate) level EFL learners on the official distance education platform of the university during the fall semester of 2020-2021 academic year. 30 of the participants were in the experimental group, and the other 30 students were in the control group. Prior to the experiment, both groups were given the pre-test, which lasted forty-five minutes. The implementation procedure for the experimental group included a five-week strategy training program on contextual guesswork and it also included four weekly sessions during which students learned 45 target words through context. The implementation procedure for the control group included no training. It only included four weekly sessions during which students learned the same target words through monolingual definitions given in the marginal glosses and also bilingual dictionaries. After the instruction procedure was

completed, the post-test was given to the all participants in order to measure their progress. Finally, three weeks after the post-test, the delayed post-test was administered in order to measure retention. The overall results indicated that although both groups increased their knowledge of the target words, the experimental group had a significantly better performance than the control group on both the post-test and delayed post-test. According to these results, the experimental group, which received contextualized vocabulary instruction, was more successful in both learning and retaining the target vocabulary items.

Keywords: Contextualized vocabulary instruction, contextual guesswork, definition-based vocabulary instruction, glosses, preparatory class university students.



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This part of the study provides the ground for the research and includes the problem statement, the purpose and the research questions that form the backbone of the study and their significance for foreign language teaching. The limitations of the study and the definitions of terms are also explained in this part.

In a foreign or second language learning context, the significance of vocabulary cannot be underestimated. Despite the neglect of vocabulary in language learning and teaching until 1980s, the key role of vocabulary knowledge has been realized by many researchers, linguists and theorists who have become aware that getting proficient at a language requires knowing its vocabulary (Allen, 1983; Coady & Huckin, 1997; Lewis, 1993; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2010). Learning vocabulary is a burden for most foreign language learners and they need to acquire a great deal of vocabulary in order to communicate effectively (Zimmermann, 2009).

When the significance of learning vocabulary is taken into consideration, the role of how vocabulary is taught cannot be skipped. In order to alleviate the burden of learners regarding vocabulary learning, teachers should address the unique needs and different learning styles of students (Blachowicz, Fisher & Watts-Taffe, 2005). In this sense, as Blachowicz et al. (2005) state, teachers should diversify their vocabulary instruction with various types of methods, techniques and practices. Moreover, Hulstijn (1993, as cited in Morin & Goebel, 2001) suggests that vocabulary instruction should not only incorporate teaching certain words but also focus on enabling learners to use essential strategies that can ease their vocabulary learning. For all these reasons, the importance of vocabulary knowledge in second language acquisition has long been debated, and effective vocabulary teaching has been subject to a large number of research studies that have been carried out so far (Clark & Paivio, 1991; Coady, Magoto, Hubbard, Graney & Mokhtari, 1993; Nation, 1990; Schmitt, 2000; Wallace, 1982).

In spite of the large body of research, there is still a gap in how vocabulary is acquired effectively by second language learners. When literature is scanned thoroughly, it can be noticed that the way vocabulary is taught has a crucial impact on vocabulary acquisition (Sökmen, 1997). However, there seems to be no prevailing consensus among researchers about which methods to use in order to give effective vocabulary instruction.

Considering this lack in vocabulary learning and teaching, this present study aims to investigate the effectiveness of two different ways of teaching vocabulary: contextualized and definition-based. The effects of these two instruction types on receptive vocabulary learning and retention skills of preparatory class university students will be explored and compared.

1.1. The Statement of the Problem

The key role of vocabulary knowledge in gaining competence in L2 learning can be explained with Harmer's (1994) words: "If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh" (p. 153). In accordance with these words, Krashen (1989) views inadequate vocabulary knowledge as the major handicap to transferring meaning, and therefore considers vocabulary as the principal source of the mastery of four skills. Moreover, Hunt and Beglar (2002) claim that language proficiency is based upon vocabulary knowledge, so it earns learners fundamental skills to produce the language and be competent in all four skills. Despite this significance of vocabulary knowledge for foreign language learners, it is necessary to notice that until 1980s, vocabulary was neglected in language learning and teaching, and there was limited research on vocabulary instruction and acquisition (Meara, 1980).

Both instructors and learners may hold some metacognitive attitudes towards teaching and learning of vocabulary (Coady, 1997). For instance, nearly all methodological approaches make both learners and instructors presume that reading is a skill which is automatically transferred from L1. As a consequence, many teachers come to the conclusion that vocabulary learning will take care of itself as lexical items can be learned naturally through reading and do not need to be instructed. Moreover, whereas learners generally feel that words are very significant, and thus they are willing to learn them, teachers are inclined to think that words are easy to learn while grammar is the real challenge (Coady, 1997). Accordingly, as suggested by Sökmen (1997), most second language learners are aware of the key role of vocabulary knowledge in language learning process, but they usually groan about the challenges of acquiring new lexical items. In line with this view, Gairns and Redman (1986) state that in the very early periods of learning, most students recognize the value of basic knowledge of lexis; however, when this basic level of lexical knowledge has been gained, their interests shift to grammar that is less "context-specific" than vocabulary knowledge (p. 55). This issue is addressed by Sökmen (1997), who recommends various techniques for giving proper vocabulary instruction in the classroom. These techniques can be exemplified as raising awareness of vocabulary learning strategies, associating prior

vocabulary knowledge with the current one, designing experiential vocabulary activities, improving learners' long-term retention skills, applying to different methods, and making it easy for learners to utilize independent strategies. As can be understood from these views, how vocabulary is presented is an important aspect of vocabulary learning (Sökmen, 1997).

Vocabulary instruction does not simply mean providing learners with a list of lexical items to memorize or only teaching the basic meaning of a word. There are many aspects pertaining to word knowledge. According to G. Ellis and Sinclair (1989), knowing a word means: a) identifying the written and spoken form of a word, b) remembering it when it is necessary, c) knowing the correct pronunciation and spelling of it, d) using it in a grammatically and semantically correct way, e) knowing its collocations and connotations, and f) knowing when to use it. When viewed from this perspective, there exist various activities for proper vocabulary instruction, which involve visual and verbal techniques such as teaching vocabulary through realia and pictures, using mime or gestures, providing definitions, illustrative examples, synonyms and antonyms, and teaching lexical sets and collocations (Gairns & Redman, 1986).

As stated before, in order to expand learners' vocabulary knowledge and improve their retention, there are various teaching methods, and recently in foreign language education, there has been an increasing focus on two distinct ways of presenting vocabulary: contextualized and decontextualized. In vocabulary instruction, the difference between contextualized and decontextualized ways of introducing new words is generally associated with the terms "intentional" and "incidental" learning, which are used interchangeably with "explicit" and "implicit" (Sökmen, 1997) and "direct" and "indirect" learning (Nation, 1982). Nation (1980) explains the distinction between these terms with the following words:

In direct vocabulary learning, a conscious effort is made to learn vocabulary either in context or in isolation, for example, by learning lists of word forms and their meanings, by doing vocabulary learning exercises, or by studying affixes and roots. In indirect vocabulary learning, new words are learned incidentally while reading or listening, usually as the result of information provided by the context. (p. 15)

Whether learners should be taught the meanings of unknown words directly or in context seems to be a heated debate among researchers and instructors. There are contrasting views on the effectiveness of using context while presenting new lexical items. There is a large body of research proving that contextual inferencing through indirect learning is a supporting factor in learners' vocabulary development (Day, Omura & Hiramatsu, 1991; Horst, Cobb & Meara, 1998; Pitts, White & Krashen, 1989). However, there are also other studies showing that guessing unknown words by using context clues is not such an effective

way of learning vocabulary (Choi, Kim & Ryu, 2014; Lawson & Hogben, 1996; Prince, 1996; Webb, 2007). In this sense, there is still a gap in literature about how to give effective vocabulary instruction.

1.2.The Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this quasi-experimental study is to investigate whether there is a significant difference between the effectiveness of contextualized and definition-based vocabulary instruction. In this sense, the main scope of the study is based on finding out the effects of these two instructional methods on receptive vocabulary learning and retention skills of university students studying at preparatory class in a state university in the western part of Turkey.

1.3. The Significance of the Study

Teaching and learning vocabulary are mutually challenging processes, and both EFL instructors and learners have concerns over vocabulary (Nation & Meara, 2010). Most learners are aware that they need a good deal of vocabulary to improve their second language proficiency; however, they are puzzled with questions starting with “how”. (Meara, 1980; Sökmen, 1997). For instance, they generally ask themselves or their teachers how new words can be learned better and more easily, and another question is how to retain them better. As for teachers, they are also faced with the challenge of choosing the best way to present vocabulary so that their instruction can lead to better learning and retention. In this sense, how to teach vocabulary is a central concern in foreign language instruction (Sökmen, 1997).

Lindsay and Knight (2006) state since the language is a complex system, learners need their teachers to guide them through it. They further suggest that learners need to be taught what a lexical item means, what forms it can take and how to use it. In order to help their learners in this process, teachers need to choose the most proper and relevant materials and activities. Moreover, they should provide their learners with the opportunity to input and use language, and to modify their conceptions until they become able to remember, retain and use it automatically (Lindsay & Knight, 2006).

According to Scrivener (1994), acquisition of a great deal of vocabulary is quite challenging and our memory may not permit that. Even when it permits and we recall the words, we may not use them appropriately in sentences. Scrivener (1994) believes that learners cannot solve this problem if they resort to looking up in dictionaries for definitions or asking for examples and explanations from the teacher since such a way of dealing with words is unlikely to promote long-term retention. Henceforth, he further suggests that

language teachers need to find other systematic methods of helping their learners to learn and retain vocabulary.

The aforementioned reasons show us that teaching and learning vocabulary are challenging processes, and there are different methods of instruction affecting learners' achievement. This present study focuses on contextualized and definition-based ways of introducing new lexical items. The former way requires the teacher to present target vocabulary items in context and expect learners to guess their meanings whereas the latter requires the teacher to give the definitions of unknown words directly and in isolation. While contextual guessing of words requires more mental effort, direct instruction of words in isolation makes learners focus on the word itself and pay no attention to the context, which lowers their cognitive load (Hulstijn, 1992).

Many international studies have been conducted so far in order to compare the effectiveness of contextualized and definition-based vocabulary teaching methods (Amirian & Momeni, 2012; Hulstijn, 1992; Mondria, 2003; Nash & Snowling, 2006; Nist & Olejnik, 1995; Perin, 2011; Samiyan & Khorasani, 2014; Shokouhi & Askari, 2010). However, effective vocabulary instruction is still an important issue for language teachers, and it also holds great importance for EFL learners who often end up having "impoverished lexicons despite years of formal study" (Hunt & Beglar, 2005, p. 259). Furthermore, though many studies about contextualized and decontextualized vocabulary teaching have been carried out on global level, few studies have been conducted in Turkey so far (Aksoy, 2006; Çiftçi & Üster, 2009; Hamzadayı & Bayat, 2015). All these facts indicate the necessity of carrying out more research studies. In this regard, this present study, which compares two opposing ways of teaching vocabulary, is an attempt to compensate for this gap in vocabulary research.

All in all, the current study is supposed to highlight two conflicting methods of vocabulary instruction, and it may shed light on the way of instructors, curriculum designers and coursebook writers.

1.4. Research Questions

In the scope of this study, the following research questions were formulated by the researcher:

1. Is there a significant difference between the receptive vocabulary learning performance of the experimental group, which received contextualized instruction and the control group, which received definition-based instruction?

2. Is there a significant difference between the vocabulary retention of the experimental group, which received contextualized instruction and the control group, which received definition-based instruction?

1.5. Limitations of the Study

The present study, which aims to compare the effectiveness of contextualized and definition-based instruction on receptive vocabulary learning and retention, has some important limitations:

1. The first limitation is that this study was carried out online due to the COVID-19 pandemic although it was originally planned to be conducted through face-to-face education.

2. The second limitation is the sample used in the research process. A limited number of students from a single university participated in this study, so the research is limited to 60 A2 (pre-intermediate) level EFL learners.

3. Another limitation of the study is that learner achievement and retention were assessed by only one vocabulary achievement test, which was used as a pre, post and delayed post-test. Therefore, the results of the study are limited by the scores of one data collection tool.

4. The fourth limitation is that the vocabulary achievement test assessed learners' receptive vocabulary skills. That is to say, only word recognition was measured.

5. One other limitation of the study was the educational backgrounds of the participants. Although students had the same level of proficiency, which was defined at the beginning of the semester by the placement test, there were some differences in their educational backgrounds in terms of language learning experiences.

6. The last limitation of the study was the limited time available for the research process. Delayed post-tests were given to participants three weeks after the post-tests. Therefore, only short-term retention was assessed and this may have affected the outcomes of the study.

1.6. Definition of Terms

English as a Foreign Language (EFL): EFL refers to teaching of English to people whose mother tongue is not English. For example, English is considered as a foreign language in Turkey, China, France, Japan etc. (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992).

English as a Second Language (ESL): ESL refers to the dominant use of English in a country where it is not the native language but it is widely used in education, business,

government, industry etc. English is considered as a second language in countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, Nigeria, Fiji etc. (Richards et al., 1992).

Contextual Guesswork: Contextual guesswork is a strategy, which refers to exploiting the context in which the unfamiliar word appears to infer its meaning, or sometimes to guess its meaning from the unfamiliar word itself (Gairns & Redman, 1986).

Contextualized Vocabulary Instruction: Contextualized vocabulary instruction means providing learners with a context, which can enable learners to acquire a great deal of vocabulary other than receiving any direct instruction (Nagy, 1997).

Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction: In definition-based vocabulary instruction, learners are provided with definitional information, which can be defined as “knowledge of the logical relations between a word and other known words, as in a dictionary definition” (Stahl, 1986, p. 663).

Productive Vocabulary: Productive vocabulary knowledge is about knowing a word so as to use it while speaking or writing (Crow, 1986).

Receptive Vocabulary: Receptive vocabulary knowledge is about knowing a word so as to recognize it while reading or listening (Crow, 1986).

Vocabulary Retention: Vocabulary retention refers to being able to remember words after a period of time has passed (Richards et al., 1992).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This review of literature provides the theoretical framework of the study by analyzing related research studies and focusing on theories and concepts that are related to the following topics: the place of vocabulary in language teaching, vocabulary knowledge, vocabulary learning and acquisition, incidental and intentional vocabulary learning, vocabulary instruction, vocabulary learning strategies and contextualized vs. decontextualized ways of teaching vocabulary.

2.1. The Importance of Vocabulary in Language Teaching

Vocabulary is central to language learning and having lexical competence is indispensable for EFL learners wishing to acquire proficiency in the target language (Nation, 2001). Word power enhances both productive and receptive skills of the learner, and as Nation (2001) expresses, “vocabulary learning is not a goal in itself; it is done to help learners listen, speak, read or write more effectively” (p. 582). Moreover, Schmitt (2010) emphasizes this crucial role of vocabulary for language learners by stating that “learners carry around dictionaries and not grammar books” (p. 4). This view of Schmitt (2010) is supported by Wilkins (1972), who says that “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (p. 111).

The significant role of vocabulary knowledge has been recognized by many researchers, linguists and theorists (Allen, 1983; Coady & Huckin, 1997; Lewis, 1993; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2010). According to Krashen (1989), much importance should be given to vocabulary for various reasons. First of all, vocabulary indicates learners’ language ability and secondly, a language learner is required to know plenty of words so as to be competent in a foreign language. However, Meara (1980) suggests that vocabulary acquisition is the source of most learners’ problems that they face in language learning. Accordingly, they experience many difficulties in both receptive and productive use of the target language due to insufficient vocabulary knowledge (Laufer, 1986; Meara, 1996; Nation, 1990). In many EFL or ESL classes, even if teachers spare a lot of time for vocabulary instruction, the consequences have been undesired and disappointing (Allen, 1983). In this regard, all these problems account for the present concern with vocabulary learning and acquisition in foreign language education.

Despite the key role of vocabulary in language learning, programs preparing language instructors paid little attention to vocabulary instruction until the end of the 1970s

(Allen, 1983). Accordingly, some books included claims that learners could learn vocabulary by themselves without the help of teachers. In those books and some articles, while grammar and pronunciation were emphasized, vocabulary was rarely mentioned. In brief, vocabulary was neglected for a long period in the twentieth century (Allen, 1983). There are a few reasons behind this neglect of vocabulary, and these reasons are summarized by Allen (1983). First of all, many teacher trainers thought that much more emphasis should be put on grammar than vocabulary because vocabulary had already been given too much time and importance in L2 education before. Secondly, methodology experts were afraid that learners would construct wrong sentences if they learned too many words before the mastery of basic grammar. As a result, teachers felt that it was better not to give much vocabulary instruction. Moreover, most instructors assumed that the meanings of lexical items could not be taught adequately in the classroom as they could be learned merely through experience. Consequently, vocabulary teaching techniques were paid little attention for a long period in the twentieth century (Allen, 1983).

As for the present emphasis on vocabulary, there is a growing concern with this area today. This is because of recent research studies, which have shown that lexical problems often have negative effects on interaction as communication falls through when accurate words are not used by the speakers (Allen, 1983). Accordingly, our competence in a foreign language is highly related to our vocabulary knowledge (Nation, 2001), and the more words we know, the better we can convey our thoughts and communicate with others (Allen, 1983).

2.2. Vocabulary Knowledge

Vocabulary knowledge is thought to be composed of “isolated, memorized information about the meanings of specific words” (Nagy, 2005, p. 29). However, this assumption seems clearly insufficient as “words are not isolated units of the language, but fit into many interlocking systems and levels” (Nation, 2001, p. 36). Vocabulary knowledge is defined by Jiang (2000) as “the knowledge or information an L2 learner remembers about the form, meaning, grammatical usage, and sociolinguistic use of a word that is stored in a general memory system, rather than integrated into the lexical entry of a word” (p. 65). It is clear that vocabulary knowledge incorporates a complex of factors and its syntactic, semantic, stylistic and collocational features should be also taken into consideration (Carter, 2012).

When literature is reviewed thoroughly, it can be seen that vocabulary knowledge is beyond its dictionary definition, and different categories and degrees of it have been

conceived so far. As a consequence, there exist various kinds of interpretations depending upon what is aimed with having lexical knowledge (Beck & McKeown, 1985).

A detailed description of word knowledge was made by Carter (2012) according to whom vocabulary knowledge of a second or foreign language means:

1. knowing the productive use of a word and being able to recall and use it actively, even though receptive knowledge is required in some cases and some users have only passive knowledge of some words,
2. knowing the possibility of coming across the word in various contexts such as spoken or written or in both,
3. having knowledge of a word's syntactic frames, its basic forms and derivations,
4. knowing other lexical items that the word is related to in both L1 and L2,
5. identifying the word's coreness and also its levels of style and functions in terms of pragmatics and discourse,
6. knowing the word's distinct meanings and the variety of its collocational patterns,
7. knowing the fixed expressions in which the words appear partly or wholly and that need to be memorized to use conveniently in suitable occasions.

Carter (2012) also emphasizes that lexis should be taught so that learners can comprehend and produce lexical items. He further states that while comprehension depends on strategies helping learners understand vocabulary and store them in memory, production depends upon strategies helping learners activate their lexical store, bring back lexical items from memory and use them in suitable contexts.

Another detailed definition is by Richards (1976) whose comprehensive account of vocabulary knowledge shows that he focuses on syntactic, semantic and pragmatic functions of lexical items. According to Richards (1976), there are eight premises regarding the nature of lexical competence and they are summarized below:

1. Lexical knowledge of native speakers does not stop increasing during adulthood while their syntactic knowledge develops little in the same period.
2. Knowing a word means being aware that we are likely to come across that word in spoken or written language, and for many lexical items, we also know what kinds of words are associated with them.
3. Knowing a lexical item means knowing its functional and situational constraints.
4. Knowing a word necessitates understanding its syntactic features.
5. Knowing a word requires knowledge of its basic forms and derivations.
6. Knowing a word means noticing its interrelations with other words in language.

7. Knowing a word pertains to knowing its semantic value.
8. Knowing a word means knowing lots of its various meanings.

As can be understood from the explanations above, the features of vocabulary knowledge have been specified in detail by Carter (2012) and Richards (1976). In the light of these comprehensive accounts, in this present study, the concept of lexical knowledge refers to knowing the meaning of a word passively and knowing its written form (spelling).

2.2.1. Receptive vs. Productive Vocabulary Knowledge

A large body of research has contributed to the literature considering the distinction between receptive and productive vocabulary (Griffin & Harley, 1996; Schuyten, 1906, as cited in Nation, 2001; Stoddard, 1929; Waring, 1997, as cited in Nation, 2001). Whereas receptive vocabulary knowledge is about knowing a word in order to recognize it while reading or listening, productive vocabulary knowledge is about knowing a word so as to use it while speaking or writing (Crow, 1986). In other words, receptive vocabulary is acquired through the language input received from others while listening and reading. On the other hand, productive vocabulary is acquired through the language output while conveying a message through speaking and writing (Nation, 2001).

Nation (2001) outlines what is involved in knowing a word by dividing word knowledge into two as receptive and productive, and focuses on distinctive questions regarding them as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

What is involved in knowing a word (Nation, 2001)

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

R= receptive; P= productive

Note. From "Learning Vocabulary In Another Language" by Nation, I.S.P., 2001, p. 40.

Nation (2001) identifies the particular features of receptive vocabulary knowledge that are summarized below:

- recognizing a given lexical item's sound,
- relating word parts to word's meaning,
- perceiving vocabulary items in a variety of specific contexts,
- knowing other lexical items which are semantically related to a given word,
- knowing the grammatical structures in which the word can be seen,
- knowing words with which a given vocabulary item is collocated,
- knowing the place, time and frequency of a word in conversation or reading.

On the other hand, Nation (2001) explains the particular aspects of productive vocabulary knowledge, which are outlined below:

- forming a lexical item using the correct word parts,
- expressing the correct structure and meaning of a word,
- producing words that have the opposite or the same meaning as a lexical item,
- using the word accurately in a new sentence,
- generating the words with which a given vocabulary item is collocated,
- knowing how to use a lexical item in context.

The abovementioned aspects reveal that if a specific word is in somebody's receptive vocabulary, we tend to make a generalization including many features of knowledge and use, and we combine listening and reading skills (Nation, 2001). In general, receptive learning and use is seemingly easier than productive one as the latter requires "extra learning of new spoken or written output patterns" (Nation, 2001, p. 42). Moreover, normally in language learning, receptive use of vocabulary is usually practiced more than productive one. For example, activities that require production such as creating a piece of writing are less frequently used than such receptive activities as dictionary use, synonym or definition matching or inferring unknown words from context (Webb, 2005).

As for experimental comparisons of receptive and productive vocabulary, two test items have been used to measure them. While a recognition item is generally used to measure receptive knowledge, a recall item is used for measuring productive knowledge (Nation, 2001). One of the earliest studies comparing receptive and productive learning was conducted by Schuyten (1906, as cited in Nation, 2001) with Belgian pupils whose mother tongue was Dutch. The pupils were learning French, German and English. Schuyten (1906, as cited in Nation, 2001) carried out three experimental studies, which were composed of

two parts making use of a different set of target words. The results showed that receptive retention was considerably higher than productive retention. Schuyten (1906, as cited in Nation, 2001) also found that receptive learning brought about a remarkable amount of productive knowledge, and productive knowledge yielded a considerable amount of receptive knowledge.

Another early study to compare receptive and productive knowledge was carried out by Stoddard (1929). In Stoddard's study (1929), half of the 328 subjects were taught 50 French-English word pairs and the other half were taught the same items as English-French word pairs. The former type of learning was receptive while the latter type was productive. Both groups had the same recall test, and half of the items were tested receptively while the other half was tested productively. The results of the study showed that the score for the receptive test was significantly higher than the one for the productive test. Moreover, the students that learned receptively scored better on the receptive test than those who learned productively while the ones who learned productively scored higher on the productive test than those who learned receptively.

More recently, Griffin and Harley (1996) carried out a study similar to the one conducted by Stoddard (1929). The subjects of their research were high school students in their first year of learning French. There were two groups and half of the students were taught French words with their English translation (receptive vocabulary learning), and the other half were taught English words with their French translation (productive vocabulary learning). Half of the students of each group were tested receptively and the other half productively. The students were immediately tested once and they were tested in a delayed way three times. The results showed that receptive learning produced a considerable amount of productive knowledge, and productive learning produced a considerable amount of receptive knowledge. The same results had also been obtained in Schuyten's study (1906, as cited in Nation, 2001). Moreover, it was indicated that if the learning and test type were the same (for example receptive learning and receptive test), this situation showed better results than the reverse condition. The study also showed that the overall results on the receptive tests were significantly higher than the ones on productive tests.

In line with the studies of Stoddard (1929), and Griffin and Harley (1996), Waring (1997, as cited in Nation, 2001) also conducted a study comparing receptive and productive vocabulary learning. In Waring's study (1997, as cited in Nation, 2001); the same subjects who were 70 Japanese EFL learners at a private university in Japan were tested on the same items. They were tested first receptively and then productively. The students' knowledge of

the items was tested on the same day, the following day, one week after and three months later. Waring's study (1997, as cited in Nation, 2001) yielded results which were very similar to those obtained from Stoddard's study (1929). By this way, with his research, Waring (1997, as cited in Nation, 2001) confirmed all conclusions drawn by Stoddard (1929). Waring (1997, as cited in Nation, 2001) also found that the receptive learning process is faster than the productive learning process.

As can be seen, several studies have been conducted to compare receptive and productive knowledge. It can be understood from the aforementioned studies that receptive learning is easier than productive learning and learners need to put more effort into learning vocabulary for productive skills (speaking and writing) than for receptive skills (listening and reading). Moreover, learners' ability to learn vocabulary and their learning purposes may differ greatly. Hence, it is worth measuring the receptive and productive learning of learners and training them accordingly (Nation, 2001).

2.3. Vocabulary Learning and Acquisition

What does learning a new word mean? This question is answered by N.C. Ellis (1997) by suggesting that a lexical item must be at least recognized as a word and it should become a part of "our mental lexicon" (p. 123). According to N.C. Ellis (1997), acquisition of a target word involves learning its syntactic, semantic and referential features, and identifying its role in the lexical structure and our conceptual system. Moreover, as Schmitt (2000) suggests, vocabulary acquisition is incremental in nature. In other words, full mastery of a word is characterized by several features of word knowledge, not all of which can be fully learned at the same time. Some features are acquired before others. For example, while a word's basic meaning may be known by a learner, its collocation may not be known (Schmitt, 2000).

The incremental nature of vocabulary learning and acquisition is described by Henriksen (1999), who divides vocabulary learning into three aspects. The first aspect varies from knowing words partially to knowing them precisely. The second aspect is about the depth of knowledge, which involves knowing a word's lexical features, and the third aspect is that words are first learned receptively and then learners gain the ability to use them productively. Another division which is similar to Henriksen's (1999) is made by Dale (1965) who outlines four stages in vocabulary learning. In the first stage, we may have never seen the word before. In the second stage, we might know that there is such a word, but we do not know what it means. In the third stage, we may recognize the word in its context, and

in the final stage, we know it well. In this regard, vocabulary learning is a gradual and slow process that comprises of aforementioned sub-steps.

2.3.1. Incidental vs. Intentional Vocabulary Learning

Incidental and intentional learning are two distinct approaches to vocabulary acquisition, and these two terms are generally associated with implicit and explicit learning respectively. While the former terms (incidental and intentional) are usually preferred in the area of vocabulary acquisition, the latter ones (implicit and explicit) are used in the field of psychology (Rieder, 2002). According to Rieder (2002), there is an unclear relation between these terms as shown in Figure 1, and she further suggests that “the fact that learning occurs as a by-product of reading does not automatically imply that it does not involve any conscious processes” (p. 26).

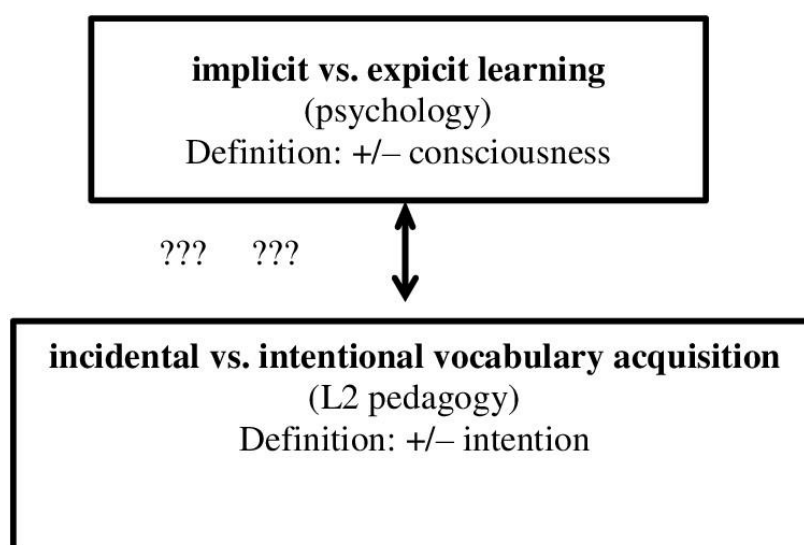


Figure 1. Unclear relation between implicit/explicit and incidental/intentional learning (Rieder, 2002, p. 26)

Intentional vocabulary learning is defined by Hulstijn (2001) as “any activity aiming at committing lexical information to memory” (p. 271). In other words, intentional vocabulary learning means trying to acquire lexical items on purpose. The rationale behind intentional vocabulary learning is based upon Schmidt’s (1990) *Noticing Hypothesis*, according to which learners need to notice the grammatical and lexical items in order to learn them. However, this does not mean that incidental vocabulary learning process does not

involve and necessitate paying attention to lexical items. According to R. Ellis (1999), the differentiation between incidental and intentional learning can be explained with the terms “‘focal’ and ‘peripheral’ attention” (p. 35). As he further suggests, while intentional learning involves focal attention, which is paid to form or meaning consciously, incidental learning involves attention paid to meaning but it also requires peripheral attention, which is directed at form. Therefore, any type of learning, either intentional or incidental, can only occur with a certain amount of attention (Schmidt, 1994). Read (2004) focuses on both learning context and attention while making the distinction between incidental and intentional vocabulary learning. In this respect, whereas learners mainly attend to the overall message and meaning and also notice new lexical items while learning vocabulary incidentally, the principal aim in intentional learning is to acquire new vocabulary (Read, 2004).

As for incidental vocabulary learning, Hulstijn (2001) states that it is the learning of new words as an unintended but inevitable secondary result of any activity not directly involved in vocabulary learning. According to Barcroft (2004), the notion of incidental vocabulary learning is related to the acquisition of new vocabulary by means of context although the aim is not to learn lexical items. He further suggests that the acquisition of new words through extensive reading can be given as an example of learning vocabulary incidentally. It can be understood from these definitions that incidental vocabulary acquisition takes place through exposure to context even though learners’ main aim is not to learn new lexical items (Barcroft, 2004; Hulstijn, 2001).

Most scholars agree that if we exclude the certain amount of most frequent words which are learned at first, L2 vocabulary is primarily acquired incidentally (Huckin & Coady, 1999). Accordingly, many researchers agree that incidental vocabulary learning should be encouraged and integrated into L2 instruction (Horst et al., 1998; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000) and there are many studies supporting the use of incidental vocabulary learning in L2 classrooms (Brown, Waring & Donkaewbua, 2008; Horst et al., 1998; Knight, 1994).

In an early study, Knight (1994) investigated whether a significant amount of new vocabulary could be learned by intermediate EFL learners through reading short texts each of which included 450 words. The findings indicated that reading was an effective way of improving vocabulary as new lexical items could be acquired through incidental vocabulary learning. Similarly, Horst et al. (1998) carried out a study by providing 34 low intermediate learners with a simplified version of a novel including 21,232 words. During six sessions of

the study, students were asked to read the text aloud so that they were all exposed to the reading passage. At the end of the reading sessions, learners were tested with two vocabulary tests, a multiple-choice test and a word association test. In agreement with the study of Knight (1994), this study also proved the effectiveness of incidental vocabulary learning and it also indicated that if students are provided with longer texts, the improvement is even better.

In a different study, Brown et al., (2008) explored the effects of three input modes (reading, reading while listening and listening to stories) on incidental vocabulary learning. In this study, three sets of 28 words within four frequency bands were used and two test types were administered just after the reading and listening treatments, one week later and three months later. The results showed learners could learn new words incidentally in all 3 modes, and they are more likely to learn lexical items which occur more frequently in the passage.

In line with the results of the studies above, Huckin and Coady (1999) outline the benefits of incidental vocabulary learning:

- It is contextualized, giving the learner a rich sense of word use and meaning.
- It is pedagogically efficient in that it yields two activities at the same time: vocabulary acquisition and reading.
- It is more learner-based, in that it is the learner who selects the reading materials. (p. 182)

Despite the aforesaid advantages of incidental vocabulary learning, in certain conditions it may have some disadvantages and may lead to ineffective learning. For instance, it may be a time-consuming process as contextualized information is often vague for the learners, which leads to inaccurate inferencing (Huckin & Coady, 1999). Moreover, the quantity and type of vocabulary knowledge acquired through incidental learning depends on some factors such as the frequency of exposure to lexical items, the attentiveness of learners, the context in which the items are provided and task requirements (Huckin & Coady, 1999). Furthermore, for incidental vocabulary learning, learners need to have a certain amount of basic vocabulary as background schema (Huckin & Coady, 1999; Sökmen, 1997). In this regard, while using incidental vocabulary learning in L2 instruction, it might be necessary to take all of these factors into consideration so as to create an effective learning environment.

2.4. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

One approach, which facilitates vocabulary learning that has recently drawn increased attention, is *vocabulary learning strategies* (VLS). The growing increase in the

significance of strategy use in L2 acquisition is emphasized by Schmitt (1997) who suggests that this increase is due to an interest in learners' active participation in the learning process. Nation (2001) states that VLS are a subgroup of general language learning strategies, and according to Catalán (2003), these strategies are certain ways used by the learner a) to discover unfamiliar words' meanings, b) to store them in their memory for a long time, c) to remember them whenever they want, d) to integrate them into their spoken and written language.

Even though it is difficult to provide a clear definition for vocabulary learning strategies, Nation (2001) outlines some criteria for them. He states that first of all, the use of a strategy must involve choosing from a number of options. Secondly, a strategy needs to be complicated. That is to say, there should be a number of moves to learn. Thirdly, a strategy must necessitate knowledge and benefit from strategy instruction, and finally, it should lead to efficient vocabulary learning and use. According to Nation (2001), learners should set clear goals for themselves in vocabulary learning, and they should choose the lexical items that they must concentrate on regarding these goals. In line with this conception, Gu and Johnson (1996) state that setting clear goals is one of the qualities of successful learners, and they also claim that most successful learners use a variety of vocabulary learning strategies.

Regarding the issue of adopting appropriate vocabulary learning strategies, not only learners but also instructors are responsible (Cohen & Aphek, 1981). According to Cohen and Aphek (1981), there are some ways of guiding the learners so that they can choose suitable vocabulary learning strategies for themselves. First of all, while recommending these strategies to their students, teachers must consider the overall context of learning. Moreover, if they want these strategies to be effective, they need to consider such variables as the proficiency level, mother tongue and culture of learners, their motivation and goals for vocabulary learning etc. Among these variables, especially proficiency level is considered to be quite significant as a few studies have shown that word lists are better for beginners while contextualization is better for more advanced levels (Cohen & Aphek, 1981).

As for the classification of vocabulary learning strategies, there have been plenty of attempts to develop taxonomies as part of research into learners' strategy use (Cook & Mayer, 1983; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 1997). In the upcoming parts, the analysis of vocabulary learning strategies will be based on Schmitt's taxonomy (1997), which is a comprehensive and detailed classification that divides the strategies into two major titles as can be seen in Figure 2: *discovery* and *consolidation* strategies.

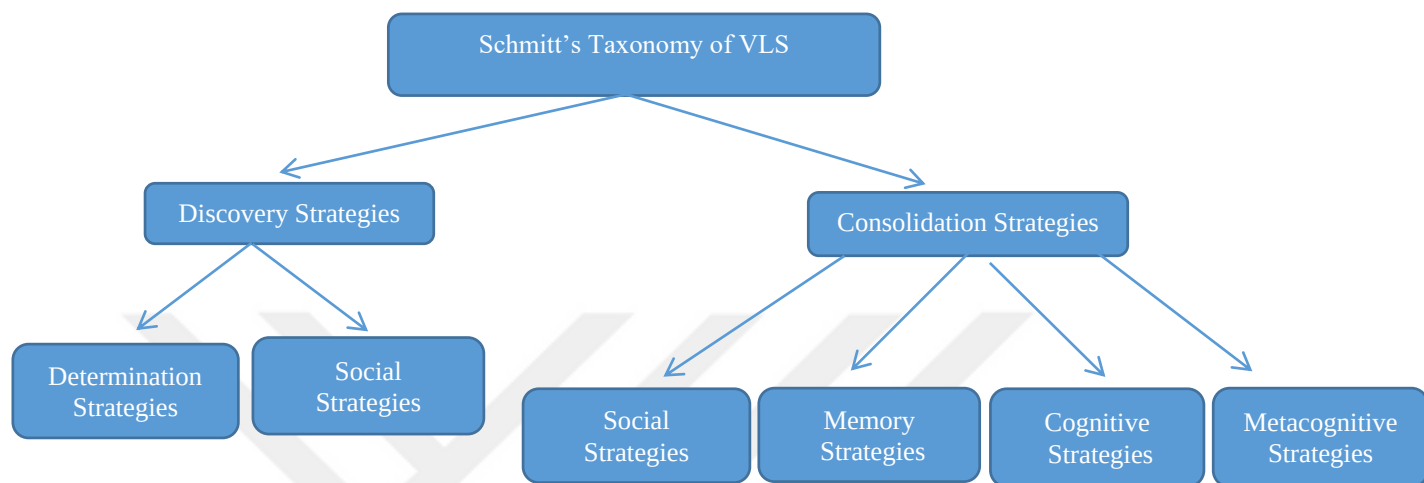


Figure 2. Schmitt's taxonomy (1997) of vocabulary learning strategies

Table 2

Classification of vocabulary learning strategies by Schmitt (1997)

Strategy group	VLS
<u>STRATEGIES FOR THE DISCOVERY OF A NEW WORD'S MEANING</u>	
DET	Analyse part of speech
DET	Analyse affixes and roots
DET	Check for L1 cognate
DET	Analyse any available pictures or gestures
DET	Guess meaning from textual context
DET	Bilingual dictionary
DET	Monolingual dictionary
DET	Word lists
DET	Flash cards
SOC	Ask teacher for an L1 translation
SOC	Ask teacher for paraphrase or synonym of new word
SOC	Ask teacher for a sentence including the new word
SOC	Ask classmates for meaning
SOC	Discover new meaning through group work activity
<u>STRATEGIES FOR CONSOLIDATING A WORD ONCE IT HAS BEEN ENCOUNTERED</u>	
SOC	Study and practice meaning in a group
SOC	Teacher checks students' flash cards or word lists for accuracy
SOC	Interact with native speakers
MEM	Study word with a pictorial representation of its meaning
MEM	Image word's meaning
MEM	Connect word to a personal experience
MEM	Associate the word with its coordinates
MEM	Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms
MEM	Use semantic maps
MEM	Use 'scales' for gradable adjectives
MEM	Peg Method
MEM	Loci Method
MEM	Group words together to study them
MEM	Group words together spatially on a page
MEM	Use new words in sentences
MEM	Group words together with a storyline
MEM	Study the spelling of a Word
MEM	Study the sound of a Word
MEM	Say new word aloud when studying
MEM	Image word form
MEM	Underline initial letter of the Word
MEM	Configuration
MEM	Use Keyword Method
MEM	Affixes and roots (remembering)
MEM	Part of speech (remembering)
MEM	Paraphrase the word's meaning
MEM	Use cognates in study
MEM	Learn the words of an idiom together
MEM	Use physical action when learning a word
MEM	Use semantic feature grids
COG	Verbal repetition
COG	Written repetition
COG	Word lists
COG	Flash cards
COG	Take notes in class
COG	Use the vocabulary section in your textbook
COG	Listen to tape of word lists
COG	Put English labels on physical objects
COG	Keep a vocabulary notebook
MET	Use English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.)
MET	Use spaced word practice (expanding rehearsal)
MET	Testing oneself with word tests
MET	Skip or pass new Word
MET	Continue to study word over time

Note. From "Vocabulary in Language Teaching" by Schmitt, N., 2001, p.134.

2.4.1. Discovery Strategies

Schmitt (1997) defines discovery strategies as procedures that learners use in order to figure out a word's meaning when they first come across it. These strategies are subdivided into two categories: determination strategies and social strategies.

2.4.1.1. Determination Strategies

If a word is not known by learners, its meaning must be found out by utilizing some determination strategies such as resorting to the knowledge of language structure, inferring from context or from an L1 cognate, getting help from reference sources or from somebody else (Schmitt, 1997). Determination strategies can help learners gain knowledge of a new lexical item especially when they guess its meaning by using their structural knowledge. In other words, if learners recognize the word's part of speech, word origins or affixes, this facilitates their guessing process (Schmitt, 1997). However, Clarke and Nation (1980) warn that guesses made by examining word parts may turn out to be mistaken, and thus they further suggest that it would be better to use this strategy as a way of verifying one's guesses from context. Among determination strategies, Schmitt (1997) emphasizes especially checking for L1 cognates, and he suggests that cognates can be an outstanding means of guessing the meaning of new lexical items and remembering them provided that learner's L1 and L2 are similar to each other.

2.4.1.2. Social Strategies

Social strategies are the actions taken by learners in order to discover the meaning of a new word and they involve interaction with other people (Schmitt, 2000). In this context, learners often try to discover a new meaning by asking their teachers or schoolmates. Teachers are quite often in the position to help learners by providing them with the L1 translation of the word, substituting it with a synonym, making a sentence with the new word, paraphrasing, or combining some of these ways (Schmitt, 1997).

2.4.2. Consolidation Strategies

Schmitt (2000) defines consolidation strategies as the ones, which help learners work out a lexical item's meaning and usage, and consolidate it in memory for later use. These strategies are subdivided into four categories: social strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies.

2.4.2.1. Social Strategies

Social strategies can be used by learners while working in a group to practice vocabulary (Schmitt, 1997). Dansereau (1988, as cited in Schmitt, 1997) casts light on some of the advantages of cooperative group learning. First of all, it fosters “active processing of information and cross modeling/imitation” (Dansereau, 1988, as cited in Schmitt, 1997, p. 211). Secondly, the social atmosphere promotes motivation of learners. Moreover, collaboration can help learners prepare for teamwork outside the classroom, and due to the absence of teacher intervention, learners have more opportunities for interacting with other students and making use of the language in the classroom. According to Kramsch (1979, as cited in Schmitt, 1997), another social strategy utilized by learners is consulting to teachers so that they can supervise learners’ work. This strategy; however, is not used very often as it requires the independent preparation of some materials such as flash cards and lists of words by learners themselves outside the classroom. Furthermore, the significance of another social strategy -interacting with native speakers- is highlighted by Schmitt (1997) who claims that it is an outstanding way of acquiring vocabulary.

2.4.2.2. Memory Strategies

Many of the memory strategies, which are conventionally called mnemonics, entail associating the lexical item with past knowledge and experience, “using some form of imagery, or grouping” (Schmitt, 1997, p. 211). That is to say, what we have experienced previously can be utilized to retain new words, “or images can be custom-made for retrieval (i.e. images of the word’s form or meaning attributes)” (Schmitt, 1997, p. 212). Moreover, grouping, which seems to be used by people naturally, is a significant way of remembering words. Focusing on the new lexical item's orthographic or phonological form is another strategy which enables learners to recall these items (Schmitt, 1997). Apart from these strategies, as Saltz and Donnenwerth-Nolan (1981) suggest, involving physical action in learning process aids remembering new words. According to Schmitt (2000), memory strategies are generally associated with the intricate type of complex mental processes that lead to long-term retention. Processing every new word deeply may be overwhelming and time-taking; however, it should definitely be tried for essential vocabulary items (Schmitt, 2000).

2.4.2.3. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies, which include written and verbal types of repetition and utilizing mechanical ways to practice vocabulary, are like memory strategies, but they do not

put special emphasis on manipulative and complex mental processing (Schmitt, 1997). According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), cognitive strategies are associated with more individualized activities and they involve altering or reconstructing learning tools and materials. Among cognitive strategies, flash cards and word lists can be used in the very early stages of acquisition though most students continue to utilize them in the later stages as well (Schmitt, 1997). According to Brown (1980, as cited in Schmitt, 1997), the key advantage of flash cards is that learners can carry them anywhere and study whenever they are free. Moreover, flash cards can help learners group the target words logically. Another type of cognitive strategy is using study aids, which include taking notes in class, exploiting vocabulary sections in coursebooks and keeping vocabulary notebooks (Schmitt, 1997). As can be understood from these activities, cognitive strategies are more individualized ways of learning vocabulary.

2.4.2.4. Metacognitive Strategies

The last type of strategies in Schmitt's taxonomy (1997) is metacognitive strategies, which learners use so as to monitor and assess their learning process. These strategies are focused on more efficient and conscious learning that require learners to decide on the most useful methods of studying (Schmitt, 1997). Metacognitive strategies involve scheduling and organizing one's own learning rather than doing things randomly. In this sense, these strategies require the learners to study in a planned way. One of the most widely used metacognitive strategies is utilizing L2 media sources such as books, magazines, songs, newscasts, movies etc. (Schmitt, 1997).

2.5. Strategy Training in Vocabulary

An extensive range of vocabulary can be learned through vocabulary learning strategies at all stages of vocabulary learning, and these strategies allow learners to take the responsibility of their learning, which eases the job of teachers (Nation, 2001). In accordance with this situation, Schmitt (2000) suggests that because most learners do utilize vocabulary learning strategies and they find them beneficial, strategy training must be incorporated into our classes. As Schmitt (2000) further states, research studies show that purposes for which learners do use strategies differ greatly and for this reason, strategy training needs to be integrated into vocabulary teaching process in a planned way. According to Nation (2001), this planning of strategy training involves some steps. First of all, the strategies to be emphasized should be determined. Secondly, the time allotted for strategy instruction should be specified. Thirdly, a syllabus which covers every single strategy and provides learners

with opportunities for independent practice should be prepared. Finally, learners should be supervised and provided with feedback.

During the strategy training process which takes several weeks, for every single strategy such as guessing unfamiliar words from context, using dictionary or analyzing word parts, not less than four or five hours must be spent (Nation, 2001). Though there are few research studies on how much time to spare for strategies, it is certainly not enough to leave much of the work to learners after showing and explaining a strategy to them. In this regard, the aim of each strategy needs to be understood by learners and all strategies should be practiced enough to get proficient in using them (Nation, 2001).

When related research studies are examined, it can be seen that there are several studies showing the advantages of strategy training in vocabulary instruction. For instance, Cohen and Aphek (1981) carried out a study in which 17 students of Hebrew had strategy training on remembering lexical items through mnemonic associations. The findings of the study showed that strategy training on making associations aided retention as the learners utilizing this strategy retained words better than the ones not employing it.

In another study, Jenkins, Matlock and Slocum (1989) measured the effects of individual word meanings and guessing unknown words' meanings from context on vocabulary achievement. The participants were 135 fifth-grade American students who were separated into two groups. While the first group underwent strategy training on using contextual clues to guess the meanings of unfamiliar words, the second group was only given the individual meanings of words. The findings revealed that the first group, which received strategy training, had a better performance on the post-test than the second group.

One other study exploring the effects of strategy training on vocabulary learning was carried out by Huang (2001) with 47 Taiwanese college students. It was an experimental study during which the treatment group had strategy instruction for one semester, while the control group received no training at all. The results demonstrated that the treatment group showed significant progress in their proficiency of English, motivation level, autonomy and strategy use. The group also showed a significant decrease in language learning anxiety.

Aktekin and Güven (2013) also conducted an experimental study with the aim of examining the effectiveness of strategy training in vocabulary learning. The study was carried out with 70 elementary level EFL learners who were assigned to experimental and control groups. The experimental group received instruction on vocabulary learning strategies through a 10-week period while the control group did not. The findings indicated that strategy training on vocabulary could help students learn and store more lexical items

and also it enabled learners to use vocabulary learning strategies in the long run. In a similar experimental study, Namaghi and Rajaei (2013) compared the effects of vocabulary strategy training and traditional way of teaching new words. The subjects of the study were 60 Iranian EFL learners who were assigned to experimental and control groups. While the experimental group had strategy training, the control group was taught vocabulary traditionally. The results indicated that the treatment group, which underwent strategy training, significantly outperformed the control group that learned new words through traditional activities in the coursebook.

Two other significant studies on strategy instruction were conducted by Lai (2013) and İlter (2019). Lai (2013) carried out her study in Taiwan and integrated explicit strategy training into an EFL curriculum so as to explore its effects on vocabulary acquisition. The participants of the study were 180 EFL learners who were given guidance on exploring and practising a broad range of vocabulary learning strategies through a semester. The results showed that strategy instruction in vocabulary could have positive effects on learning, as most of the participants reported more frequent use of a greater number of strategies. Moreover, the participants experienced changes in their vocabulary study habits after receiving the strategy training, and there was also a radical increase in the frequency of low level learners' strategy use. Similar to Lai (2013), İlter (2019) investigated the effectiveness of explicit strategy instruction regarding context clues on vocabulary knowledge. The subjects were 44 sixth-graders who were assigned to experimental and control groups. The experimental group was trained on contextual clues while the control group received no training and utilized a wide reading strategy. The results indicated that the experimental group showed more improvement in vocabulary learning.

As can be understood from the results of abovementioned studies, strategy training has been proved to be useful in vocabulary learning and acquisition. Moreover, it has been found that strategy training has positive effects not only on vocabulary learning but also on motivation, study habits, autonomy and anxiety (Huang, 2001; İlter, 2019).

2.6. Memory and Vocabulary Retention

Memory, which has a key role in language learning, can be divided into two basic types: short-term or working memory and long-term memory. While short-term memory is used to keep information in the formation process, long-term memory retains information for future use. Moreover, while short-term memory is fast and adaptive with a small storage capacity, long-term memory is relatively slow with a nearly unlimited storage capacity (Schmitt, 2000). What is targeted in vocabulary learning is to move lexical knowledge to the

long-term memory (which is more perennial) from the short-term memory, where it is kept while manipulating language (Schmitt, 2000). In other words, as Klatzky (1975) states, a lexical item is transferred from short-term memory (which can keep it for a certain amount of time if it is rehearsed) into the long-term memory where it is stored more permanently.

As mentioned before, vocabulary learning is incremental in nature and words are not acquired in a linear way (Henriksen, 1999; Schmitt, 2000). Therefore, language instructors should be aware that forgetting is a natural part of learning process. According to Schmitt (2000), we can even forget a relatively well-known word when we do not use a second or foreign language for a long time or when we stop the language study. This situation is called *attrition* and lexical knowledge tends to be affected by attrition more than other aspects of language such as phonetics or grammar. This can be seen normal because lexical knowledge comprises “individual units” instead of “a series of rules” (Schmitt, 2000, p. 130).

Being more subject to attrition, vocabulary knowledge is highly related to the term *retention*, which can be defined as “the ability to recall or remember things after an interval of time” (Richards et al., 1992, p. 457). In language teaching, retention of newly learned words or grammar topics may be dependent upon how they are taught, what learners are interested in, or how meaningful the materials are (Richards et al., 1992). As can be understood from its definition, vocabulary retention is affected by a number of factors. Schmitt (2008) lists the factors that lead to longer and better retention, which are rephrased below:

- increasing frequency and duration of exposure;
- paying more attention to the lexical item;
- noticing the lexical item more often;
- having increased motivation to acquire the lexical item;
- being obliged to learn the lexical item due to some sources of extrinsic motivation such as teachers, exams or curriculum;
- having personal reasons to learn or use the lexical item;
- spending more time on manipulating the lexical item;
- spending more time on engaging with the lexical item;
- increasing the interaction amount spent on the lexical item.

Among the aforesaid factors, the first factor seems to be of great importance. According to Nation (1990), in second or foreign language learning, a new word can be learned through five to sixteen exposures. In line with this view, Schmitt (2008) suggests that in order to grasp the initial link between form and meaning, we need to go through seven to ten exposures. According to Schmitt (2008), other significant factors affecting vocabulary retention are engagement and attention. The more attention we pay to a word, the more likely

that we are going to learn and remember it (Fraik & Lockhart, 1972). Moreover, when learners have a goal or motivation to learn the lexical items, they can retain them better (Schmitt, 2008). In brief, retention of vocabulary depends upon some important factors, and if each of these factors are taken into consideration, this may lead to increased processing and retention (Fraik & Lockhart, 1972).

2.7. Vocabulary Instruction

As mentioned earlier, the neglect of vocabulary instruction in the past decades and some other factors have paved the way for the present emphasis on vocabulary learning and teaching (Meara, 1980). Today, vocabulary is seen as the basis of linguistic competence, which enables us to get proficient in other skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing (Alemi & Tayebi, 2011). Similarly, Gass (1999) states that if we learn a second language, we are required to learn its vocabulary, suggesting that having the knowledge of lexical items means having the knowledge of some other linguistic items. In line with this view, Paribakht and Wesche (1999) suggest that acquisition of vocabulary is an incremental process involving the combination of different types of knowledge with the ability to exploit that knowledge in communication.

Recognizing this importance of vocabulary instruction in second language acquisition, Hunt and Beglar (2002) has made a classification of three approaches to vocabulary teaching: “1) Incidental vocabulary learning, 2) explicit instruction, 3) independent strategy development” (p. 256). According to Hunt and Beglar (2002), and Nagy, Herman and Anderson (1985), teachers should provide opportunities for incidental learning because in the long run most L2 words are mainly learned incidentally by reading and listening extensively. Schmitt (2008), on the other hand, claims that explicit instruction should be applied while teaching beginners, whereas incidental learning should be integrated into the curriculum as learners get more advanced. Furthermore, he suggests that learners should be taught how to use vocabulary learning strategies independently as it is not possible to teach all words explicitly. Therefore, explicit instruction and incidental learning should be combined in L2 vocabulary teaching, and they both should be incorporated into the curriculum. Schmitt (2008) further suggests that independent strategy development should be given importance, and accordingly, lexical inferencing and extensive reading strategies should be taught to learners so as to trigger their vocabulary learning.

Vocabulary teaching strategies, techniques and methods may vary from teacher to teacher or from class to class according to the goal of vocabulary instruction. When related literature is reviewed, it can be seen that how vocabulary should be taught is a controversial

and significant issue (Beck & McKeown, 1985). Given this significance of vocabulary teaching, it is necessary to examine the historical trends in vocabulary instruction and see how vocabulary is viewed, explored and taught throughout the history of second language acquisition.

2.7.1. Historical Background of Vocabulary Instruction

The Grammar-Translation Method was the leading methodology in vocabulary instruction at the end of the eighteenth century. Lessons generally involved a selection of reading, a test and long bilingual vocabulary lists, which prepared learners for the task of translating long classic texts (Zimmerman, 1997). Words were taught through these bilingual vocabulary lists, dictionary work and memorization (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). According to Rivers (1981), the vocabulary taught with the Grammar-Translation Method was primarily old-fashioned and literary, and definition and etymology were two core elements of the vocabulary instruction (Zimmermann, 1997). Moreover, it was during the period of this methodology that bilingual dictionaries became common (Kelly, 1969).

Although the Grammar-Translation Method dominated the nineteenth century and a part of the twentieth century in Europe and the United States, it had been challenged and received criticism for many years. Those criticisms were about the little attention given to realistic, oral language by the method and the neglect of the role of vocabulary in language instruction (Zimmermann, 1997). As Richards and Rodgers (2001) suggest, especially toward the mid-nineteenth century, the Grammar-Translation Method was questioned and rejected by linguists such as François Gouin, Thomas Prendergast and Claude Marcel. For instance, Thomas Prendergast challenged the old-fashioned vocabulary lists and he made an innovative one by ranking the most common English words.

In line with the objections to the Grammar-Translation Method, the Reform Movement was established under the leadership of such linguists as Henry Sweet, Wilhelm Vietor and Paul Passy (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Zimmerman, 1997). Thanks to these reformers who emphasized the spoken language and phonetic training, vocabulary instruction was reshaped as “words came to be associated with reality rather than with other words and syntactic patterns”, and more simple and useful vocabulary began to be taught (Zimmermann, 1997, p. 8).

After the Reform Movement, the Direct Method, also known as the Natural Method, was introduced toward the end of the nineteenth century by Lambert Sauveur and Maximilian Berlitz, who argued that foreign language teaching without translation was possible. The advocates of the Direct Method focused on the direct association between

forms and meanings in the target language. Moreover, the Direct Method emphasized that while “concrete vocabulary” should be taught through “demonstration, objects and pictures”, “abstract vocabulary” should be taught with the help of “association of ideas” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 12).

After the decline of the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method was developed in America during World War II. This method was based upon the theories of structural linguists such as Leonard Bloomfield and Charles Fries. Though it was similar to the Direct Method as being an oral-based approach, it differed greatly in its vocabulary teaching perspective. While the Direct Method based vocabulary instruction on exposure to situational use, the Audio-Lingual Method emphasized teaching of lexical items along with grammatical patterns through drills. In other words, vocabulary was limited and it was taught in context (Dinçay, 2010). As Larsen-Freeman (2000) suggested, lexical items were chosen regarding their simplicity and familiarity, and also limited number of words which were enough to conduct drills were introduced.

The decline of the Audio-Lingual method was triggered by the advent of Noam Chomsky’s classic book *Syntactic Structures* (1957, as cited in Zimmermann, 1997), which introduced the notion of mental grammar (Zimmermann, 1997). According to Chomsky (1969), language is based on a system of abstract rules that we know intuitively, and it is represented in our mental grammar, which accounts for our ability to produce grammatically accurate sentences. As can be understood from this concept, Chomsky’s view of competence dealt principally with abstract knowledge of grammar. As a reaction against Chomsky’s this type of linguistic competence, Dell Hymes introduced the notion of communicative competence which focused on sociolinguistic and pragmatic aspects of language (Bagarić, 2007). Along with the advent of this notion, the Communicative Approach was introduced to the language teaching world, and during this period, as more emphasis was put on communication, the significance of vocabulary was recognized more (Zimmermann, 1997). The aim of the Communicative Approach was to develop communicative competence, and according to Hymes (1971), what language learners need was a language theory that combines communication and culture in order to be communicatively competent in real life situations. In this regard, communication means more than linguistic competence and the Communicative Approach sees vocabulary as a means of enabling learners to communicate in real life language contexts.

Vocabulary instruction began to gain more and more importance with the introduction of the Lexical Approach by Michael Lewis in 1993. The Lexical Approach,

which sees vocabulary and lexical units as the core of learning and teaching, received interest with the publication of “*The Lexical Syllabus* (Willis, 1990, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001)”, “*Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching* (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001)”, and “*The Lexical Approach* (Lewis, 1993)” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 132). The writers of those books challenged the dichotomy between grammar and vocabulary by emphasizing the significance of lexis. For instance, in his book, Lewis (1993) states that “language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar” (p. 89). However, this statement should not be misunderstood since the Lexical Approach did not totally ignore grammar. Instead, it focused on more structural elements than that could be found in a grammatical syllabus (Lackman, 2010). Moreover, the Lexical Approach recognized the role of multiword chunks in language acquisition and communication, which considerably enhanced the status of lexis in second language learning and teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

As can be understood from this historical background, until recently the acquisition of vocabulary has been underestimated, and vocabulary instruction has not been a primary concern in L2 methodology although lexicon is the central element of language acquisition and use (Zimmermann, 1997).

2.8. Contextualized Vocabulary Instruction

Before touching upon the basics of contextualized vocabulary instruction, first it is necessary to define what *context* is. According to Nation and Coady (1988), “context can be viewed as morphological, syntactic, and discourse information in a given text which can be classified and described in terms of general features” (pp. 102-103). The context mentioned here involves the words, sentences or phrases within the text; however, the background knowledge of the reader about the topic of a given text can also be considered as context, namely the general context (Nation & Coady, 1988). Another definition of context is provided by Haastrup (1991) who states that context may include the sentence which contains the word, particular parts beyond the sentence, and unspecified parts of the whole text. Moreover, a distinction between verbal and non-verbal context has been made by Engelbart and Theuerkauf (1999). According to Engelbart and Theuerkauf (1999), verbal context involves grammatical and semantic contexts. While phonological, morphological and syntactic cues form the grammatical context, the semantic context is made up of synonyms, antonyms, cognates and collocations etc. Non-verbal context, on the other hand, contains the situative context that refers to time, location, speaker and matter surrounding the word; the descriptive context which explains the meaning of the unknown word to some extent; the

subject context which is learner's prior knowledge on the given topic; and the global context which is learner's knowledge of the world (Engelbart & Theuerkauf, 1999). As can be seen, there are various definitions and descriptions of context and in this present study context will be used to refer to any clues within the text and any background knowledge that learners have.

Given the importance of vocabulary learning and teaching in EFL instruction, alternative methods are utilized by language instructors to facilitate vocabulary development and improvement. One of these methods is contextualized vocabulary instruction, which means providing learners with a context that can enable them to acquire a great deal of vocabulary other than receiving any direct instruction (Nagy, 1997). Aksoy (2006) states that contextualized vocabulary instruction involves showing learners how to acquire new words in a text by using contextual aids, and their logic and reasoning skills. Aksoy (2006) further states that learners should also be encouraged to make use of their background knowledge along with their linguistic knowledge. Their previous encounters with the lexical item may also help them but they should not consult to any other sources such as dictionaries or teachers. Namely, it is a way of presenting vocabulary, which requires utilizing the context to work out the meanings of unfamiliar words without the help of any outside sources.

2.8.1. Guessing from Context

Once learners have a repertoire of two or three thousand words, they may become able to utilize their reading skills to guess the meanings of unknown words they encounter in various contexts. While some learners are able to do this without the help of any specific training, some need to be taught the strategy of guessing from context which will enable them to inference most of the lexical items they encounter (Nation, 1990). More clearly, contextual guesswork involves inferring the meaning of a target lexical item by interpreting its "immediate context-one or two words before or following the target word-" with or without consulting to world knowledge of the reader (Parel, 2004, p. 848). Haastrup (1989, as cited in Parel, 2004, p. 848) puts forward that "knowledge of the world includes factual knowledge and/or stereotypical knowledge based on attitudes, beliefs and prejudices". However, analysing the word morphologically involves focusing on the word's properties itself instead of looking at the surrounding context (Haastrup, 1989, as cited in Parel, 2004). Accordingly, Stoller and Grabe (1995) suggest that if learners get to know word origins and affixes, they may be able to guess the meanings of lots of unknown words. In this sense, some of the information given by the context is based on the linguistic structure of it, and its use may be dependent upon reader's knowledge of this structure (Nagy, 1997). According to

Nation (2001), when a lexical item is seen in a text, several things may happen to it. First of all, it may be guessed to some extent and learned partially. This situation can be seen in 5% to 10% of the words. Secondly, it may be guessed correctly but not learned, and this situation can be seen for most of the words. Thirdly, it may be guessed incorrectly or it may just be ignored by the learner. In this sense, how context is utilized is dependent on several factors.

The strategy of guessing from context is based upon a process during which learners make use of the contextual clues. According to Nation and Coady (1988), this strategy surmises two things. Firstly, it assumes that the learners who have adequate knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and reading to comprehend the text basically, can follow the textual ideas they are reading, and secondly, it surmises that the learners have some prior knowledge about the text. As Nation and Coady (1988) suggest, this strategy includes five steps:

1. Finding the part of speech of the unknown word.
2. Looking at the immediate context of the unknown word and simplifying this context if necessary.
3. Looking at the wider context of the unknown word. This means looking at the relationship between the clause containing the unknown word and surrounding clauses and sentences.
4. Guessing the meaning of the unknown word.
5. Checking that the guess is correct. (pp. 104-105)

When these steps are examined carefully, it can be seen that the first two steps are related to “the word itself and the pattern it fits into with the words close to it” (Nation & Coady, 1988, p. 105). In this sense, it can be said that the difficulty of the words or phrases surrounding the unfamiliar word may be influential on the quality of guessing. As for the third step, the relationships in context include “cause and effect, contrast, generalization-detail, exclusion (*on the contrary, instead*), explanation (*in other words, that is*), time (*before, subsequently, finally*) and arrangement (*in the first place, secondly*)” (Nation & Coady, 1988, p. 105). In order to make use of these kinds of relationships, learners may need to use their logic and reasoning. Once learners have gone through the steps that require them to examine the part of speech, the immediate context and the wider context, they need to guess the unknown word’s meaning and check their guesses (Nation & Coady, 1988). According to Clarke and Nation (1980), the activity of checking can be done in three ways. First of all, the part of speech of the meaning that have been guessed should be checked to see whether it is the same part of speech as the one given in the text. Secondly, the word should be analyzed in terms of its root, suffixes and prefixes, which may give some clues about the meaning. Thirdly, the learner’s guess should be substituted with the word in the text in order to see whether it is meaningful.

As can be seen, during the process of guessing from context, learners are required to follow a certain path and some demands are imposed upon them, which increases their cognitive load. Regarding this issue, Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) have two assumptions. The first assumption is that during incidental processing of words, their retention depends on such textual factors as “need, search and evaluation” (p. 14). According to Hulstijn and Laufer (2001), these three factors all together form the *involvement* process, and while the first factor (need) is a non-cognitive one caused by motivation, the other factors (search and evaluation) are cognitive ones and they require learners to focus on form-meaning relationships. They further suggest that tasks prepared by teachers may contain one, two or all three of these factors and this affects the extent to which learners are involved in the task. For instance, if a task contains all three factors, it triggers stronger involvement. However, if a task is simplified by the teacher through input modification, this may eliminate the cognitive factors (search and evaluation), which leads to weaker involvement (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001). In line with these views, Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) have come up with the *Involvement Load Hypothesis*, which is related to their second assumption. According to this assumption, if processing of lexical items occurs “with higher involvement load”, they will be retained much better than the ones that are processed “with lower involvement load” (p. 15). This assumption is supported by Hulstijn’s (1992) *Mental Effort Hypothesis*, which suggests that if a word’s meaning is inferred, its retention will be better and higher than the retention of a word whose meaning is given.

2.8.2. Types of Contextual Clues

In order to utilize the strategy of guessing from context, learners should be able to make use of various types of contextual clues. Nation (1990) explains that the use of this strategy not only requires the learners to use their knowledge of English but also to examine the interrelation of the unknown words with the other elements of the text such as other words, sentences, clauses, phrases and paragraphs. Another explanation on the use of contextual clues has been made by Artley (1943), who suggests that the term context clues do not only pertain to the vocabulary items that a given word is surrounded with, but also they include the clues that are found in the writer’s or reader’s past experience and “subtly expressed in the tone, mood, and intent of the writer” (p. 73). Artley (1943) further suggests that children should not only be aware of these clues’ existence but they should also use them instinctively in everyday reading because merely by this way, they will be able to go beyond basic meaning of the words and fully comprehend and interpret what they are reading.

As for the classification of contextual clues, there have been various researchers such as Ames (1966), Artley (1943), Brown (1980), Deighton (1959) and Kruse (1979), who have attempted to develop taxonomies as a part of research into the use of contextual aids. In the upcoming parts, the analysis of types of contextual clues will be based upon Brown's classification (1980) which is a clear and concise one that lists five types of clues which are "definition, learners' world experience, contrast, inference and analysis" (Nation, 1990, p. 160).

The five types of contextual clues classified by Brown (1980) are listed below:

- **Definition**

Sometimes the unknown words are defined in the text; that is to say, a definition or explanation is given before or after the unfamiliar word, or meanings may be hidden in the sentences containing the unknown word (Brown, 1980).

Example: "They dug a deep hole and gently lowered the body into the **grave**" (Brown, 1980, p. 106).

In the sentence above, the unknown word's meaning is given in the sentence itself. From the definition, we understand that a "grave" means a "deep hole for a body" (Brown, 1980, p. 106).

- **Learners' world experience**

Students should be encouraged to bring their background knowledge to the classroom so as to make use of the contextual clues in the text (Brown, 1980).

Example: "The sun **sets** in the West" (Brown, 1980, p. 106).

In the sentence above, the unknown word's meaning can be guessed through world knowledge if the words "sun" and "West" are already known by the learners (Brown, 1980, p. 106).

- **Contrast**

Certain words or phrases such as 'but' and 'however' may signal contrast in a sentence and if this is known by the learners, the meaning of the unfamiliar word can be guessed from context (Brown, 1980).

Example: "The question was important to the child but it appeared **trivial** to the teacher" (Brown, 1980, p. 107).

In the sentence above, the unknown word's meaning "can be at least partly understood" by learners if they know that "but" signals contrast (Brown, 1980, p. 107).

- **Inference**

Making an inference means reaching an opinion by using your logic and reasoning skills and there are often adequate clues in a text to make correct guesses (Brown, 1980).

Example: “The guard gave only a **perfunctory** glance at the forged I.D. card and James breathed easily again” (Brown, 1980, p. 107).

In the sentence above “only”, “glance”, “breathed easily” and “forged” are the clues which help learners understand that the unknown word may mean “something like done quickly and badly” or “routine” or “superficial” (Brown, 1980, p. 107).

- **Analysis**

Analyzing word parts may give learners direct clues to guess the meaning of the unknown words. Some common roots and affixes may help them understand both the part of speech and the meaning of the new words “as in ‘abnormality’, ‘decapitation’, ‘microscopic’” (Brown, 1980, p. 107). “New words in the language are often made from known parts, e.g. ‘denationalize’, ‘demystify’, ‘disincentive’, ‘a non-event’” (Brown, 1980, p. 107).

As can be seen, there are various types of clues helping learners utilize the context and guess the meanings of unknown words. According to Nation (1990), linguistic information that is available in a text is focused upon during guessing procedure by using these clues. However, as Drum and Konopak (1987, as cited in Nation, 1990) suggest there are also other information sources such as the knowledge of specific words, which is already possessed by learners (as they encountered these words before), knowledge of the topic about which they are reading and knowledge of the topic’s theoretical structure. In order to help learners make an effective use of contextual clues, teachers must demonstrate them how to activate these mentioned types of knowledge (Nation, 1990).

2.8.3. Contextualized vs. Decontextualized Vocabulary Instruction

As mentioned before, different ways of teaching vocabulary are used by teachers with a current focus on contextualized and decontextualized methods.

There are contrasting views on the effectiveness of contextualizing or decontextualizing vocabulary instruction. For instance, McCarthy (1990) believes that if learners encounter a lexical item in a meaning-based context, this will be better and easier for them to recall and retain it. In line with this view, Oxford and Scarcella (1994) support contextualization by stating that words memorized and learned in a short time through decontextualized vocabulary instruction with word lists are quickly forgotten. In contrast with these views, Nation (1982) argues that contextualized instruction may not be a powerful

way of teaching words, and especially in the initial phases of foreign language learning, translating the word into learner's L1 may be more effective. Moreover, if a good definition or description is provided, it may not be necessary to present a lexical item in various contexts for full mastery of its meaning (McCarthy, 1990). Accordingly, Zimmermann (2009) suggests that context does not always help learners with meanings of the unfamiliar words because sometimes clues may be limited, deficient or even nonexistent. Moreover, Hulstijn, Hollander and Greidanus (1996) state that one of the reasons why learners are often unable to learn the meanings of unfamiliar words in a text spontaneously is that the contextual information may be redundant. In other words, learners cannot make a connection between the form of the unfamiliar word and the meaning embedded in the context. Another problem related to context is that sometimes unknown words may not be inferable from the passage or learners may make wrong inferences, which causes them to learn words incorrectly (Hulstijn et al., 1996).

When related literature is viewed, it can be seen that a large number of studies on contextualized and decontextualized vocabulary instruction have been carried out. For instance, Askov and Kamm (1976) investigated whether students could be taught to use categories of context clues. Participants were 133 students in grades 3,4 and 5, and they were divided into control and treatment groups. While the treatment group was systematically taught contextual guesswork using contrast, cause-effect and direct description clues, the control group received no training. The results of the post-test and delayed post-test showed that instruction in context clues improved students' vocabulary learning performance as the treatment group outperformed the control group.

In a different study, Li (1988) compared the effects of cue-adequate and cue-inadequate sentences on guessing and remembering the meanings of unknown words in contexts of reading and listening. The participants were 48 advanced trainees in an EAP course in China and they were divided into four treatment groups. The findings demonstrated that the participants provided with cue-adequate sentences could easily infer and remember the meanings of new words in context and performed significantly better in both word guessing and retention. Another result yielded by the study was that the participants provided with reading contexts scored better than those provided with listening contexts in both inferring and recalling the new words. Moreover, the study found that there was a significant positive correlation between word guessing and word retention.

Another important study was conducted by Kern (1989) who explored the effectiveness of strategy instruction on deriving meanings of unfamiliar words from context.

The study was carried out with 53 intermediate learners of French who were divided into two groups. While the experimental group received strategy instruction on contextual guesswork, the control group followed the normal course curriculum. The study revealed that strategy instruction on inferring the meaning of unknown words was highly effective. Moreover, the study implied that it was better to train middle and high ability learners on contextual guesswork than training low ability learners. According to Kern (1989), middle and high ability learners should be taught derivations of words and inference strategies rather than long lists of vocabulary items.

One other significant study was carried out by Hulstijn (1992) in order to compare the effectiveness of meaning-given and meaning-inferred method. Within the scope of this study, five different experiments were conducted with various numbers of subjects. In the first and second experiments, three meaning-inferred procedures such as multiple choice, concise context and no-cue/control were compared with one meaning-given procedure that is translation/synonym. In the third, fourth and fifth experiments, multiple choice and synonym procedures were compared. The findings showed that if second language learners do not read a text with the intention of learning vocabulary, they tend to remember an unknown word's form and meaning better, and this happens especially when they infer its meaning by themselves rather than when the meaning is given to them.

In parallel with the studies conducted by Askov and Kamm (1976) and Kern (1989), Buikema and Graves (1993) carried out a study exploring the effects of context-clue strategy instruction on vocabulary learning. The participants were 38 students in grades 7 and 8, and they were divided into experimental and control groups. While the experimental group received instruction on descriptive context clues, the control group received no training. All participants were tested through two multiple-choice tests, and meaning identification and definition tasks in context. The findings revealed that context group significantly outperformed the control group in all tests and tasks.

Nist and Olejnik (1995) conducted a different study examining whether their participants could learn new words through (weak or strong) context and (adequate and inadequate) dictionary definitions. The participants were 186 college freshmen in an American university and they were assigned to four groups in terms of context strength and definition adequacy. The results showed that the participants provided with a strong context had a better performance in the vocabulary tests than those provided with a weak context. Moreover, the students who had adequate dictionary definitions also had a better

performance than the ones provided with inadequate definitions. This result indicated that the quality of definition had a great impact on learning of unknown words.

Two other significant studies were carried out by Prince (1996) and Mondria (2003). It is necessary to note that these studies were different than others in that they yielded results supporting decontextualization. Prince (1996) conducted a study that examined the effects of L1 translation and use of context on weak and strong learners' performance. The participants were 48 students at a university in France and they were assigned to two groups. The participants in the translation group were provided with 44 English words and their French equivalents, whereas the context group examined sentences in English each of which contains an unfamiliar word with no translation. The participants were required to translate words from English to French and fill in the blanks in sentences. At the end of the study, it turned out that both weak and strong participants in the translation group learned more words than those who were in the context group. Moreover, the strong learners provided with context performed a little better on the fill in the blanks task than on the translation task. The final result indicated that it was easier for the participants to remember words in a translation situation than in a context situation. As for Mondria (2003), he carried out a study analyzing the effectiveness of contextualized and decontextualized methods on vocabulary retention. The subjects were 38 Dutch eleventh-graders and they were put into two groups. While one group was provided with the translations of unknown words, the other group was required to infer the meanings of the unfamiliar target words from context. The results demonstrated that the methods were not significantly different in terms of retention; however, the contextualized method proved to be impractical and time-consuming while the decontextualized method through memorization turned out to be more efficient.

One other study was conducted by Aksoy (2006), who compared teaching vocabulary through isolated word lists and in context. The subjects were 36 preparatory class Turkish university students divided into experimental and control groups, who learned 35 target words through two different methods. The results of the pre- and post-tests showed that teaching words in context turned out to be more effective than teaching them in isolation.

Another study was carried out by Nash and Snowling (2006) with children who had poor vocabulary knowledge. The study sought to investigate the effects of two different vocabulary teaching methods on both vocabulary development and reading comprehension. The participants of the study were 24 children who were divided into two groups. While one group was taught new lexical items through definitions, the other group was taught the

strategy of deriving the meanings of words from context. The findings of the study indicated that while both groups had improved their vocabulary knowledge immediately after instruction, the context group showed significantly better performance of expressive vocabulary knowledge on the delayed post-test. Similar to Nash and Snowling (2006), Çiftçi and Üster (2009) also compared vocabulary instruction in context and by definition. The participants were Turkish university students studying at preparatory class and they consisted of two groups, which were taught new words in two different methods. While one class was taught vocabulary in context, the other one was provided with only definitions of the words. The results of the post-tests revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between the performances of the two groups.

Shokouhi and Askari (2010) carried out another study to find out the impact of contextual guessing strategy on vocabulary achievement and reading skill at pre-university level. The participants were 100 Iranian students who were separated into context and non-context groups. While the context group was trained to be able to guess the meanings of low-frequency words, the non-context group was taught through direct vocabulary instruction. The results of the pre- and post-tests showed that the group that was trained on contextual guesswork was more successful in both reading and vocabulary development than the group that was taught through direct method.

Similar to the studies of Nash and Snowling (2006), and Çiftçi and Üster (2009), Amirian and Momeni (2012) conducted a study which compared definition-based and contextualized vocabulary learning. The subjects were 107 Iranian high-schoolers and they were assigned to two groups. The contextualized group was trained on guessing strategies and was required to infer the meanings of unfamiliar words in the texts while the decontextualized group was pre-taught the target words' translations. The results indicated that the learners who received definition-based instruction performed slightly better than those who received contextualized instruction on the post-test measuring their achievement. A similar study with different results was conducted by Samiyan and Khorasani (2014), who focused on the comparison of contextual guessing strategy and memorization of isolated words in vocabulary acquisition. The subjects were 20 intermediate level learners at a language institute in Iran and they were put into experimental and control groups. While the experimental group received instruction to infer the meanings of unknown words, the control group learned new words through memorization. The findings revealed that contextualized instruction was more effective on vocabulary learning considering the long-term memory. It

was also found that the words learned through guessing from context are used more frequently than the ones learned in isolation.

Ebrahimaian and Nabifar (2015) also focused on contextualization by carrying out a study which compared the effects of word-part strategy, word-card strategy and context-clue strategy on vocabulary retention. The participants were 90 Iranian high-schoolers who were assigned to three groups each of which was taught vocabulary with a different strategy. The results revealed that the context-clue strategy group did significantly better than the other two groups on immediate and delayed post-tests.

Another recent study was carried out by Hamzadayi and Bayat (2015) in order to determine the effectiveness of contextualization on vocabulary achievement in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. The participants were 38 A2 level learners of Turkish and they were divided into two groups. While the experimental group was taught 20 words through contextualization, the control group was taught the same words through direct provision of word meanings. The results pointed out that contextualization significantly affected vocabulary learning as the experimental group scored significantly higher on the post-test. Moreover, it was found that through contextualization, nouns were learned better than verbs.

As can be understood from the results of aforementioned studies, there seems to be no prevailing consensus among researchers about the effectiveness of contextualized and decontextualized vocabulary instruction. Moreover, the studies conducted so far have yielded non-overlapping and mixed results regarding the superiority of one method over another.

2.9. Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction

If a learner knows a word, this means that s/he has two types of knowledge about lexical items. S/he is thought to have either definitional or contextual information. In definition-based vocabulary instruction, learners are provided with definitional information, which can be defined as “knowledge of the logical relations between a word and other known words, as in a dictionary definition” (Stahl, 1986, p. 663). In teaching vocabulary by definition, learners can be given definitional information not only via definitions but also through word origins, synonyms, antonyms, parts of speech, suffixes, prefixes, etc. (Stahl, 1986).

According to Amirian and Momeni (2012), definition-based vocabulary instruction is generally criticized by proponents of contextualized method for several reasons. First of all, it provides learners merely with one definition, synonym or L1 equivalent, which leads to

a limited and superficial level of word knowledge. Moreover, it does not improve comprehension skills of learners, as the text containing the target words may not be understood well (Amirian & Momeni, 2012). Accordingly, Brown, Collins and Duguid (1989) believe that definition-based instruction is not an effective way of teaching vocabulary, since definitions are both abstract and decontextualized while real knowledge of words is situational and depends upon negotiations. That is why, according to Brown et al. (1989), a dictionary definition and a few sample sentences lacking context cannot help learners capture a new word's meaning.

Nagy (1997) argues that the number of words that can be effectively taught and learned is one of the biggest limitations of definition-based instruction, which typically involves making learners memorize short definitions that cover only one individual meaning of the target word. According to Nagy (1997), people who are of the opinion that definition-based instruction greatly helps learners expand their vocabulary must have "a parsimonious model of the mental lexicon" (p. 72). That is to say, their model includes a very small number of words and meanings for each word. Nagy (1997) further states that this kind of a model depends mostly upon "reference specification" instead of "sense selection" in order to offset the lack of "contextual variation" (p. 72). However, this dependence is both advantageous and disadvantageous. That is, definition-based vocabulary instruction becomes conceivable, as there are few definitions to learn; however, it also creates distinction between a word's contextual meaning and its given definition.

As can be seen, definition-based vocabulary instruction is not favored by proponents of contextualized method due to the fact that it leads to a shallow level of vocabulary knowledge because of its limitations (Amirian & Momeni, 2012). Nevertheless, this direct method of teaching vocabulary, which involves learners in rote-memorization of definitions, continues to be utilized by EFL teachers and it can be applied with the help of two main techniques, which are glossing and dictionary use (Nation, 2001).

2.9.1. Glosses

A gloss is defined by Nation (2001) as a short definition, explanation, or synonym that can be found in L1 or L2 within or near the text. Lomicka (1998) also defines glosses as aids that are placed in the margins (side or bottom) so as to help learners with unknown words by limiting the continuous use of dictionary which may impede the reading process. Glossing is generally categorized according to its position and it can be in the margins of a text, inside a text, above a text or at the bottom of a text (Roby, 1999).

Glossing is a kind of input modification which involves teacher intervention and manipulation so that learners can acquire a target word or form better. Generally used as an aid to vocabulary learning and reading comprehension, glossing assists learners to deal with inadequate context clues while learning new words by providing them with extra information (Ko, 2012). Nation (2001) puts forth that glossing has some certain advantages. First of all, it leads to the use of texts which would be too difficult for learners to read if it were not for glosses. In this way, original texts, which are not modified and simplified, can be used in classes. Secondly, glossing eliminates the possibility of wrong guesses by providing accurate meanings or definitions for unknown words, which aids vocabulary learning and comprehension. Thirdly, glossing prevents the reading process from being interrupted especially when glosses are located near the glossed words. By this way, it stops learners from consulting to dictionaries, which is a lot more time consuming than glossing. Lastly, glossing may increase learner motivation by drawing attention to words and encouraging learning (Nation, 2001).

When literature is scanned, it can be seen that glossing has been found to have positive effects on vocabulary learning (Jacobs, Dufon & Fong, 1994; Ko, 2012; Spahiu, 2000; Yoshii, 2006). One of the earliest studies on glossing was by Jacobs et al. (1994), who investigated the effects of glossing on vocabulary learning and recall. The participants were 85 English native speakers who were learners of Spanish at university level. They were assigned to three treatment groups, which were no gloss, English glosses and Spanish glosses groups. During the treatment, they were asked to write what they remember about the passage, translate the glossed words and fill in a survey. The results of the study showed that the glossed groups performed significantly better than no gloss group.

Another study on glossing was carried out by Spahiu (2000) in order to see the effects of glossing on incidental vocabulary learning. The subjects were 90 intermediate-level Turkish EFL learners who were assigned to three groups. One group was given a text without glossary. The other groups were given the same text with bilingual and monolingual glossaries. The results of the post-tests indicated that glossing had a positive impact on incidental vocabulary learning through reading. Moreover, bilingual glosses were found to be more effective than monolingual ones.

Yoshii (2006) also conducted a study so as to examine the effectiveness of L1 and L2 glosses on incidental vocabulary learning. The participants were 195 Japanese university students who were assigned to four groups: single-text gloss (L1), single-text gloss (L2), text plus picture gloss (L1) and text plus picture gloss (L2). The results of the post-tests showed

that glosses, either in L1 or in L2, should be utilized in reading materials as they were found to be effective on promoting incidental vocabulary learning.

In another study, Ko (2012) aimed to investigate the effects of different gloss types on vocabulary learning. He also compared the effectiveness of no-gloss and glossed texts. The subjects of the study were 90 university students in Korea and they were divided into three groups: no gloss, L1 gloss and L2 gloss. After reading materials for a comprehension test, learners were given an unexpected immediate vocabulary test. The findings demonstrated that though there were no significant differences between the effects of gloss types (L1 or L2), the participants who read the glossed texts performed significantly better than the ones who read no-gloss texts.

As can be understood from the aforementioned studies, glossing is a type of input modification which has been found time-saving and effective. Though the studies exploring the effectiveness of different gloss types (L1 or L2/interlinear or marginal) have yielded mixed results, glosses as a whole proved to be useful (Jacobs et al., 1994; Ko, 2012; Spahiu, 2000; Yoshii, 2006).

2.9.2. Dictionary Use

Although dictionaries have been generally ignored or underused in language acquisition (Summers, 1988; Zimmermann, 2009), dictionary use has been regarded as a strategy for vocabulary learning (Gu, 2003; Gu & Johnson 1996; Nation 1990; Nation & Meara, 2010). According to Nation (2001), dictionaries are not only sources of information but they are also aids to language learning. In this sense, a good dictionary should not only provide definitions but it should also give information on grammar, word usage, derivations, and spoken and written language (Marckwardt, 1973).

Nation (2001) identifies three main types of dictionaries, which are monolingual, bilingual and bilingualised. In monolingual dictionaries only one language is used and that is why, learners that use this kind of dictionary should be able to interpret and understand definitions and explanations in L2. Bilingual dictionaries, on the other hand, are written in two languages and they focus on translation. These kinds of dictionaries are generally criticized on account of the fact that they hinder production, prevent learners from using communication strategies and give little information on word usage (Baxter, 1980; Nation, 2001). However, according to Nation (2001), these criticisms are ungrounded and bilingual dictionaries have the following major assets: 1) providing explanations “in a very accessible way” and 2) being “bi-directional”-L2-L1, L1-L2 (Nation, 2001, p. 458). On the contrary, as Nation (2001) states, monolingual dictionaries include definitions that contain controlled

vocabulary, which causes learners to have difficulty understanding and interpreting the explanation. The last type of dictionaries is bilingualised ones, which contain not only monolingual information but also a translation of the word. These kinds of dictionaries have been found to be more effective than the other ones (bilingual and monolingual) on comprehension and production skills of learners (Laufer & Hadar, 1997, as cited in Nation, 2001).

Dictionary use is an important strategy as it has several assets such as leading to autonomous learning, enhancing learners' self-confidence and self-reliance, and reducing stress (Oxford, 1990). According to Nation (2001), this strategy can be used for several purposes, which are comprehension (decoding), production (encoding) and learning. The first purpose involves looking up words encountered in a reading passage or listening audio, verifying the meanings of words which are known partly and confirming contextual guesswork. As for the second purpose, it involves such activities as looking up words which are needed for speaking, writing or translation, confirming the pronunciation or spelling of the words, checking whether a word exists, correcting a mistake etc. The final purpose involves choosing which unfamiliar words to learn and promoting the knowledge of words which are known partly (Nation, 2001). In this regard, the explanations of Nation (2001) on dictionary use indicate that this strategy may enhance both receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge.

When literature is scanned, it can be seen that there are mixed views on the effectiveness and usefulness of dictionaries. While some researchers believe that dictionary use is an inefficient and time-consuming way which is unlikely to result in deep processing and long-term retention (Bensoussan, Sim, & Weiss, 1984; Chan, 2011; De Ridder, 2002), there are many other researchers who believe that dictionary use promotes vocabulary development (Abraham, 2008; Dziemienko, 2010; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Luppescu & Day, 1993; Nation, 2001). According to Zimmermann (2009), both views have merits as he believes that while effective use of dictionary leads to learner autonomy, overdependence on dictionaries may cause problems such as focusing too much on the isolated definitions without taking the context into consideration. In this sense, it can be said EFL learners should be taught how and when to use their dictionaries so that they can make use of the strategy effectively.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides information about the methodology of the study by focusing on the research design, study group, data collection instruments, procedures, materials and data analysis.

3.1. Design of the Study

Since this study sought to investigate the differences between the effectiveness of contextualized and definition-based instruction, quantitative data were employed and the differences were interpreted by comparing results. Quantitative data, which are reported in terms of scores, are obtained when the variable of a study is measured through a scale (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012). Accordingly, the quantitative data in this study were collected through a vocabulary achievement test, which was used as a pre-, post- and delayed post-test. This test was developed by the researcher in order to assess and compare the receptive vocabulary achievement and retention of learners before and after the implementation process. The study was carried out with a quasi-experimental design. The reason for choosing such a design was that at the School of Foreign Languages classes are assigned to instructors at the beginning of the term. Accordingly, in this design, as Creswell (2013) suggests, experimental and control groups are formed through non-random assignment. In this study, the data gathered from pre- and post-tests were analyzed through independent samples t-tests, which were used to find out the difference between the effects of contextualized and definition-based instruction on learners' vocabulary achievement and retention. The design of this research study is shown in Figure 3.

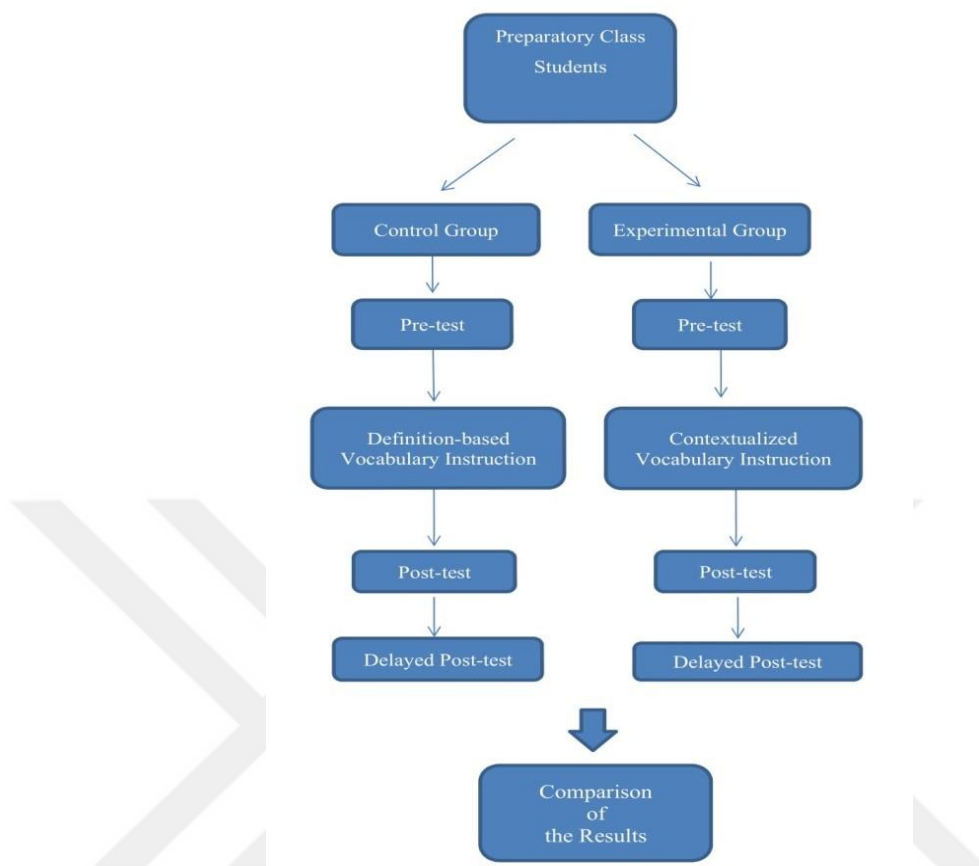


Figure 3. The design of the study

3.2. Study Group

The study group consisted of 60 A2 (pre-intermediate) level EFL learners aged between 18 and 20. The participants were assigned to experimental and control groups, which were formed with already existing classes. As Büyüköztürk, Kılıç Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel (2009) state, in quasi-experimental research design, two relatively similar groups should be chosen from available groups through non-random selection. In this sense, convenience sampling was used and the experimental group was the main class of the researcher as she had more hours of lessons with this group. In the study, each group consisted of 30 participants who were studying in the preparatory class at a state university in the western part of Turkey. Students of this university take a proficiency test at the beginning of the education year. According to the results of this test, some students are exempted from the preparatory class. As for the students who fail this test, they take a placement test in order to be assigned to different proficiency levels. There are three levels in the program of the preparatory class, which are A1 (elementary), A2 (pre-intermediate) and

B1 (intermediate). The students in A1, A2 and B1 levels are supposed to have 28, 26 and 24 hours of English per week successively.

Within the scope of this study, a validity and reliability analysis was carried out in order to calculate the reliability of the data collection tool. The participants of this analysis were 110 B1 (intermediate) level students while the main study group was composed of 60 A2 (pre-intermediate) level students who were going to have a 4-year education program upon finishing the preparatory class. The medium of instruction of this 4-year education program was English and the participants were to study in different departments such as engineering, economics, international relations, psychology, management, dentistry and political science.

All of the participants of this study were provided with the informed consent forms (see Appendix 4) before they were involved in the validity and reliability analysis and the main study. They all signed these forms and participated in the study on a voluntary basis.

3.3. Data Collection Procedure

This present study aimed to compare the effectiveness of contextualized and definition-based vocabulary instruction on receptive vocabulary learning and retention skills of EFL learners. The data collection procedure started after the official permissions (see Appendix 2 & Appendix 3) had been taken from both the research ethics committee of Dokuz Eylül University and the administration of the university where the research was carried out.

Within the scope of the study, first of all, the data collection instrument was developed by the researcher in the fall semester of 2019-2020 academic year. This instrument was an achievement test of receptive vocabulary, which included 45 multiple-choice items with five options. The target words in the test were the highlighted words in the passages that were taken from the coursebook called *Reading Explorer 1*. The achievement test was designed to measure word recognition rather than production, and its original version included 50 questions. The number of the items was reduced to 45 after piloting the test to 110 students for validity and reliability analysis. Both the original and the final versions of the test were proofread by three experts from the Testing, Assessment and Statistics Unit of the School of Foreign Languages. After the test's validity and reliability had been ensured, the data collection procedure started. During this procedure, the same vocabulary achievement test was used as a pre-, post- and delayed post-test.

The quasi-experiment was conducted with preparatory class students in the fall semester of the 2020-2021 academic year on the distance education platform of the

university where the research took place. After forming the experimental and control groups, both groups were given the pre-test, which lasted forty-five minutes. The aim of the pre-test was to measure the participants' receptive knowledge of the target words prior to the instructional sessions. By this way, it was aimed at seeing whether there was a difference between the experimental and control groups.

One week after the pre-test was administered; the experimental group started a five-week strategy-training program based on contextual guesswork. After the training had been completed, the researcher started the instruction procedure, which included four weekly sessions each of which lasted forty-five minutes. During these instructional sessions, the experimental group and the control group were taught the same vocabulary items through two different methods.

One week after the instruction procedure was completed, the post-test was given to the participants in order to measure their progress. Finally, three weeks after the post-test, the delayed post-test was administered in order to measure retention. Although all the tests had the same content, the place of the questions and options were changed in each test so that learners would not memorize their answers.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

One kind of assessment tool was used in order to gather data in this study. The assessment tool was a vocabulary achievement test, which was used as a pre-, post- and delayed post-test. The place of the questions and options of the test were transformed in each version so that learners did not memorize the places of their answers. The test, which consisted of 45 questions including multiple-choice items, was designed to test learners' receptive vocabulary knowledge. The vocabulary items were the highlighted words from the coursebook called *Reading Explorer 1* and that is to say; the words used in this study had been determined as target words by professional coursebook writers (Douglas & Bohlke, 2015).

3.4.1. Vocabulary Achievement Test

A vocabulary achievement test which measured participants' receptive vocabulary knowledge was developed by the researcher herself. The development of the test involved several steps. First of all, a question pool containing the target words was created. Then, a table of specification was prepared and for each question, there existed the columns of following options: "suitable", "unsuitable" and "should be revised". For the next step, the questions in the pool were proofread by three experts from the Testing, Assessment and

Statistics Unit of School of Foreign Languages at the university where the research was conducted. As Weir (1993) suggests, all items in a test should be proofread carefully and obvious mistakes should be eliminated. In this regard, the problematic questions in the test were revised by the experts and some questions were eliminated from the pool. Then, a vocabulary achievement test with 50 multiple-choice questions was designed. The reason for designing an achievement test was that these tests are appropriate for providing feedback on achievement levels of students, the efficiency of instruction and the course itself (Aydın, 2004). Moreover, the reason for designing a test with multiple-choice questions was that only receptive vocabulary knowledge was to be tested in the tool. That is why; there were not any productive activities in the test. As Meara (1996) suggests receptive multiple-choice tests measure only recognition vocabulary, and links between form and meaning. Accordingly, Baddeley (2004) states that recognition has two types: “yes/no recognition” and “forced choice recognition” (p. 7). While the first type “requires the subject to say whether a given item was presented or not”, the second type involves choosing “the previously presented item from a set of two or more alternatives” (Baddeley, 2004, p. 7). In this regard, the vocabulary achievement test developed within the scope of this study was characterized with forced choice recognition.

After developing the vocabulary achievement test with 50 multiple-choice questions, the test was piloted to 110 B1 (intermediate) level students for validity and reliability analysis. The reason for giving the test to B1 (intermediate) level students was that they had already covered the target vocabulary items and that is why; the analysis was supposed to give more reliable results. After piloting the test to 110 subjects, the validity and reliability analysis was carried out. Within the scope of this analysis, Kuder-Richardson 20 and Split-half reliability values of the test were calculated. Moreover, for the internal consistency, item discrimination and difficulty indexes of the questions were calculated (see Appendix 25). At the end of the analyses, five questions were eliminated from the test, since their item discrimination indices were below 0,19 and they reduced validity and reliability (Ebel, 1972). The average item difficulty index of the questions was 0,59 and the average item discrimination index of the questions was 0,51, which showed that the questions in the test were moderately difficult (Tekindal, 2009). As for the reliability of the test, KR-20 reliability coefficient was calculated as 0,859 and Split-half reliability coefficient was calculated as 0,874, which showed that test’s reliability was high (Cronbach, 1951). The final version of the vocabulary achievement test included 45 multiple choice questions with 5 options (see Appendix 5).

3.5. General Overview of the Experiment

The experiment took place in the fall semester of 2020-2021 academic year and it lasted from October to mid-January. In the first week of the experiment, the vocabulary achievement test was given to both groups as a pre-test. Then, the implementation procedure started. This procedure encapsulated a strategy-training period for the experimental group, which took five weeks and four weekly instructional sessions for both groups as shown in Table 3. After the implementation procedure finished, both groups were given the same vocabulary achievement test as a post-test in the 11th week of the study. Three weeks after the post-test, the vocabulary achievement test was given to both groups as a delayed post-test to measure retention.

Table 3

General overview of the experiment

	Pre-Test		Instructional Sessions	Post-Test	Delayed Post-Test
Experimental Group	Vocabulary Achievement Test (45 questions) (1 st week)	Strategy Training (5 weeks)	1 reading text with 10-12 target words per session (4 weeks)	Vocabulary Achievement Test (45 questions) (11 th week)	Vocabulary Achievement Test (45 questions) (15 th week)
Control Group	Vocabulary Achievement Test (45 questions) (1 st week)	No Training	Glossed sentences with 10-12 target words per session (4 weeks)	Vocabulary Achievement Test (45 questions) (11 th week)	Vocabulary Achievement Test (45 questions) (15 th week)

3.5.1. Implementation Procedure for the Experimental Group

The implementation procedure for the experimental group included a strategy training period which took five weeks during which learners were trained on the strategy of guessing from context, and it also included four weekly sessions each of which was based on the same lesson plan (see Appendix 11). Four different reading texts taken from the coursebook *Reading Explorer 1* were used in the sessions. These texts were compiled in the extra reading material for the preparatory class and they were chosen according to their place in the syllabus. In four weekly sessions, the texts called *The Trip of A lifetime* (see Appendix 13), *Hip-Hop Planet* (see Appendix 14), *A Musical Boost* (see Appendix 15), *Global Cities* (see Appendix 16) were used successively. In the sessions, 10-12 target words were

presented through the texts. As for the lesson procedure, the texts were handled in three stages; pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading as suggested by Wallace (1982).

In the pre-reading stage, the students were asked some warm-up questions about the text. These questions were aimed at activating learners' background knowledge so that they could get into the context of the passage they were going to read. As for the while-reading stage, the teacher shared the text with the students through screen sharing feature and the students were asked to read the text silently without using dictionaries. While reading the text, learners focused on the target words, which were written in a bold-faced font, and tried to guess their meanings from the context they were used in. During this stage the teacher did not intervene in the process and students worked on their own. The final part was the post-reading stage in which learners did the vocabulary exercises in the activity sheet prepared by the teacher. By doing these exercises, learners had the opportunity to practice the newly presented items. After the students completed the part of speech, fill-in-the blanks and matching exercises, they were put in groups of three or four so that they could check their guesses and answers with their peers. The students could work in groups thanks to the private chat rooms feature of the online platform. In this part of the lesson, there was no teacher intervention at all and the students worked collaboratively. The reason for putting the students in groups was that "richer evaluation, so more involvement, may occur in group work than individual work, since members of the group may collectively come up with more reasons for why a word does or does not fit a context than a learner working alone" (Lin, 2018, p. 166).

At the end of the lesson, the teacher stopped sharing her screen, which included the reading texts and activity sheets, and the session ended. Upon finishing each session, the teacher blocked students' access to the recorded video so that students could not revise the target words. The reason for this was that no students and groups could become advantageous over another. Moreover, the assessment tool (vocabulary achievement test) measured participants' receptive vocabulary knowledge and it tested only what they could remember from the weekly instructional sessions.

3.5.2. Implementation Procedure for the Control Group

The implementation procedure for the control group included no training. It just included four weekly instructional sessions and each session was based on the same lesson plan (see Appendix 12). In these sessions, learners were given sample sentences including the target words and these were simple sentences that were devoid of context. The students were provided with these sentences so that they could see the word usage. Moreover, they

were given the definitions of the target words in marginal glosses. The definitions were either “formal definitions” which included the word, its part of speech and its defining characteristics or “substitutions” such as synonyms or antonyms (Nation, 2001, p. 127).

As for the lesson steps, the teacher first shared the sample sentences and the activity sheets with students through screen sharing feature. Then, students were asked to read the sample sentences and check the meanings of the target words by looking at the monolingual definitions provided in the marginal gloss. Moreover, students rechecked the meanings of these words by using bilingual dictionaries so that it could be assured the meanings were understood well. Next, students did the follow-up target vocabulary exercises in order to reinforce what they had just learned. After the students completed the fill-in-the blanks and matching exercises, they were given the correct answers by the teacher. Once the students had checked their answers, the teacher stopped sharing her screen, which included the sample sentences and activity sheets, and the session ended. After each session, students’ access to the recorded video was blocked by the teacher so that they could not revise the target words. As mentioned before, by this way, no students and groups could become advantageous over another. Furthermore, the assessment tool (vocabulary achievement test) was designed to measure participants’ receptive vocabulary knowledge and it was aimed at testing only what could be remembered from the weekly instructional sessions.

3.5.3. Materials

As can be seen in Table 3, the materials used in the implementation procedure were strategy training materials, glossed sentences and activity sheets prepared by the researcher and four reading passages taken from the coursebook called *Reading Explorer 1*.

3.5.3.1. Strategy Training Materials

The strategy training which was given to the experimental group was based on the strategy of guessing from context. This training took five weeks and it was composed of live sessions each of which lasted 60 minutes. In the first four sessions, students were trained on different types of context clues and in the last session they were given mixed exercises so that they could practice the strategy. The different types of context clues provided in the materials were compiled by using different taxonomies that were developed by such researchers as Ames (1966), Artley (1943), Brown (1980), Deighton (1959) and Kruse (1979).

The strategy training materials were developed by the researcher herself, and in the first week of the training, a material covering part of speech, definition and contrast clues

were shared with the students (see Appendix 6). They were also provided with exercises on these types of clues. In the second week, the students were provided with a material that covered example, inference and cause-effect clues, and also several exercises (see Appendix 7). Third week's material included root words, prefixes and some exercises on them (see Appendix 8). In the fourth week, a material including suffixes and word formation exercises was given to students (see Appendix 9). As for the last week, learners were provided with a material that included two reading passages taken from *Reading Explorer 1* (*The Incredible Dolphin* and *Who Built Giza's Pyramids*) and mixed exercises on contextual guesswork strategy (see Appendix 10).

3.5.3.2. Reading Passages

Four different reading texts taken from the coursebook *Reading Explorer 1* were used in the sessions for the experimental group and they were chosen according to their place in the syllabus. In four weekly sessions, the texts called *The Trip of A lifetime* (see Appendix 13), *Hip-Hop Planet* (see Appendix 14), *A Musical Boost* (see Appendix 15), *Global Cities* (see Appendix 16) were used successively.

3.5.3.3. Glossed Sentences

The sample sentences given to the control group were simple sentences, which were devoid of context and they were written by the researcher herself. Moreover, the monolingual definitions in the glosses were also written by the researcher by consulting to various dictionaries such as Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (Hornby, Deuter, Bradbery & Turnbull, 2015) and Oxford Dictionary, Thesaurus, and Wordpower Guide (Soanes, Waite & Hawker, 2001).

3.5.3.4. Activity Sheets

The activity sheets included target vocabulary exercises and they were prepared by the researcher herself. The exercises for the experimental group included part of speech, fill-in-the blanks and matching exercises. The same exercises except for the part of speech questions were used for the control group as well. The reason for not giving these exercises to the control group was that they were already given the part of speech of the target words in the glosses.

3.6. Data Analysis

The data gathered by means of the vocabulary achievement test were analyzed through IBM SPSS Statistics 20 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). In order to

calculate the reliability coefficient of the vocabulary achievement test, KR-20 and Split-half methods were used. Moreover, in order to calculate the item difficulty and item discrimination indices of the test, item analysis was made by using the Henrysson method.

As for the main study, the first step in data analysis was to calculate the number of correct answers in the pre-test which included 45 questions. The maximum score for the pre-test was 45 as each correct answer was given 1 point. The same way of grading was also applied to the post-test and the delayed post-test as they included the same questions. After all tests had been given and the raw scores had been received, the means and standard deviations for the experimental and the control group were calculated. Then, in order to compare the achievement and retention levels of the groups, the mean scores were compared through independent samples t-test analysis. By this way, the differences between two groups in pre-, post- and delayed post-test could be seen.

3.7. Validity and Reliability of the Study

In this study, a vocabulary achievement test with 50 multiple-choice questions was developed by the researcher herself. For the content validity, the questions of the test were proofread by three experts from the Testing, Assessment and Statistics Unit of School of Foreign Languages at the university in which the research was carried out. After developing the test, it was piloted to 110 B1 (intermediate) level students for validity and reliability analysis. The reason for giving the test to B1 (intermediate) level students was that they had already covered the target vocabulary items and that is why the analysis was supposed to give more reliable results. After piloting the test to 110 subjects, the validity and reliability analysis was carried out. Within the scope of this analysis, Kuder-Richardson 20 and Split-half reliability values of the test were calculated. Moreover, for internal consistency, item discrimination and difficulty indexes were calculated by using the Henrysson method. At the end of the analyses, five questions were eliminated from the test, since their item discrimination indices were below 0,19 (see Appendix 25) and they reduced validity and reliability (Ebel, 1972). The average item difficulty index of the questions was 0,59 and the average item discrimination index of the questions was 0,51, which showed that the questions in the test were moderately difficult (Tekindal, 2009). As for the reliability of the test, KR-20 reliability coefficient was calculated as 0,859 and Split-half reliability coefficient was calculated as 0,874, which showed that test's reliability was high (Cronbach, 1951). The final version of the vocabulary achievement test included 45 multiple-choice questions with 5 options (see Appendix 5) and it was a valid, reliable and suitable test for the A2 (pre-intermediate) level participants of this study.

3.8. The Role of the Researcher

The researcher of this study took part actively in all sections of the research. First of all, she acted as a test developer, since she herself developed the data collection tool. Secondly, she acted as a trainer as she gave strategy training on contextual guesswork to the experimental group. Moreover, she acted as a teacher and researcher, since she herself taught the experimental and control groups, and interpreted the analyses.



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1. Results of the Pre-test

This study focused on receptive vocabulary achievement and retention. For this reason, a pre-test, which measured the subjects' receptive vocabulary knowledge, was administered at the beginning of the study. The aim of the pre-test was to see whether the levels of the experimental and the control groups were the same or similar prior to the implementation procedure. Another aim of administering the pre-test was to measure the improvement of both groups by comparing its results with the post-test and delayed post-test scores.

The pre-test was given to subjects of the experimental and the control group on the same date and the duration was 45 minutes. After getting the raw scores, an independent samples t-test analysis was conducted in order to calculate the mean scores and standard deviations of the groups as can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4

Independent samples t-test analysis of pre-test scores

Groups	N	X	SD	t	p
Control	30	3,80	0,57	-1,390	0,170
Experimental	30	4,03	0,68		

According to Table 4, for the control group, the mean of pre-test scores and the standard deviation were calculated as $3,80 \pm 0,57$ while the related values for the experimental group were calculated as $4,03 \pm 0,68$. The results of the independent samples t-test showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of vocabulary knowledge at the very beginning of the study ($t = -1,390$, $p = 0,170 > 0,05$). The similarity between the levels of both groups was also shown in Figure 4.

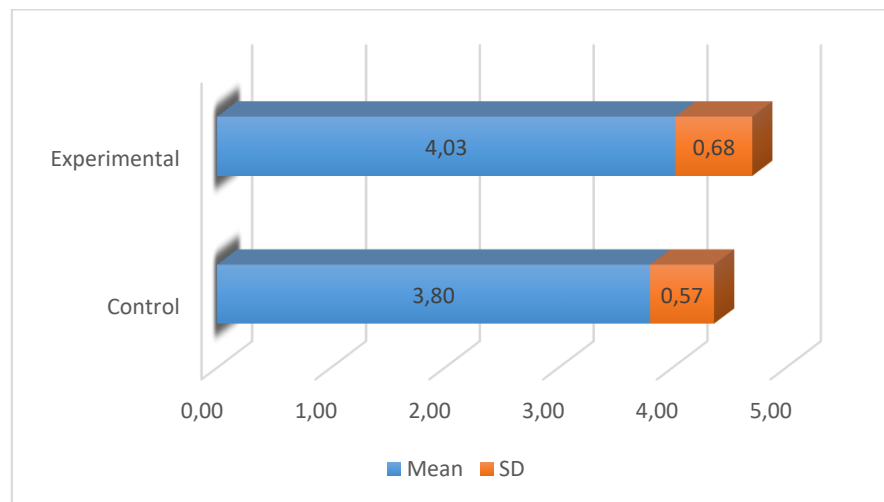


Figure 4. Comparison of the experimental and the control groups' pre-test scores

According to the figure above, the mean value of the experimental group was higher than the mean value of the control group. However, this difference is statistically insignificant according to the independent samples t-test. This points out that the participants in both groups got similar scores on the pre-test and their levels were nearly equivalent before the experiment.

4.2. Results of the Post-test

The post-test was given to both groups after the implementation procedure in order to compare how much they improved their receptive knowledge of the target words. Independent samples t-test was applied so as to compare the pre-test and post-test results within both groups as shown in Table 5 and Table 6.

Table 5

Comparison of the post-test scores with the pre-test scores within the control group

Control Group	N	X	SD	t	p
Pre-test	30	3,80	0,57	-3,042	0,004
Post-test	30	4,49	1,10		

According to Table 5, for the control group, the mean of the pre-test scores and the standard deviation were calculated as $3,80 \pm 0,57$ while the related values on the post-test were calculated as $4,49 \pm 1,10$. The results of the independent samples t-test showed that the difference between the pre-test and post-test results was statistically significant for the control group ($t = -3,042$, $p = 0,004 < 0,05$). This means that the participants in control group improved their receptive vocabulary knowledge after the implementation process. This improvement can also be seen in Figure 5.

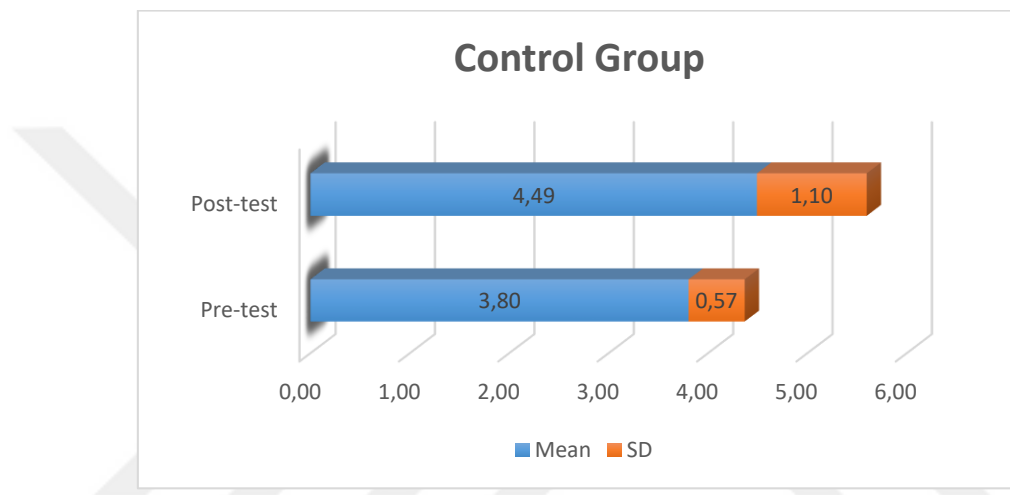


Figure 5. Comparison of the post-test scores with the pre-test scores within the control group

Another independent samples t-test was applied in order to compare the pre-test and post-test results within the experimental group, too as shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Comparison of the post-test scores with the pre-test scores within the experimental group

Experimental Group	N	X	SD	t	p
Pre-test	30	4,03	0,68	-18,420	0,000
Post-test	30	6,35	0,51		

According to Table 6, the mean score and the standard deviation of the experimental group on the pre-test were calculated as $4,03 \pm 0,68$ while the related values on the post-test

were calculated as $6,35 \pm 0,51$. The results of the independent samples t-test showed that the difference between the pre-test and post-test results was statistically significant for the experimental group ($t = -18,420$, $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). This means that the experimental group also improved their receptive vocabulary knowledge after the implementation process. This improvement can also be seen in Figure 6.

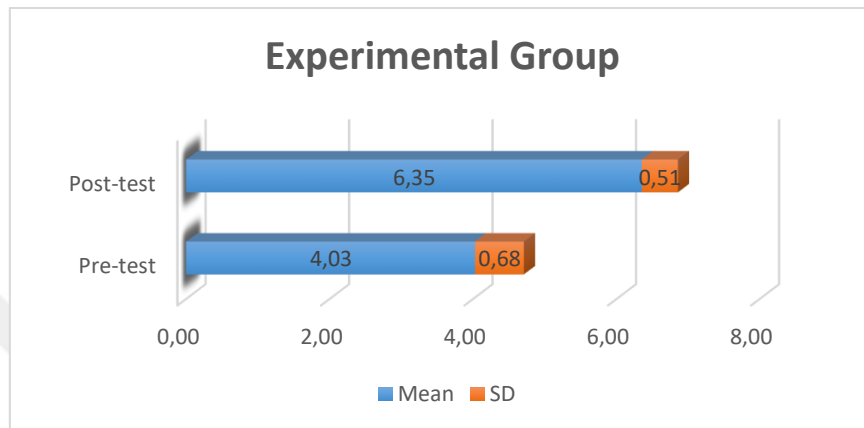


Figure 6. Comparison of the post-test scores with the pre-test scores within the experimental group

Table 5 and 6 demonstrate that both the experimental and the control group showed significant progress, which could be seen when their post-test scores were compared with the pre-test scores within their own groups. After this analysis, another t-test was applied in order to compare both groups' post-test results and see the difference between their improvements as shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Independent samples t-test analysis of post-test scores

Groups	N	X	SD	t	p
Control	30	4,49	1,10	-8,394	0,000
Experimental	30	6,35	0,51		

According to Table 7, for the control group the mean score and the standard deviation on the post-test were calculated as $4,49 \pm 1,10$ while the related values for experimental group were calculated as $6,35 \pm 0,51$. The results of the independent samples

t-test showed that there was a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group regarding their knowledge of the target words after the implementation procedure ($t = -8,394$, $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). This finding indicated that although both groups progressed, the experimental group exceeded the control group by scoring significantly higher on the post-test. This difference can be also seen in Figure 7.

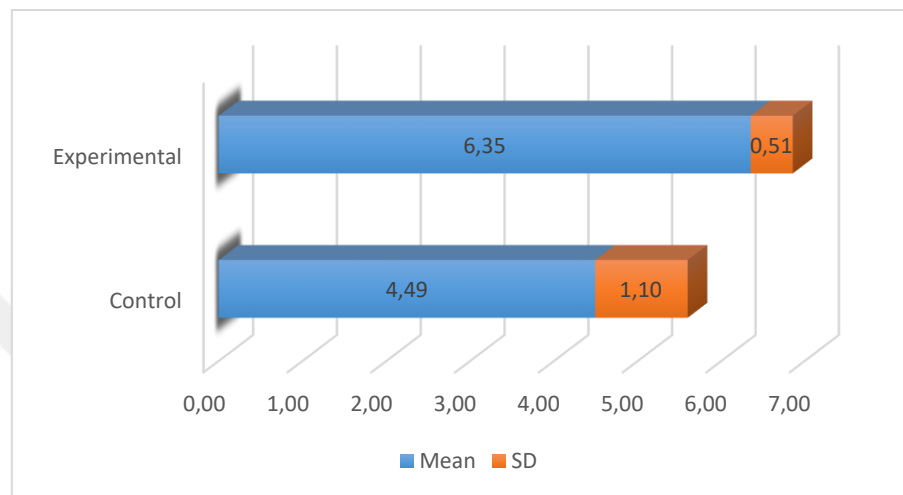


Figure 7. Comparison of the experimental and the control groups' post-test scores

4.3. Results of the Delayed Post-test

Three weeks after the post-test was administered, a delayed post-test was given to both groups in order to measure the participants' retention skills. Independent samples t-test was applied so as to compare the pre-test and delayed post-test results within both groups as shown in Table 8 and Table 9.

Table 8

Comparison of the delayed post-test scores with the pre-test scores within the control group

Control Group	X	SD	t	p
Pre-test	3,80	0,57	-1,577	0,120
Delayed Post-test	4,20	1,25		

According to Table 8, the mean score and the standard deviation of the control group on the pre-test were calculated as $3,80 \pm 0,57$ while the related values on the delayed post-test were calculated as $4,20 \pm 1,25$. The results of the independent samples t-test showed that the difference between the pre-test and delayed post-test results was statistically insignificant for the control group ($t = -1,577$, $p = 0,120 > 0,05$). This means that the control group did not score significantly higher on the delayed post-test than they did on the pre-test. This result can also be seen in Figure 8.

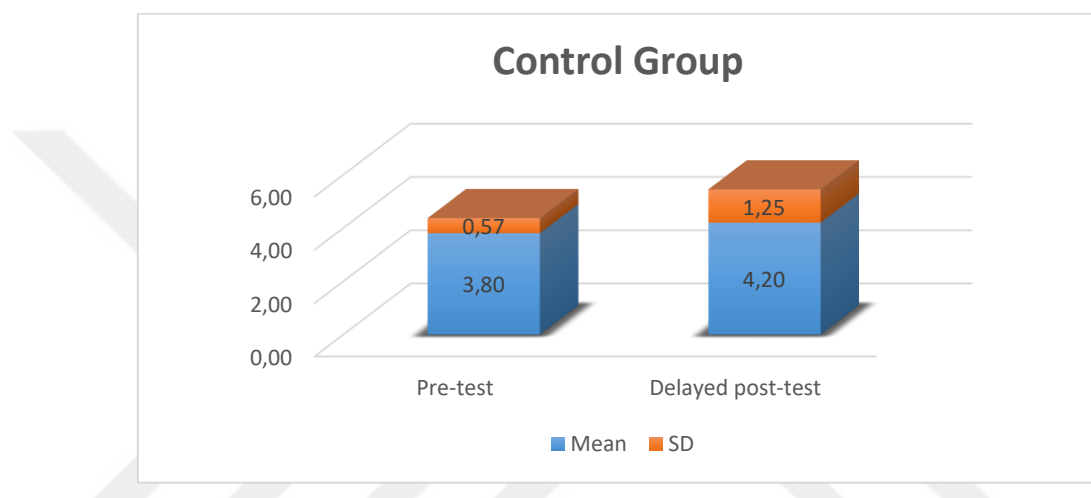


Figure 8. Comparison of the delayed post-test scores with the pre-test scores within the control group

Another independent samples t-test was applied in order to compare the pre-test and delayed post-test results within the experimental group, too as shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Comparison of the delayed post-test scores with the pre-test scores within the experimental group

Experimental Group	X	SD	t	p
Pre-test	4,03	0,68	-15,205	0,000
Delayed Post-test	6,30	0,46		

According to Table 9, the mean score and the standard deviation of the experimental group on the pre-test were calculated as $4,03 \pm 0,68$ while the related values on the delayed post-test were calculated as $6,30 \pm 0,46$. The results of the independent samples t-test demonstrated that the difference between the pre-test and delayed post-test scores was statistically significant for the experimental group ($t = -15,205$, $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). This means that the experimental group scored significantly better on the delayed post-test than they did on the pre-test. This result can also be seen in Figure 9.

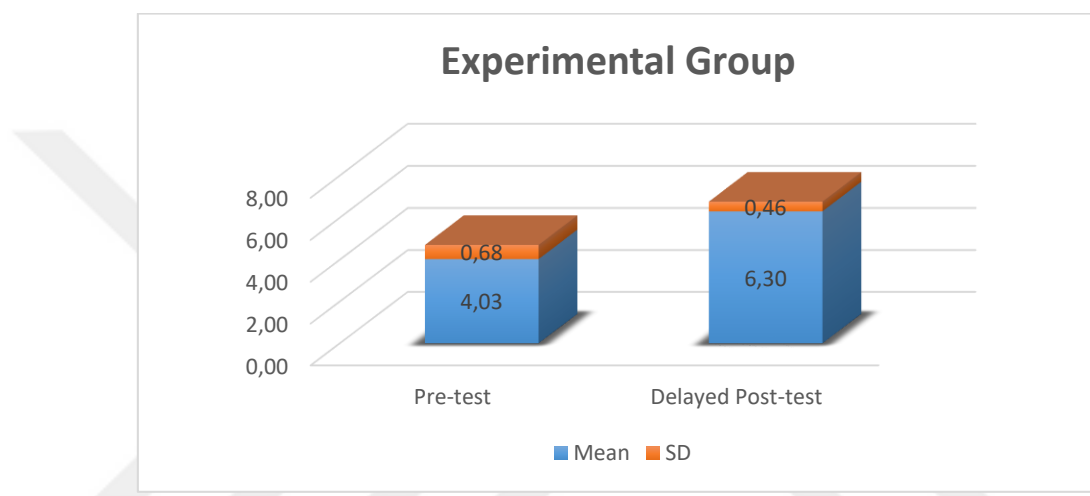


Figure 9. Comparison of the delayed post-test scores with the pre-test scores within the experimental group

Table 8 and 9 demonstrate that only the experimental group made a significant improvement from the pre-test to delayed post-test. After this analysis, another t-test was applied in order to compare both groups' delayed post-test results and see the difference between their retention skills, as shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Independent samples t-test analysis of delayed post-test scores

Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	p
Control	30	4,20	1,25	-8,650	0,000
Experimental	30	6,30	0,46		

According to Table 10, the mean score and the standard deviation of the control group were calculated as $4,20 \pm 1,25$ while the related values of the experimental group were calculated as $6,30 \pm 0,46$. The results of the independent samples t-test showed that there was a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of vocabulary retention ($t = -8,650$, $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). This finding indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group by scoring significantly higher on the delayed post-test. This difference in retention skills of two groups can be also seen in Figure 10.

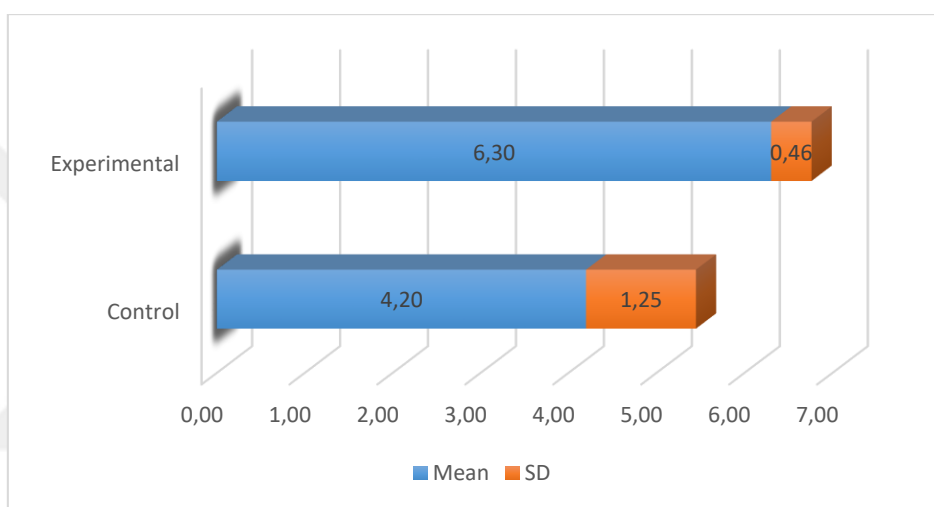


Figure 10. Comparison of the experimental and the control groups' delayed post-test scores

The overall results indicated that although both groups increased their knowledge of the target words, the experimental group had a significantly better performance than the control group on both the post-test and delayed post-test. According to these results, the experimental group, which received contextualized vocabulary instruction, was more successful in both learning and retaining the target vocabulary items.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The aim of this present study was to investigate whether there was a significant difference between the effectiveness of contextualized and definition-based vocabulary instruction. In this regard, the study explored the effects of these two ways on receptive vocabulary learning and retention skills of university students studying in the preparatory class at a state university in the western part of Turkey. In order to realize this aim, a vocabulary achievement test was given to the participants as a pre-, post- and delayed post-test. By this way, the differences in learning and retention between contextualized and definition-based group were explored through quantitative data in order to find answers to two research questions:

5.1. Is there a significant difference between the receptive vocabulary learning performance of the experimental group, which received contextualized instruction and the control group, which received definition-based instruction?

The findings of this study showed that although both groups increased their knowledge of the target words, the experimental group had a significantly better performance than the control group on the post-test. According to this result, the experimental group, which was taught through contextualized vocabulary instruction, was more successful in learning the target vocabulary items.

Contextualized vocabulary instruction, which means presenting lexical items in any context, can be discussed by touching upon two concepts: contextual vocabulary learning strategies and strategy instruction. In this study, the experimental group was trained on the strategy of guessing from context and they did better on the vocabulary achievement test. This shows us the importance of contextual vocabulary learning strategies in L2 learning process. Because the experimental group in this study learned the target words successfully through contextual guesswork, it can be suggested that this strategy is an effective way of learning vocabulary. This suggestion is also supported by a variety of researchers who developed taxonomies on vocabulary learning strategies (Cohen, 1987; Cook & Mayer, 1983; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Lawson & Hogben, 1996; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 1997).

In this study, the guessing strategy assisted the participants to expand their vocabulary knowledge without teacher intervention or dictionary consultation. In this sense,

guessing meanings from context is a valuable skill, which is also supported by Clarke and Nation (1980) who state that the contextual guesswork skill enables learners to learn new words without the teacher's assistance and if it is accompanied with a great deal of wide reading activities, it may result in rapid growth of vocabulary. Moreover, in this study, the guessing strategy provided the learners with the opportunity of paying attention to the written context and according to Shokouhi and Askari (2010), "seeing the word in a written context can provide more syntactic, semantic and pragmatic information in creating a well-specified semantic representation" (p. 85). That is to say, when learners see the unknown words in a written context, it is easier for them to derive their meanings by utilizing the syntactic, semantic and pragmatic clues that the context gives them (Shokouhi and Askari, 2010).

This present study included a five-week strategy-training period as a part of contextualized vocabulary instruction. In this sense, the findings of this study implied the effectiveness of strategy training on vocabulary development as the context group outperformed the definition-based group on the post-test. These findings are in accordance with the results of many other studies. For instance, Askov and Kamm (1976) investigated whether students could be taught to use categories of context clues. The participants in their study were 133 students in grades 3, 4 and 5, and they were divided into control and treatment groups. While the treatment group was systematically taught contextual guesswork using contrast, cause-effect and direct description clues, the control group received no training. In this present study, the participants were also divided into experimental and control groups, and during strategy training, the experimental group was taught to use categories of context clues such as contrast, definition, parts of speech etc. As for the results, both studies showed that instruction in context clues improved students' performance of vocabulary learning as the treatment group outperformed the control group on the post-tests. This present study was conducted with university students; however, Askov and Kamm's study (1976) was conducted with young children and their study implied that even young children can be successfully taught categories of context clues. In this sense, it can be suggested that university students can also be effectively taught to use categories of context clues.

Another study that supported the findings of this present study was carried out by Kern (1989), who investigated the effectiveness of strategy instruction on deriving meanings of unfamiliar words from context. The study was carried out with 53 intermediate learners of French who were divided into two groups. While the experimental group received strategy

instruction on contextual guesswork, the control group followed the normal course curriculum. In consistence with the results of this present study, Kern' study (1989) revealed that strategy instruction on inferring the meanings of unknown words from context was highly effective on reading and vocabulary development. Moreover, the study implied that it was better to train middle and high ability learners on contextual guesswork than training low ability learners. According to Kern (1989), middle and high ability learners should be taught derivations of words and inference clues rather than long lists of vocabulary items. In accordance with this implication, the participants of this study were middle ability learners whose proficiency level was A2 (pre-intermediate), and teaching them word derivations and inference clues proved to be more effective than providing them with definitions through glosses.

Other studies looking into the effectiveness of context clue strategy instruction on vocabulary knowledge were carried out by Jenkins et al. (1989), Buikema and Graves (1993), Samiyan and Khorasani (2014) and İlter (2019). The findings of these studies are consistent with the results of this present study as they all suggested that learners became successful at guessing unfamiliar words in context after being trained. Moreover, they implied that context-clue strategy instruction could have a great effect on improving the word learning ability.

The findings of this present study revealed that context method proved to be more effective than definition-based method and it aided learners in improving their current receptive vocabulary knowledge. This finding is supported by Nash and Snowling (2006), who carried out their study with children, and suggested that context method was more effective than definition method in improving participants' poor existing vocabulary knowledge.

One other study that corroborates the findings of this present study was conducted by Aksoy (2006), who compared teaching vocabulary through isolated word lists and in context. The study revealed that teaching words in context turned out to be more effective than teaching them in isolation, which was also found in this study.

Another study whose results were consistent with this present study was carried out by Hamzadayı and Bayat (2015) in order to determine the effectiveness of contextualization on vocabulary learning in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. The subjects were 38 A2 level learners of Turkish and they were divided into two groups. While the experimental group was taught 20 words through contextualization, the control group was taught the same words through direct provision of word meanings. This present study was also carried out in

the same way with the same level of students. Hamzadayı and Bayat (2015) found that contextualization significantly affected vocabulary learning as the experimental group scored significantly higher on the post-test. The researchers attributed this result to the participants' proficiency level. That is to say, if the participants' proficiency level were lower, the results would have been different. This assumption also applies to this present study, and it is supported by Walters (2006), who suggested that learners with higher levels of language proficiency seem to be more advantageous in unlocking context clues. In this sense, the participants of this present study may have used the advantage of their being A2 (pre-intermediate) level students while guessing the unknown words from context.

On the other hand, there are few studies (Prince, 1996; Mondria, 2003), whose results do not corroborate this present study. Both Prince (1996) and Mondria (2003) revealed that the contextualized method proved to be impractical and time-consuming while the decontextualized method through translation and memorization turned out to be more efficient.

As can be seen, there are a few research studies that have parallels with this present study, which revealed that contextualization of vocabulary instruction along with strategy training proved to be more effective than teaching words through definitions.

5.2. Is there a significant difference between the vocabulary retention of the experimental group, which received contextualized instruction and the control group which received definition-based instruction?

The findings of this study showed that the control group, which received definition-based instruction, did not show significant improvement from the pre-test to delayed post-test. According to this result, the experimental group, which was taught through contextualized vocabulary instruction, outperformed the control group on the delayed post-test and became more successful in retaining the target vocabulary items.

The findings of this study overlap the results of the study carried out by Hulstijn (1992) in order to compare the effectiveness of meaning-given and meaning-inferred method. The study of Hulstijn (1992) was based on two assumptions. The first assumption was that when learners are required to solve a problem through inferencing or induction, they will put forth "more mental effort" than when they are directly shown how to find a solution to this problem (p. 113). According to this assumption, the participants in the experimental group of this study invested more mental effort than the control group members, who were given the meanings of the words in glosses. As for the second assumption of Hulstijn's study (1992), if some sort of information has been obtained through "more mental effort", its

retrieval and recollection afterwards could be easier and better than information which has been obtained by investing “less mental effort” (p. 113). In consistence with this assumption, in this present study, the experimental group members, who invested more mental effort, retrieved and recalled the target words better as they outperformed the control group on the delayed post-test. Accordingly, for Hulstijn (1992), these assumptions lead to *Mental Effort Hypothesis*, which suggests that if a word’s meaning is inferred, its retention will be higher than a word whose meaning is given. The *Mental Effort Hypothesis* supports the findings of this study since there was a significant difference between the scores of the experimental and the control group on the delayed post-test, which measured vocabulary retention. In this regard, it can be said that because the participants in the experimental group invested more mental effort while unlocking the context clues, they retained the target words better.

The findings of this study are also in compliance with the assumptions of Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) who focused on vocabulary retention in their study. The first assumption is that during incidental processing of words, their retention depends on such textual factors as “need, search and evaluation” (p. 14). According to Hulstijn and Laufer (2001), these three factors all together form the *involvement* process, and they further suggest that tasks prepared by teachers may contain one, two or all three of these factors and this affects the extent to which learners are involved in the task. For instance, if a task contains all three factors, it triggers stronger involvement. However, if a task is simplified by the teacher through input modification, this may eliminate the “cognitive dimensions” such as “search” and “evaluation”, which leads to weaker involvement (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001, pp. 14-15). In line with these views, Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) have come up with the *Involvement Load Hypothesis* according to which if processing of lexical items occurs “with higher involvement load”, they will be retained much better than the ones that “are processed with lower involvement load” (p. 15). In this sense, the participants in the experimental group of this study were involved in the task of unlocking context clues, which included such cognitive factors as “search” and “evaluation” (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001, p. 14). Therefore, it can be said that these factors required the learners to focus on form and meaning relationships in the texts given and they triggered stronger involvement. By this way, the experimental group members, who were taught through contextualization, retained the target words better. As for the control group, which received definition-based instruction, since their task was simplified through the definitions given in glosses, cognitive factors might have been eliminated, and this may have led to weaker involvement. As a result, they

became unsuccessful in retaining the target words and their failure might be attributed to the above-stated reasons.

The findings of this study are also supported by Li (1988), who compared the effects of cue-adequate and cue-inadequate sentences on guessing and remembering the meanings of unknown words in contexts of reading and listening. The study revealed that there was a significant positive correlation between word guessing and word retention as this present study indirectly showed.

Similarly, Ebrahmain and Nabifar (2015) carried out a study and revealed the effectiveness of context-clue strategy on vocabulary retention. During their study, the participants were actively involved in group discussion and shared their guesses with their peers. The same procedure was carried out in this present study and learners retained words better through “richer evaluation” and “more involvement” which seemingly occurred due to group work (Lin, 2018, p. 166).

Samiyan and Khorasani (2014) also focused on the comparison of contextual guessing strategy and memorization of isolated words in vocabulary acquisition. The findings were consistent with the results of this present study as they revealed that contextual instruction was more effective in vocabulary learning considering long-term memory. Furthermore, Askov and Kamm (1976) investigated whether students could be taught to use categories of context clues, and showed that instruction in these clues improved student performance as the treatment group outperformed the control group on the retention test. Accordingly, in this present study, students in the experimental group were also taught the categories of context clues and they outperformed their counterparts on the delayed post-test, which measured vocabulary retention.

As can be seen, there are a few research studies and hypotheses that have parallels with this present study, which revealed that contextualized vocabulary instruction was more effective in helping learners retain target words than definition-based vocabulary instruction.

5.3. Conclusion

In order to improve learners' vocabulary knowledge and retention, different teaching systems are utilized by teachers with an emphasis on contextualized and definition-based methods. While the former way requires the teacher to present target vocabulary items in context and expect learners to guess their meanings, the latter way requires the teacher to give the definitions of unknown words directly and in isolation.

This quasi-experimental study aimed at investigating whether there was a significant difference between the effectiveness of contextualized and definition-based vocabulary

instruction. In this sense, the main aim was to find out the effects of these two instructional methods on receptive vocabulary learning and retention skills of university students studying in the preparatory class at a state university in the western part of Turkey. Parenthetically, the study was originally planned to be carried out through face-to-face education; however, it was conducted on the online education platform of the university due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Though there were various international studies comparing the effectiveness of contextualized and definition-based vocabulary instruction, few studies were carried out on the national scale. Considering this gap in literature, this study was carried out with 60 A2 (pre-intermediate) level Turkish university students aged between 18 and 20. The participants were assigned to experimental and control groups that were formed with already existing classes, which means that both groups were taught by the researcher herself. While the experimental group underwent a five-week strategy training program on contextual guesswork and learned 45 target words by using this strategy, the control group received no training and learned the target words through definition-based instruction. The data collection tool was a vocabulary achievement test, which was developed by the researcher herself. This test included 45 multiple-choice questions, and the target words in the test were the highlighted words in the passages that were taken from the coursebook called *Reading Explorer 1*. These passages were four different reading texts compiled in the extra reading material for the preparatory class and they were chosen according to their place in the syllabus. The vocabulary achievement test used in this study was designed to measure word recognition rather than production, and its original version included 50 questions. The number of the items was reduced to 45 after piloting the test to 110 B1 (intermediate) level students for validity and reliability analysis. Both the original and the final versions of the test were proofread by three experts from the Testing, Assessment and Statistics Unit of School of Foreign Languages at the university where the research was carried out. After the test's validity and reliability had been ensured, the data collection procedure started. During this procedure, the same vocabulary achievement test was used as a pre-, post- and delayed post-test. At the beginning of the study, the groups were given the vocabulary achievement test as a pre-test. The aim of the pre-test was to see whether the levels of experimental and control groups were the same or similar prior to the implementation procedure. Another aim of administering the pre-test was to measure the improvement of both groups by comparing its results with the post-test and delayed post-test scores. One week after the implementation procedure was completed, the same vocabulary achievement test was given as the post-test,

which measured receptive vocabulary learning of the participants. Finally, three weeks after the post-test, the same vocabulary achievement test was given as the delayed post-test in order to measure the subjects' retention skills.

The researcher analyzed the scores gathered through the pre-, post- and delayed post-tests and the results were compared in order to see the participants' improvement in terms of learning and retention. The results demonstrated that although both groups increased their knowledge of the target words, the experimental group did significantly better than the control group on the both post-test and delayed post-test.

The first research question of this study was whether there was a significant difference between the receptive vocabulary learning performance of the experimental group, which received contextualized instruction and the control group, which received definition-based instruction. Accordingly, the first conclusion of the study was that contextualization of vocabulary instruction along with strategy training proved to be more effective than teaching words through definitions. Being trained on contextual guesswork and encountering new words in a written context, students in the experimental group became more successful in learning new words. The results of the post-test showed that the participants in the context group outperformed their counterparts who were taught new words by definitions, which indicated that they improved more as to their receptive vocabulary knowledge. Furthermore, this finding proved the importance of contextual guessing strategies in L2 vocabulary learning. The experimental group in this study learned the target words successfully by utilizing contextual guesswork and this suggests that this strategy might be one of the effective ways of learning vocabulary (Cohen, 1987; Cook & Mayer, 1983; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Lawson & Hogben, 1996; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 1997).

The second research question of this study was whether there was a significant difference between the vocabulary retention of the experimental group, which received contextualized instruction and the control group, which received definition-based instruction. Accordingly, the second conclusion of the study was that contextualized vocabulary instruction was more effective in helping learners retain target words than definition-based vocabulary instruction. The learners who underwent training on contextual guesswork and encountered new words in a written context became more successful in retaining new words. This conclusion was drawn from the results of the delayed post-test, which revealed that the experimental group retained more words than their counterparts did. As mentioned earlier, contextualized vocabulary instruction requires learners to invest more mental effort and it increases their cognitive load (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001). Accordingly, this finding proves the

fact that words that are learned with more mental effort and higher cognitive load are retained better (Hulstijn, 1992; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001).

To conclude, the overall results showed that although both groups increased their knowledge of the target words, the experimental group exceeded the control group on both the post-test and delayed post-test. According to these results, the experimental group, which received contextualized vocabulary instruction, was more successful in both learning and retaining target vocabulary items.

5.4. Pedagogical Implications and Suggestions

The findings of this study demonstrated that contextualized vocabulary instruction along with strategy training led to vocabulary development by significantly improving learners in terms of recognition and retention.

Taking the findings of this present study into consideration, some pedagogical implications can be given and some suggestions can be made for further studies. First of all, in order to help EFL learners to improve their vocabulary knowledge, contextual guesswork strategy should be given special importance in language classrooms. In this regard, L2 learners should be trained on how to guess the meanings of unfamiliar words in context by being taught certain categories of context clues such as part of speech, definition, contrast, cause-effect etc. This study was conducted with A2 (pre-intermediate) level learners and future studies may be conducted with learners with higher proficiency levels as Walters (2006) suggests that learners with higher levels of language proficiency seem to be more advantageous in unlocking context clues.

In this present study, the success of the experimental group showed that while using the contextual guesswork strategy, learners should work without teacher intervention and dictionary consultation. The teacher should take the role of a facilitator and learners should take the responsibility of their own learning after they are trained on contextual guesswork. Moreover, they should be urged to study in groups or pairs as Lin (2018) suggested that group work may bring about “richer evaluation” and “more involvement” than individual tasks (p. 166). By this way, learners may become more autonomous and motivated while dealing with reading passages and unlocking context clues.

This present study was conducted with university students studying in the preparatory class and future studies may be conducted with high school students or other grades as Askov and Kamm’s study (1976) implied that even young children can be successfully taught categories of context clues.

This study focused on only receptive vocabulary achievement, which deals with word recognition. Therefore, future researchers may also look into productive vocabulary achievement, which entails the active use of words. Moreover, in this study delayed post-tests were given to participants three weeks after the post-tests. Therefore, only short-term retention was assessed, and future researchers might test long-term retention.

This present study has some pedagogical implications not only for future researchers but also for coursebook writers and material developers. As the study has revealed that contextualized vocabulary instruction is more effective than definition-based vocabulary instruction, textbook writers and material developers should avoid providing students only with glossaries for unknown words in reading passages. Instead, they should also insert some context clues into reading texts and design some tasks that enable learners to use these clues.

To conclude, with this present study, it is hoped that the significance of contextualized vocabulary instruction has been emphasized, which may shed light on the way of instructors, curriculum designers, coursebook writers and future researchers.

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Zimmerman, C. B. (2009). *Word knowledge: a vocabulary teacher's handbook*. Oxford: Oxford University.



APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Academic Background

Kişisel Bilgiler			
Adı ve Soyadı	Merve Güzel		
E-postası/Web Sayfası			
Bildiği Yabancı Diller	İngilizce, İtalyanca		
Uzmanlık Alanı	İngilizce Öğretmenliği		
Öğrenim Bilgileri			
	Üniversite	Bölüm	Yıl
Lisans	Ege Üniversitesi	Amerikan Kültürü ve Edebiyatı	2010
Tez Başlığı	Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction on Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students		
Tez Danışmanı	Dr. Öğretim Üyesi Ahmet Acar		
Akademik Eserler			
1. Güzel, M. (2013). The effect of data driven learning on students' learning outcomes. In K. Dikilitaş (Ed.), <i>Teacher-research studies: Inquiries from teachers' perspectives</i> (pp. 15-25). İzmir: Gediz Üniversitesi Yayınları 2. Güzel, M. & İlkyaz, M. (2014). DDL: Students as explorers on the island of grammar. In K. Dikilitaş (Ed.), <i>Professional development through teacher research</i> (pp. 113-142). İzmir: Gediz Üniversitesi Yayınları 3. Güzel, M. (2012, July). The Effect of Data Driven Learning on Students' Learning Outcomes. Academic and Professional Development Conference at Gediz University İzmir. 4. Güzel, M. & İlkyaz, M. (2013, July). The Effect of Data Driven Learning on Students' Grammar Learning. Teacher Researchers in Action Conference at Gediz University, İzmir.			
Alanıyla İlgili Bilimsel Kuruluşlara Üyelikler			
Alanıyla İlgili Aldığı Ödüller			

APPENDIX 2. Official Permissions of the Research Ethics Committee and İzmir Katip Çelebi University



T.C.
İZMİR KÂTİP ÇELEBİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu



Sayı : 63352535-100-E.1900105406
Konu : Geçerlik-Güvenirlik Çalışması
Merve GÜZEL Hk.

16/12/2019

İZMİR KÂTİP ÇELEBİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE
(Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)

İlgi : 13.12.2019 tarihli ve 90038189-199-E.1900104871 sayılı yazınız.

İlgi yazınıza istinaden, Yüksekokulumuzda öğretim görevlisi kadrosunda görev yapan Merve GÜZEL'in, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programında yapmış olduğu tez çalışması kapsamında Yüksekokulumuzda geçerlik - güvenilirlik çalışması yapması uygun görülmüştür. Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini arz ederim.

e-imza

Prof. Dr. Serhat BURMAOĞLU
Yüksekokul Müdürü

Belge Doğrulamak İçin: <https://ubs.ikc.edu.tr/ERMS/Record/ConfirmationPage/Index> adresinden FCDA7H7 kodu girerek belgeyi doğrulayabilirsiniz.

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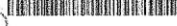
Bilgi İçin İrtibat : Gülseren Öztürk - İşçi
Telefon : (0 232) 3293535
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İnternet Adresi : www.ikcu.edu.tr



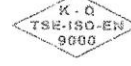
SDP : 929.99 - PERSONELLE İLGİLİ DİĞER İŞLER
Evrak No : 23708841-929.99-185872
Evrak Tarihi : 19-12-2019

KEP 19.12.2019

08



T.C.
İZMİR KÂTİP ÇELEBİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı



Sayı : 24346654-100-E.1900105929
Konu : Geçerlik-Güvenirlilik Çalışması
(Merve GÜZEL)

17/12/2019

DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığının 10.12.2019 tarihli ve 90038189-199-E.1900103670 sayılı yazısı.

İlgi yazınıza istinaden, Üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Merve GÜZEL'in "Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction on Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students" konulu tez çalışması kapsamında Üniversitemiz Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulunda geçerlik-güvenirlilik çalışması yapması ilgili Yüksekokul tarafından uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini arz ederim.

e-imzalıdır

Prof. Dr. Saffet KÖSE
Rektör

Adres : İzmir Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi Çiğli Ana Yerleşkesi 35620 Çiğli/İzmir - TÜRKİYE	Bülgü İletişim : Telefon : Belgegeçer No : İnternet Adresi :	Özlem TEMEL - Şef (0 232) 3293535 (0 232) 38649308 www.dcu.edu.tr
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T.C.
DÜZCE ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı

E-İmzalıdır

Sayı : 15563195-300.99-E.106458
Konu : Geçerlik-Güvenirlilik Çalışması
(Merve GÜZEL)

20/12/2019

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : a) 10.12.2019 tarihli ve 67493393-302.08.01-3012 sayılı yazınız.
b) İzmir Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi Rektörlüğünün 17.12.2019 tarihli ve 24346654-100-E.1900105929 sayılı yazısı.

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Merve GÜZEL'in "Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction on Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students" konulu tez çalışmasına ilişkin uygulama yapma isteğinin uygun görüldüğü hakkında İzmir Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi Rektörlüğünden alınan ilgi (b) yazı fotokopisi ekte gönderilmektedir.

Bilgilerinize ve gereğini arz ederim.

Metin ÇAĞLAR
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanı

Ek : İlgi (b) yazı sureti (1 sayfa)



Düzce Eylül Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü
Adres: Cumhuriyet Bulvarı No:144 35210 Alsancak / İZMİR
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Bilgi için İrtibat:
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Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu



Sayı : 63352535-199-E.2000004958
Konu : Tez Uygulaması (Merve GÜZEL)
Hk.

20/01/2020

İZMİR KÂTİP ÇELEBİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE
(Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)

İlgi : 14.01.2020 tarihli ve 24346654-199-E.2000003085 sayılı yazınız.

İlgi yazınıza istinaden, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Merve GÜZEL'in "Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition - Based Vocabulary Instruction on Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students" konulu tez çalışması kapsamında Yüksekokulumuzda uygulama yapması uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini arz ederim

e-imzalıdır

Öğr. Gör. Sevil GÜLBAHAR
Yüksekokul Müdürü V.

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2000004958 numaralı belge, 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanununun 5. maddesi gereğince Sevil Gülbahar tarafından 20.1.2020 tarihinde güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.



T.C.
DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı

E-İmzalıdır

Sayı : 15563195-302.08.01-E.9450
Konu : Tez Uygulaması (Merve GÜZEL)

27/01/2020

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : a) 06.01.2020 tarihli ve 67493393-302.08.01-23 sayılı yazınız.
b) İzmir Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi Rektörlüğünün 24.01.2020 tarihli ve 24346654-199-E.2000006334 sayılı yazısı.

Üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Merve GÜZEL'in "Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction on Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students" konulu tez çalışması kapsamında uygulama yapma isteğinin uygun görüldüğüne dair İzmir Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi Rektörlüğünden alınan ilgi (b) yazı fotokopisi ilişikte gönderilmektedir. Bilgilerinize ve gereğini arz ederim.

Tülay GÜLER
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanı V.

Ek : İlgi (b) Yazı Sureti (1 Sayfa)



Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü
Adres: Cumhuriyet Bulvarı No:144 35210 Alsancak / İZMİR
Tel: 0(232) 412 1212 Elektronik Ağ: www.deu.edu.tr
Kep Adresi: dokuzeyuluniversitesi@hs01.kep.tr

Bilgi İçin İrtibat:
Dilek ÇETİNOZ
Dahili: 0232 412 14 11
E-Posta: dilek.kaya@deu.edu.tr



Bu belge 5070 sayılı e-İmza Kanununa göre OĞRENCİ İŞLERİ DAİRE BAŞKANLIĞINA Vekili Tülay GÜLER tarafından 27.01.2020 tarihinde e-imzalanmıştır.

APPENDIX 3. Official Permissions for Online Study



T.C.
DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı

E-İmzalıdır

Sayı : 15563195-302.08.01-E.89968
Konu : Tez Uygulaması (Merve GÜZEL)

02/10/2020

İZMİR KATİP ÇELEBİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : a) 09.01.2020 tarihli ve 15563195-302.08.01-E.3420 sayılı yazımız.
b) 24.01.2020 tarihli ve 24346654-199-E.2000006334 sayılı yazınız.
c) Üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğünün 30.09.2020 tarihli ve 67493393-302.08.01-E.89139 sayılı yazısı.

Üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Merve GÜZEL'in "Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction on Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students" konulu tez çalışması uygulama takviminin online olarak yapılması ve 2020-2021 eğitim öğretim yılına uzatılması hakkında Üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğünden alınan ilgi (c) yazı sureti ve ekleri ilişikte gönderilmektedir.

Bilgilerinize ve söz konusu çalışma için gerekli iznin verilmesi hususunda gereğini arz ederim.

Prof.Dr. Mehmet Ali ÖZCAN
Rektör a.
Rektör Yardımcısı

Ek : İlgi (c) Yazı Sureti ve Ekleri (3 Sayfa)



Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü
Adres: Cumhuriyet Bulvarı No:144 35210 Alsancak / İZMİR
Tel: 0(232) 412 1212 Elektronik Ağ: www.deu.edu.tr
Kep Adresi: dokuzeyuluniversitesi@hs01.kep.tr

Bu belge 5070 sayılı e-İmza Kanununa göre Prof.Dr. Mehmet Ali ÖZCAN tarafından 02.10.2020 tarihinde e-imzalanmıştır.
Evrağımızı <http://dogrulama.deu.edu.tr> linkinden 8890F90AX9 kodu ile doğrulayabilirsiniz.

Bilgi İçin İrtibat:
Dilek ÇETİNÖZ
Dahili: 0232 412 14 11
E-Posta: dilek.kaya@deu.edu.tr





T.C.
İZMİR KÂTİP ÇELEBİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı
Lisans Eğitim Birimi



Sayı : 90038189-302.08.01-E.2000072418
Konu : Tez Uygulaması (Merve GÜZEL)

05/10/2020

YABANCI DİLLER YÜKSEKOKULU MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Rektörlüğünün (Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)
02.10.2020 tarihli ve 89968 sayılı yazısı.

Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Merve GÜZEL'in "Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction on Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students" konulu tez çalışması uygulama takviminin online olarak yapılması ve 2020-2021 eğitim öğretim yılına uzatılması hakkındaki ilgi yazısı ekte gönderilmiş olup, söz konusu çalışma için gerekli iznin verilmesi hususunda;

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır

Prof. Dr. Turan GÖKÇE
Rektör Yardımcısı

Ek: 2.10.2020 tarihli 89968 sayılı yazı

Belge Doğrulamak İçin: <https://ubs.ike.edu.tr/ERMS/Record/ConfirmationPage/Index> adresinden PAAUCUP kodu girerek belgeyi doğrulayabilirsiniz.

Adres : İzmir Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi Çiğli Ana
Yerleşkesi 35620 Çiğli/İzmir - TÜRKİYE
e-posta : erentaskiran86@hotmail.com

Bilgi İçin İrtibat : Kemal Eren TAŞKIRAN - Memur
Telefon : (0 232) 3293535
Belgegeçer No : (0 232) 3860888
İnternet Adresi : www.ikeu.edu.tr





T.C.
İZMİR KÂTİP ÇELEBİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu



Sayı : 63352535-302.08.01-E.2000072862
Konu : Tez Uygulaması(Merve GÜZEL)

06/10/2020

DAĞITIM YERLERİNE

- İlgi : a) Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığının 05.10.2020 tarihli ve 90038189-302.08.01-E.2000072418 sayılı yazısı.
b) Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Rektörlüğünün (Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı) 02.10.2020 tarihli ve 89968 sayılı yazısı.

İlgi yazılarınıza istinaden, Yüksekokulumuzda Öğretim Görevlisi kadrosunda çalışan Öğr. Gör. Merve GÜZEL' in "Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition - Based Vocabulary Instruction on Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students" konulu tez çalışması uygulamasını uzaktan yürütmesi uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini arz ederim.

e-imzalıdır

Doç. Dr. Murat ESEN
Yüksekokul Müdürü

DAĞITIM LİSTESİ
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı
Rektörlük

Belge Doğrulamak İçin: <https://ubs.ikcu.edu.tr/ERMS/Record/ConfirmationPage/Index> adresinden H94C3DE kodu girerek belgeyi doğrulayabilirsiniz.

Adres : İzmir Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi Çiğli Ana
Yerleşkesi 35620 Çiğli/İzmir - TÜRKİYE

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e-posta : yavuz.kandemir@ikcu.edu.tr



SDP : 806.01.03 - 03 - TEZLER
Evrak No : 23708841-806.01.03-105067
Evrak Tarihi : 09-10-2020



T.C.
İZMİR KÂTİP ÇELEBİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı



Sayı : 90038189-302.01.08
Konu : Tez Uygulaması (Merve GÜZEL)

DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE
(Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)

İlgi : 02.10.2020 tarihli ve 89968 sayılı yazınız.

İlgili tarih ve sayılı yazınıza istinaden Üniversiteniz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Merve GÜZEL'in "Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction on Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students" konulu tez çalışması uygulama takviminin online olarak yapılması ve 2020-2021 eğitim öğretim yılına uzatılması uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini arz ederim.

e-imzalıdır

Prof. Dr. Turan GÖKÇE
Rektör a.
Rektör Yardımcısı

Adres : İzmir Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi Çiğli Ana
Yerleşkesi 35620 Çiğli/İzmir - TÜRKİYE

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Telefon : (0 232) 3293535

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İnternet Adresi : www.ikcu.edu.tr



Bu belge 3070 sayılı e-İmza Kanununa göre Metin CAOLAR tarafından 09.10.2020 tarihinde e-imzalanmıştır.

Evrakınızı <http://dogrulama.deu.edu.tr> linkinden 92BFFBEDX9 kodu ile doğrulayabilirsiniz.

Bu belge, 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanununun 5 maddesi gereğince elektronik olarak imzalanmıştır. Belge Doğrulama:
<https://uba.ikcu.edu.tr/ERMS/Record/ConfirmationPage/Index> adresinden TTM47PD kodunu girerek belgenin doğrulayabilirsiniz.

APPENDIX 4. Informed Consent Forms

Tarih:.....

**DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
ETİK KURULU**

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAM FORMU

Bu formun amacı katılmanız rica edilen araştırma ile ilgili olarak sizi bilgilendirmek ve katılmanız ile ilgili izin almaktır.

Bu kapsamda "Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction On Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students" (Bağlamsal ve Tanıma Dayalı Kelime Öğretiminin Hazırlık Sınıfı Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Pasif Kelime Öğrenme ve Akılda Tutma Becerileri Üzerindeki Etkinliğinin Karşılaştırılması) başlıklı araştırma "Merve Güzel" tarafından **gönüllü katılımcılarla** yürütülmektedir. Araştırma sırasında sizden alınacak bilgiler gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Araştırma sürecinde konu ile ilgili her türlü soru ve görüşleriniz için aşağıda iletişim bilgisi bulunan araştırmacıyla görüşebilirsiniz. Bu araştırmaya **katılmama** hakkınız bulunmaktadır. Aynı zamanda çalışmaya katıldıktan sonra çalışmadan **çıkabilirsiniz**. Bu formu onaylamanız, **araştırmaya katılım için onam verdiğiniz** anlamına gelecektir.

Araştırmayla İlgili Bilgiler:

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bağlamsal kelime öğretimi ile tanıma dayalı kelime öğretimini karşılaştırmak.

Araştırmanın Nedeni: Farklı kelime öğretim yöntemlerinin etkinliğinin araştırılmasının önem arz etmesi.

Süresi: 15 hafta (1. hafta ön test- 5 hafta strateji eğitimi-4 hafta uygulama-12. hafta son test-15. hafta geciktirilmiş son test)

Araştırmanın Yürütüleceği Yer: İzmir Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Uzaktan Eğitim Platformu

Çalışmaya Katılım Onayı:

Katılmam beklenen çalışmanın amacını, nedenini, katılmam gereken süreyi ve yeri ile ilgili bilgileri okudum ve gönüllü olarak çalışma süresince üzerime düşen sorumlulukları anladım. Çalışma ile ilgili ayrıntılı açıklamalar sözlü olarak araştırmacı tarafından yapıldı. Bu çalışma ile ilgili faydalar ve riskler ile ilgili bilgilendirildim.

Bu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama olmaksızın katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Katılımcının (Islak imzası ile)

Adı-Soyadı:
İmzası:

Araştırmacının

Adı-Soyadı: Merve Güzel
e-posta:
İmzası:

Tarih:.....

DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
ETİK KURULU

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAM FORMU

Bu formun amacı katılmanız rica edilen araştırma ile ilgili olarak sizi bilgilendirmek ve katılmanız ile ilgili izin almaktır.

Bu kapsamda "Comparing the Effectiveness of Contextualized and Definition-Based Vocabulary Instruction On Receptive Vocabulary Learning and Retention Skills of Preparatory Class University Students" (Bağlamsal ve Tanıma Dayalı Kelime Öğretiminin Hazırlık Sınıfı Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Pasif Kelime Öğrenme ve Akılda Tutma Becerileri Üzerindeki Etkinliğinin Karşılaştırılması) başlıklı araştırma "Merve Güzel" tarafından **gönüllü katılımcılarla** yürütülmektedir. Araştırma sırasında sizden alınacak bilgiler gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Araştırma sürecinde konu ile ilgili her türlü soru ve görüşleriniz için aşağıda iletişim bilgisi bulunan araştırmacıyla görüşebilirsiniz. Bu araştırmaya **katılmama** hakkınız bulunmaktadır. Aynı zamanda çalışmaya katıldıktan sonra çalışmadan **çıkabilirsiniz**. Bu formu onaylamanız, **araştırmaya katılım için onam verdiğiniz** anlamına gelecektir.

Araştırmayla İlgili Bilgiler:

Araştırmanın Amacı: Kelime Başarı Testi'nin geçerlik-güvenirlik çalışmasını yapmak.

Araştırmanın Nedeni: Kelime Başarı Testi'nin geçerlik ve güvenilirlik özelliklerini taşımasının çalışma açısından önem arz etmesi.

Süresi: Uygulanacak olan Kelime Başarı Testi 1 ders saati (45 dk) gerektirmektedir.

Araştırmanın Yürütüleceği Yer: İzmir Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu

Çalışmaya Katılım Onayı:

Katılmam beklenen çalışmanın amacını, nedenini, katılmam gereken süreyi ve yeri ile ilgili bilgileri okudum ve gönüllü olarak çalışma süresince üzerime düşen sorumlulukları anladım. Çalışma ile ilgili ayrıntılı açıklamalar sözlü olarak araştırmacı tarafından yapıldı. Bu çalışma ile ilgili faydalar ve riskler ile ilgili bilgilendirildim.

Bu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama olmaksızın katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Katılımcının (Islak imzası ile)

Adı-Soyadı:
İmzası:

Araştırmacının

Adı-Soyadı: Merve Güzel
e-posta: :

İmzası:

APPENDIX 5. Vocabulary Achievement Test

Vocabulary Achievement Test

Pre-test, Post-test, Delayed Post-test

Instruction: Choose the best answer to complete the sentences below.

1. My grandfather used to tell us about his _____ as a sea captain during the war.
a) occasions b) adventures c) seasons d) predictions e) therapies
2. Students are encouraged to set themselves realistic _____ for academic improvement.
a) customs b) vehicles c) properties d) goals e) habits
3. The twelve-hour train _____ from İzmir to Ankara had tired me out so I went to bed immediately.
a) journey b) experiment c) organization d) accident e) demand
4. While we are planning our trip, we need a map which shows us the _____ to our destination.
a) route b) mode c) hike d) cost e) activity
5. _____ technology has made our lives more comfortable and easier.
a) Primitive b) Violent c) Fluent d) Poor e) Modern
6. I am very good at managing money. I try to keep a(n) _____ of everything I spend.
a) set b) record c) example d) part e) method
7. You should get professional _____ before you sign the contract.
a) advice b) bargain c) income d) question e) device
8. I like being _____ in my life; I don't plan everything.
a) strict b) pessimistic c) respectful d) flexible e) resistible
9. I decided to study in my own country after I heard about the _____ of studying abroad.
a) solutions b) deductions c) challenges d) causes e) responses
10. In our school there are students from different social _____.
a) backgrounds b) occasions c) facilities d) events e) methods
11. Small business owners _____ so many financial problems these days.
a) keep b) take c) get d) face e) remain
12. We need to teach our children to have _____ towards other religions.
a) evidence b) resistance c) ignorance d) tolerance e) coherence

13. Our professor is interested in the early Greek and Roman _____.
 a) addresses b) cultures c) tasks d) plans e) occupations
14. I don't understand your _____. Why don't you like her?
 a) currency b) height c) network d) prediction e) attitude
15. The jokes of Cem Yılmaz made the _____ laugh a lot in yesterday's show.
 a) audition b) auction c) audience d) attention e) appliance
16. You shouldn't take the things that don't _____ to you without asking.
 a) belong b) refuse c) abuse d) exist e) disagree
17. During the war between 1992 and 1995, poor Bosnian people experienced many _____.
 a) advantages b) benefits c) hardships d) successes e) miracles
18. My son is very interested in car racing and he _____ becoming a Formula 1 pilot.
 a) accuses of b) escapes from c) refers to d) forgives for e) dreams of
19. Ephesus is a(n) _____ city whose ruins lie in the village of Selçuk in western Turkey.
 a) current b) ancient c) fresh d) young e) updated
20. All _____ of our photography club joined the trip to Şirince.
 a) chapters b) members c) episodes d) numbers e) spectators
21. The happy stories which my grandfather tells us give me _____. Thanks to them, I feel more optimistic about future.
 a) hope b) fact c) doubt d) ease e) problem
22. There is a close _____ between poverty and bad health.
 a) action b) location c) connection d) decoration e) imagination
23. A _____ study shows that smoking makes people get old easily and quickly.
 a) recent b) kind c) brave d) nasty e) generous
24. We all had a special _____ to learn new selling techniques.
 a) grouping b) mapping c) designing d) training e) planting
25. Boys do better than girls in _____ subjects such as maths and physics.
 a) proper b) separate c) certain d) wrong e) forbidden

26. During the exam, I couldn't _____ on the questions because of my headache.
a) concentrate b) relate c) decorate d) estimate e) participate
27. Because of his illness, my grandfather cannot breathe _____.
a) adversely b) terribly c) closely d) hardly e) normally
28. The smoke in the room may _____ the alarm system so you shouldn't smoke here.
a) motivate b) activate c) collaborate d) generate e) irritate
29. I should buy a quality shampoo for dry and _____ hair.
a) healthy b) bright c) silky d) shiny e) damaged
30. A successful government should work to _____ road and rail services.
a) destroy b) simulate c) improve d) reduce e) spoil
31. If you want to get this job, you need to have good communication _____.
a) difficulties b) problems c) questions d) skills e) responses
32. Could you please tell me the _____ cost of the trip?
a) narrow b) selective c) adequate d) overall e) finite
33. He is an intelligent student with an extremely _____ mind.
a) lazy b) sharp c) easy d) low e) calm
34. The crime rate has lately increased because of social and economic _____.
a) routines b) manners c) factors d) stages e) trials
35. The nightclubs in the city generally _____ young and single people.
a) prevent b) reject c) fire d) attract e) dismiss
36. _____ of the city are protesting about the new shopping centers these days.
a) residents b) liars c) beggars d) hunters e) priests
37. We should increase the use of environmentally safer energy _____.
a) effects b) outcomes c) reasons d) sources e) guides
38. Most students of our university have internet _____ in their houses.
a) access b) price c) information d) strategy e) technique
39. The footballer has two _____: he can have an operation or he can give up playing football.
a) benefits b) problems c) options d) objections e) advantages

40. Going to gym regularly will improve both your health and _____.
a) quantity b) relativity c) isolation d) strength e) amount
41. Some scientists _____ that the Earth's temperature will rise by as much as 5° over the next 20 years.
a) rely b) predict c) invite d) expose e) depend
42. Everybody was excited about the Disneyland trip, _____ my little daughter Wendy.
a) commonly b) frequently c) occasionally d) humbly e) especially
43. If somebody has _____, his or her ability can be developed.
a) arrogance b) shyness c) potential d) modesty e) egoism
44. You shouldn't give any decisions under the _____ of alcohol.
a) origin b) cause c) atmosphere d) influence e) entertainment
45. İzmir has a _____ of around 4.2 million.
a) population b) operation c) creation d) solution e) revolution

APPENDIX 6. Strategy Training Material for the Experimental Group (Week 1)

Guessing Unknown Words From Context

Strategy Training-Week 1

A good way to guess the meanings of unknown words in a text is to look at the context. There are several ways of using context clues to help you determine a word's meaning:

1. The first way of guessing the meaning of an unknown word is to use knowledge of **grammar rules-parts of speech in the sentence**. In order to understand the purpose of a sentence and the meaning of an unknown word, we should look whether a word is a noun, verb, adjective or adverb.

Example: The school could **avert** the spread of flu by closing during flu season.

In the sentence above, **avert** is a verb. It comes after the subject of the sentence and a modal verb, and it is followed by an object. Moreover, determining other action statements in the sentence helps us define the unknown word's meaning.

Exercises:

Read the sentences below and identify the part of speech of the bold words.

1. The mother **caressed** her crying child with great tenderness.
a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb
2. The patient walked **clumsily** because of the plaster casts on his legs.
a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb
3. The kids at this age tend to ask **awkward** questions - like 'Where do babies come from?'.
a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb
4. Paul learned to value his father's **wisdom** and advice.
a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb
5. The tabloid newspapers love **salacious** gossip.
a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

2. The second way of guessing the meaning of an unknown word is to look for a **definition** or **explanation** of the word within the sentence or in the following sentence. Definition clues may include commas, dashes, and parentheses.

Example: In order to keep our puppies in the garden, we built a **parapet**, a low wall.

In the sentence above, the unknown word's meaning is given after the comma which comes after the word. From the definition, we understand that the word "**parapet**" means "a low wall".

Exercises:

Read the sentences below and write the bold words' meaning under each sentence.

1. On the back cover you can find the **synopsis**, so you can get the idea of the story.

Meaning: _____

2. The killer was in a state of **wrath**-a sense of deep anger.

Meaning: _____

3. She pretended to be ill, but it was only a **ruse**, that is, a clever trick to fool her parents.

Meaning: _____

4. His **grudge**, or hatred, for socializing with people led him to live a lonely life.

Meaning: _____

5. Most animals here are **omnivores**, animals that eat both plants and animals.

Meaning: _____

3. The third way of guessing the meaning of an unknown word is to look for a **contrast** or **antonym** of the word within the sentence or in the following sentence. Certain words or phrases such as “but, although, unlike, however, while, rather than, on the other hand etc.” may signal contrast in a sentence.

Example: He was **ungrateful** and kept complaining rather than showing appreciation for the gift.

In the sentence above, the unknown word’s meaning is understood by looking at the phrase that comes after the contrast signal “rather than”. We understand that “**ungrateful**” means “not showing gratitude”.

Exercises:

Read the sentences below and write the bold words’ meaning under each sentence.

1. I **succumbed** to the temptation of the second piece of cake while my friend resisted.

Meaning: _____

2. Although Tom’s suit was **costly**, his shoes were cheap.

Meaning: _____

3. Although the time in a dentist’s chair is **brief**, it can feel like several hours.

Meaning: _____

4. Most people mow a lawn in **straight** lines; however, Chris made a zigzag pattern.

Meaning: _____

5. The **elder** sister wore a pink dress; on the other hand the younger one wore a blue one.

Meaning: _____

APPENDIX 7. Strategy Training Material for the Experimental Group (Week 2)

Guessing Unknown Words From Context

Strategy Training-Week 2

A good way to guess the meanings of unknown words in a text is to look at the context. There are several ways of using context clues to help you determine a word's meaning:

1. A way of guessing the meaning of an unknown word is to look for an **example** in the sentence. Examples are often signaled by words or phrases such as "like, for instance, this, such as, especially, include(s), these, for example etc."

Example: He is known for his **wittiness**; for instance, he is always able to think of a funny answer for everything.

In the sentence above, the unknown word's meaning is given after the phrase "for instance". We understand from the sentence that "**wittiness**" means "ability to be smart and funny".

Exercises:

Read the sentences below and write the bold words' meanings under each sentence.

1. Famous **conquistadors** include Cortes, who conquered Aztec Empire and Pizarro, who conquered Incan Empire.

Meaning: _____

2. We need to find a **sleuth**, such as Sherlock Holmes, in order to solve this crime.

Meaning: _____

3. There are many forms of **transportation**, such as a bus, a tram, or a train, that can take you to the marketplace.

Meaning: _____

4. **Nutritious** foods, such as fruits and vegetables, improve our health.

Meaning: _____

5. **Precipitation**, such as snow or rain, falls from the sky.

Meaning: _____

2. Another way of guessing the meaning of an unknown word is to look for inference clues in a sentence. Inference clues require the reader to use his/her logic and reasoning skills in order to understand the meaning of an unknown word. Even though the word is not directly defined, the reader can logically reason out the meaning using the information provided in the context.

Example: Susan says: “I hate being with my tedious relatives every holiday. What a dull week I passed with them. I was bored every minute. Their conversation was absolutely **bland**.”

In the example above, the inference clues are in the first three sentences of the speaker. She complains about her dull week with her tedious relatives, and she also says that she was bored every minute. We understand from these clues that the unknown word “**bland**” may mean “uninteresting or boring”.

Exercises:

Read the sentences below and write the bold words’ meanings under each sentence.

1. The old man was so **famished** that people felt sorry for him and gave him some food to eat.

Meaning: _____

2. John is crazy about shopping. He always goes to **haberdashery** and buys himself nice suits, shirts and trousers.

Meaning: _____

3. I have never seen such an **amiable** person like Louis. He has many friends and gets along with everyone.

Meaning: _____

4. Thomas is quite **versatile**; he is a good student, a world-class swimmer, an excellent cook and a wonderful car mechanic.

Meaning: _____

5. **Vast** amount of food and drink were consumed at the wedding as **there were** at least five hundred people at the wedding.

Meaning: _____

3. Another way of guessing the meaning of an unknown word is to look for **cause and effect clues** in the sentence. Cause and effect clues are often signaled by words or phrases such as “because, since, therefore, thus, so, etc.”.

Example: Sue wanted to impress all her dinner guests with the food she cooked, so she carefully studied the necessary **culinary** arts.

In the sentence above, the unknown word’s meaning is given after “so”. From the clue, we understand that “**culinary**” means “food preparation”.

Exercises:

Read the sentences below and write the bold words’ meanings under each sentence.

1. Jane stopped taking the drugs because she was afraid of their **deleterious** effects.

Meaning: _____

2. Because Mary had a history of **mendacity**, nobody believed her story.

Meaning: _____

3. Since my parents **reconciled**, they started to talk to each other again.

Meaning: _____

4. If the snow continues like this, it may **impede** our progress.

Meaning: _____

5. As Tom’s pain **abated**, he started to feel relaxed and happy.

Meaning: _____

APPENDIX 8. Strategy Training Material for the Experimental Group (Week 3)

Guessing Unknown Words From Context

Strategy Training-Week 3

A good way to guess the meanings of unknown words in a text is to look at the context. There are several ways of using context clues to help you determine a word's meaning. A way of guessing the meaning of an unknown word is to look at the **parts of the words**. Knowing the root words, suffixes (endings), prefixes (beginnings) and their meanings can help a reader figure out the meaning of an unknown word.

What are root words?

A root word is the basic word after all the affixes of the word are taken away. For example, the root word of “disappear” is “appear”. The prefix is “dis-”.

Here are some common root words from Greek:

Root	Meaning	Examples
anti	against	antibacterial, antidote, antithesis
ast(er)	star	asteroid, astronomy, astronaut
aqu	water	aquarium, aquatic, aqualung
auto	self	automatic, automate, autobiography
biblio	book	bibliography, bibliophile
bio	life	biography, biology, biodegradable
chrom	color	monochromatic, phytochrome
chrono	time	chronic, synchronize, chronicle
doc	teach	document, docile, doctrinal
dyna	power	dynasty, dynamic, dynamite
geo	earth	geography, geology, geometry
gno	to know	agnostic, acknowledge

graph	write	autograph, graphic, demographic
hydr	water	dehydrate, hydrant, hydropower
kinesis	movement	kinetic, photokinesis
logos	word, study	astrology, biology, theologian
narc	sleep	narcotic, narcolepsy
path	feel	empathy, pathetic, apathy
phil	love	philosophy, bibliophile, philanthropy
phon	sound	microphone, phonograph, telephone
photo	light	photograph, photocopy, photon
schem	plan	scheme, schematic
syn	together, with	synthetic, photosynthesis
tele	far	telescope, telepathy, television
tropos	turning	heliotrope, tropical

Here are some common root words from Latin:

Root	Meaning	Examples
ab	to move away	abstract, abstain, aversion
acer, acri	bitter	acid, acrimony, exacerbate
audi	hear	audible, audience, auditorium
bene	good	benefit, benign, benefactor
brev	short	abbreviate, brief
circ	round	circus, circulate
dict	say	dictate, edict, dictionary

duc	lead, make	deduce, produce, educate
fund	bottom	founder, foundation, funding
gen	to birth	gene, generate, generous
hab	to have	ability, exhibit, inhabit
jur	law	jury, justice, justify
lev	to lift	levitate, elevate, leverage
log, logue	thought	logic, apologize, analogy
luc, lum	light	lucid, illuminate, translucent
manu	hand	manual, manicure, manipulate
mis, mit	send	missile, transmit, permit
omni	all	omnivorous, omnipotent, omniscient
pac	peace	pacify, pacific, pacifist
port	carry	export, import, important
quit	silent, restive	tranquil, requiem, acquit
scrib, script	to write	script, proscribe, describe
sens	to feel	sensitive, sentient, resent
terr	earth	terrain, territory, extraterrestrial
tim	to fear	timid, timorous
vac	empty	vacuum, vacate, evacuate
vid, vis	to see	video, vivid, invisible

Taken from <https://www.thoughtco.com/common-word-roots-in-english-1692793>

What are prefixes?

A prefix is added to the front of a word to change its meaning. For example, the word “resubmit” has the prefix “re-”, which means again. Therefore, we understand that the word means “submit again”.

Here is a list of common prefixes with some examples:

Prefix	Meaning	Example
a-, an-	without	amoral, atypical
ante-	before	antecedent, antenatal
anti-	against	anti-establishment
auto-	self	autopilot
circum-	around	circumvent
co-	with	co-conspirator, co-pilot
com-, con-	with	companion, contact
contra-	against	contradiction
de-	off	delist, devalue
dis-	not	disappear
en-	put into	enclose, envelop
ex-	out of, former	extract, ex-governor
extra-	beyond, more than	extracurricular
hetero-	different	heterosexual
homo-	same	homonym, homophone

hyper-	over, more	hyperactive
il-, im-, in-, ir-	not, without	illogical, impractical, inconsiderate, irresponsible
in-	into	insert
inter-	between	internet, intersection,
intra-	between	intranet, intravenous
macro-	large	macronutrients
micro-	small	microscope
mono-	one	monocle
non-	not, without	nonentity, nonstarter,
omni-	all, every	omnipresent, omniscient
post-	after	post-mortem
pre-, pro-	before, forward	precede, project
sub-	under	substandard
syn-	same time	synchronize
super-	above	supervisor, superhuman
trans-	across	transmit
tri-	three	tripod, triceratops
un-	not	undone, unfinished,
uni-	one	unicorn, unilaterally

Taken from <https://www.grammar-monster.com/glossary/prefix.htm>

Exercise:

When a prefix and a root word come together, the meaning of the words are mostly changed. Find the meaning of each word part below. Write the word they make and the definition of that word.

PREFIX	PREFIX MEANING	ROOT WORD	ROOT WORD MEANING	NEW WORD	NEW WORD MEANING
trans-		atlantic			
hyper-		active			
auto-		mobile			
sub-		marine			
ex-		port			
dis-		place			
il-		legal			
inter-		active			
re-		cycle			
pre-		historic			
il-		logical			
omni-		potent			

APPENDIX 9. Strategy Training Material for the Experimental Group (Week 4)

Guessing Unknown Words From Context

Strategy Training-Week 4

A good way to guess the meanings of **unknown** words in a text is to look at the context. There are several ways of using context clues to help you determine a word's meaning. A way of guessing the meaning of an **unknown** word is to look at the **parts of the words**. Knowing the root words, prefixes (beginnings), suffixes (endings) and their meanings can help a reader figure out the meaning of an unknown word.

What are suffixes?

A suffix is a letter or a group of letters added to the end of a word to change its meaning. For example, the word "joyous" has the suffix "-ous" which converts the noun "joy" into an adjective. Here is a list of common suffixes with some examples.

Suffix	Meaning	Example
-able, -ible	can be done	comfortable, passable
-al, -ial	having the characteristics of	personal
-ed	past-tense verbs (weak verbs)	danced, jumped
-en	made of	golden, wooden
-er	Comparative	tidier, nicer
-er, -or	one who	actor, narrator, worker
-est	Superlative	nicest, greatest
-ful	full or full of	cupful, careful
-ic	having characteristics of	linguistic, sarcastic
-ing	verb form (present participle and gerund)	dancing, singing
-ion, -tion, -ation, ition	act or process	attraction, attrition
-ity, -ty	state of	humility, infinity

-ive, -ative, -itive	adjective form of a noun	expensive, plaintive
-less	Without	topless, fearless
-ly	adverb ending	nicely, quickly
-ment	action or process	enjoyment, entrenchment
-ness	state of, condition of	eagerness, kindness
-ous, -eous, -ious	possessing the qualities of	erroneous, joyous
-s, -es	Plural	tables, foxes
-y	characterized by	fatty, happy, jumpy

Taken from <https://www.grammar-monster.com/glossary/suffix.htm>

Exercise 1: There are three suffixes next to each root word. Only one suffix is right for the root word. Choose the correct suffix and add it to the root word to make a new word. Write it in the third column and write its meaning in the fourth column as in the example below.

Ex: use	ly est ful	useful	practical/ beneficial
hope	er less ible		
health	est y ary		
decide	able est sion		
confuse	ion tion cian		
soft	ing less ly		
act	ful ly or		
prime	ary ery ly		

Exercise 2:

A. Complete the root word with the correct suffix to make an adjective. You can use “ous”, “able”, “y” or “ful”.

- | | |
|-----------------|--------------|
| 1. danger_____ | 6. fam_____ |
| 2. comfort_____ | 7. sun_____ |
| 3. pain_____ | 8. wind_____ |
| 4. enjoy_____ | 9. suit_____ |
| 5. help_____ | 10. use_____ |

B. Fill in the blanks in the sentences with a suitable word from Exercise 2A.

1. Let's have breakfast in the garden. It's a beautiful and _____ day.
2. This armchair is my favourite one. It is really _____.
3. Having a pool party is the most _____ activity I have ever done.
4. The teacher was so _____ that I could solve all problems easily.
5. It can be _____ to cross the main street as there are no traffic lights there.
6. Beckham is one of the most _____ football players in the world.
7. It's too _____ to go sailing today. Let's do it another day.
8. This book is really _____. It has lots of information about my thesis project.
9. This film isn't very _____ for children under 13. There is too much violence in it.
10. My toothache was really _____ so I had to go to the dentist.

APPENDIX 10. Strategy Training Material for the Experimental Group (Week 5)

Guessing Unknown Words From Context

Strategy Training-Week 5

A) Read the text and try to guess the meanings of bold nonsense words using the context.

THE INCREDIBLE DOLPHIN

Many people say dolphins are very **sudien**. They seem to be able to think, understand, and learn things quickly. But are they **yuriant** like humans or more like cats or dogs? Dolphins use their brains differently from people. But scientists say dolphin intelligence and human intelligence are **flagget** in some ways. How?

FACT 1: Talk to Me

Like humans, every dolphin has its own “name”. The name is a special whistle. Each dolphin chooses a specific whistle for itself, usually by its first birthday. Actually, scientists think dolphins, like people, “talk” to each other about a lot of things, such as their age, their feelings, or finding food. And, like humans, dolphins use a **muke** of sounds and body language to communicate. But understanding their **rigation** is not easy for humans. No one “speaks dolphin” yet, but some scientists are trying to learn.

FACT 2: Let’s Play

Dolphins are also social animals. They live in groups called *pods*, and they often join others from different pods to play **lalies** and have fun—just like people. In fact, playing together is something only intelligent animals do.

FACT 3: Fishermen’s Helpers

Dolphins and humans are similar in another way: both make plans to get something they want. In the seas of southern Brazil, for example, dolphins **ciert** an interesting strategy to get food. When fish are near a boat, dolphins signal to the fishermen to put their nets in the water. Using this **gribbet**, the men can **hasht** a lot of fish. What is the advantage for the dolphins? Why do they **tisset** the men? The dolphins get to eat some of the fish.

B) Circle the parts of speech of the bold nonsense words in the text.

- | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|---------|---------|--------------|-----------|
| 1) “ sudien ” is a/an: | a) noun | b) verb | c) adjective | d) adverb |
| 2) “ yuriant ” is a/an: | a) noun | b) verb | c) adjective | d) adverb |
| 3) “ flagget ” is a/an: | a) noun | b) verb | c) adjective | d) adverb |
| 4) “ muke ” is a/an: | a) noun | b) verb | c) adjective | d) adverb |
| 5) “ rigation ” is a/an: | a) noun | b) verb | c) adjective | d) adverb |

6) "**lalies**" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

7) "**ciert**" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

8) "**gribbet**" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

9) "**hasht**" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

10) "**tisset**" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

C) Write a synonym for the bold nonsense words in the text.

- 1) Sudien :
- 2) Yuriant :
- 3) Flagget :
- 4) Muke :
- 5) Rigation :
- 6) Lalies :
- 7) Ciert :
- 8) Gribbet :
- 9) Hasht :
- 10) Tisset :

(The text is taken from *Reading Explorer 1* 2nd Edition by Nancy Douglas and David Bohlke)

A) Read the text and try to guess the meanings of bold nonsense words using the context.

WHO BUILT GIZA'S PYRAMIDS?

For centuries, the pyramids of Giza have been **evere** symbols of Egyptian culture. But who actually built them? For years, we did not know for sure. But archeologists recently discovered an ancient village near the pyramids. Close by, there was also a cemetery where pyramid builders were buried. From studying these places, archeologists can now **bontire** that the pyramids were not built by slaves or foreigners (or space aliens!). **Yonny** Egyptians built them.

It took about eighty years to build the pyramids. Archeologists **sugyt** that about 20,000–30,000 people were **keiky** in completing the **muf**. The workers had different **selos**. Some dug up¹ the rock, some moved it, and some shaped it into **tlocks**. People also worked on different teams, each with its own name. On a wall in Khufu's Great Pyramid, for example, a group of workers wrote "Friends of Khufu." Teams often **wowse** to do a job faster.

Life for these workers was hard. "We can see that in their skeletons," says Azza Mohamed Sarry El-Din, a scientist studying bodies found in the cemetery. The bones show signs of arthritis,² which developed from carrying heavy things for a long time. Archeologists have also found many female skeletons in the village and cemetery. The damage to their bones is similar to the men's. Their lives may have been even tougher: male workers lived to age 40–45, but women to only 30–35. However, workers usually had enough food, and they also had medical care if they got sick or hurt.

The work was challenging, but laborers were **dpuy** of their work. "It's because they were not just building the tomb of their king," says Egyptian archeologist Zahi Hawass. "They were building Egypt. It was a national project, and everyone was a participant."³

¹ If you **dig up** something (or, **dig** something **up**), you take it out of the ground.

² **Arthritis** is an illness that causes the hands, knees, or other joints to hurt.

³ A **participant** is a person who joins a certain activity.

B) Circle the parts of speech of the bold nonsense words in the text.

- 1) "**evere**" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 2) "**bontire**" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 3) "**yonny**" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 4) "**sugyt**" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------

5) “**keiky**” is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

6) “**muf**” is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

7) “**selos**” is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

8) “**tlocks**” is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

9) “**wowse**” is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

10) “**dpuy**” is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

C) Write a synonym for the bold nonsense words in the text.

- 1) Evere :
- 2) Bontire :
- 3) Yonny :
- 4) Sugyt :
- 5) Keiky :
- 6) Muf :
- 7) Selos :
- 8) Tlocks :
- 9) Wowse :
- 10) Dpuy :

(The text is taken from *Reading Explorer 1* 2nd Edition by Nancy Douglas and David Bohlke)

APPENDIX 11. Sample Lesson Plan for the Experimental Group

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Lesson Plan

Goals and Objectives

- To teach target vocabulary through contextual guesswork.
- To practice target vocabulary by using the activities prepared by the instructor.

Time: 45 minutes

Materials:

1. Texts including the target words taken from Reading Explorer 1
2. Activity sheets with vocabulary exercises prepared by the instructor
3. Computers/Tablets

Target Words:

Adventure, goal, journey, route, modern, ancient, record, advice, flexible, challenge

Lesson steps:

- 1) As a pre-reading activity, students are asked some warm-up questions about the text. (5 minutes)
- 2) As a while reading activity, students read the text silently without dictionaries. (10 minutes)
- 3) Students focus on the bold-faced unknown words and try to guess their meanings from the context. (10 minutes)
- 4) As a post-reading activity, students do the follow-up target vocabulary exercises. (10 minutes)
- 5) Students check their guesses and answers with their peers in groups. (10 minutes)
- 6) The teacher stops sharing her screen and the session ends.

Teacher's notes:

For distance education:

- The lesson materials will be shared with students through the screen sharing feature on the distance education platform.
- The students will be put in groups of three or four through private chat rooms on the distance education platform.
- Upon finishing the session, students' access to the recorded video will be blocked so that students cannot revise the target words. By this way, no students and groups will become advantageous over another. The students will be tested on what they can remember from the sessions.

For unknown words:

- No dictionaries or other sources will be used.
- There will be no teacher intervention.
- There will be peer check and group discussion.

For reading text:

- The text will be read silently.

APPENDIX 12. Sample Lesson Plan for the Control Group

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN FOR THE CONTROL GROUP

Lesson Plan

Goals and Objectives

- To teach target vocabulary through definitions in the gloss.
- To practice target vocabulary by using the activities prepared by the instructor.

Time: 45 minutes

Materials:

1. Sample sentences containing the target words.
2. Glosses containing the monolingual definitions of target words.
3. Bilingual dictionaries.
4. Activity sheets with vocabulary exercises prepared by the instructor.
5. Computers/Tablets

Target Words:

Adventure, goal, journey, route, modern, ancient, record, advice, flexible, challenge

Lesson steps:

- 1) Students read the sample sentences containing the target words. (5 minutes)
- 2) Students check the meanings of target words provided in the marginal gloss. (10 minutes)
- 3) Students recheck the meanings of the target words by using bilingual dictionaries. (10 minutes)
- 4) Students do the follow-up target vocabulary exercises. (10 minutes)
- 5) The teacher gives the correct answers and students check their answers. (10 minutes)
- 6) The teacher stops sharing her screen and the session ends.

Teacher's notes:

For distance education:

- The lesson materials will be shared with students through screen sharing feature on the distance education platform.
- Upon finishing the session, students' access to the recorded video will be blocked so that students cannot revise the target words. By this way, no students and groups will become advantageous over another. The students will be tested on what they can remember from the sessions.

For unknown words:

- Both L1 and L2 definitions of the target words will be provided.
- There will be no peer check.

For sample sentences and glosses:

- Sample sentences and definitions in glosses will be read silently.

APPENDIX 13. Instructional Material for the Experimental Group (Week 1)

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

FIRST WEEK

- A) Read the text and try to guess the meanings of bold words from the context without using a dictionary.

The Trip of A Lifetime

Many people dream of going on a great travel adventure.

Most of us keep dreaming; others make it happen. . .

Gregg Bleakney's dream was to travel the Americas from top to bottom. He got the idea after he finished a 1,600 kilometer (1,000 mile) bike ride. Gregg's friend, Brooks Allen, was also a cyclist. The two friends talked and decided their **goal**: they would travel from Alaska to Argentina—by bike.

To pay for the **journey**, Gregg and Brooks worked and saved money for years. Once they were on the road, they often camped outdoors or stayed in **hostels**.¹ In many places along their **route**, local people opened their homes to the two friends and gave them food.

The Lessons From the Road

During their trip, Gregg and Brooks cycled through deserts, rainforests, and mountains. They visited **modern** cities and explored **ancient ruins**² such as Tikal in Guatemala. In many places, they met other cyclists from all over the world.

In May 2007—two years, twelve countries, and over 30,500 km (19,000 miles) later—Gregg eventually reached Ushuaia, Argentina, at the tip of South America. (Near Guatemala, Brooks had to return to the U.S., and Gregg continued without him.)

Gregg and Brooks kept a **record** of their adventures in an online blog. The trip taught both men a lot about traveling. Here is some of Gregg's **advice**:

Travel **light**. The less **baggage** you have, the less you'll worry about.

Be **flexible**. Don't plan everything. Then you'll be more relaxed and happy, even when there are **challenges** along the way.

Be **polite**. As one traveller told Gregg, "Always remember that nobody wants to fight, cheat, or rob³ a nice **guy**."

¹ A **hostel** is a cheap place to stay and sleep when travelling.

² The **ruins** of something are the parts of it that remain after it has been broken.

³ If someone is **robbed**, they have money or property stolen from them.

(The text is taken from *Reading Explorer 1* 2nd Edition by Nancy Douglas and David Bohlke)

B) Circle the parts of speech of the bold words in the text.

1) "adventure" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

2) "goal" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

3) "journey" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

4) "route" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

5) "modern" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

6) "ancient" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

7) "record" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

8) "advice" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

9) "flexible" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

10) "challenge" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

C) Fill in the blanks in the sentences with the correct form of the target words.

goal / adventure / modern / route / flexible
challenge / advice / record / journey / ancient

- 1) The new tasks that our team leader has been assigned with mean that he will have to deal with new _____.
- 2) Yesterday I watched a film about the _____ of two friends travelling across Africa.
- 3) Because of the road repairs, we had to find an alternative _____ from the north to the south of the town.
- 4) When I was a young girl, my father was fairly _____ about what time I needed to be home.
- 5) The bus _____ from London to Athens was really tiring as it took 60 hours.
- 6) If you are a new mother, it is better to ask your parents for _____ about bringing up your child.
- 7) _____ people used to take their dirty clothes to nearby rivers and wash them by hand.
- 8) My immediate _____ is to earn enough money so that I can support my family.
- 9) Do you have a/an _____ of how much you spent during your holiday in Greece?
- 10) She is staying in the most _____, innovative and well-equipped hospital in the city.

D) Match the sentence halves including the target words.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1) Tom's hours are really flexible | a) as it took 20 hours. |
| 2) Modern methods which are used in farming | b) on ancient civilizations. |
| 3) Having a disabled child | c) is to become the CEO of the company. |
| 4) The driver didn't know the route | d) seem to destroy the countryside. |
| 5) He is keeping a record of his experiences | e) is a great challenge for her. |
| 6) This book is about the adventures | f) so he took us to a wrong street. |
| 7) He told me about his goal which | g) by writing a diary. |
| 8) She took the doctor's advice | h) of two mountain bikers. |
| 9) He is doing a project | i) and stopped taking sleeping pills. |
| 10) The journey was too tiring | j) so he can leave work whenever he wants. |

APPENDIX 14. Instructional Material for the Experimental Group (Week 2)

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

SECOND WEEK

A) Read the text and try to guess the meanings of bold words from the context without using a dictionary.

Hip-Hop Planet

Hip-hop started in New York City in the 1970s. Today many countries have their own local hip-hop scenes.¹ Artists from different **backgrounds** rap about everything from cars and designer clothes to social issues. Here are two examples.

The Czech Republic

Europe is home to 8–12 million Roma—a group of people often called “gypsies.” Many Roma are poor. In some places, they also **face** discrimination.²

Now some Roma teenagers are using hip-hop to teach **tolerance**. In the Czech Republic, Roma teens meet for a hip-hop class called “Rap for Peace Hip-Hop.” Their instructor is Shameema Williams. She is a **member** of the all-female rap group Godessa, from South Africa.

In the lessons, the teens learn to write rap music and use it to teach others about Roma **culture**. These teens, Shameema believes, can use the music to change their lives and other people’s **attitudes**.

Dakar, Senegal

Assane N’Diaye, 19, loves hip-hop music. He grew up in a small fishing village in Senegal. For a time, he was popular as a D.J. in clubs in Dakar, the capital city of Senegal.

Today, Assane lives in his village again. He has formed a rap group with other family members. They rap about their lives as village fishermen, and about working long, hard days and earning almost no money. Many people in their **audience** can understand these things.

“Rap,” Assane says, “doesn’t **belong** to American culture. It belongs here. It has always existed here, because of our pain and our **hardships**...”

N’Diaye **dreams of** having a better life. He wants to make a CD and help his family. Despite his hardships, the music gives Assane **hope**.

¹ You can refer to an area of activity as a **scene**, for example, an art or music scene.

² **Discrimination** means treating a person or group of people less fairly or less well than others.

(The text is taken from *Reading Explorer 1* 2nd Edition by Nancy Douglas and David Bohlke)

B) Circle the parts of speech of the bold words in the text.

1) "backgrounds" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

2) "face" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

3) "member" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

4) "culture" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

5) "attitudes" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

6) "audience" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

7) "belong" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

8) "hardships" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

9) "dreams of" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

10) "hope" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

11) "tolerance" is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

C) Fill in the blanks in the sentences with the correct form of the target words.

hope / dreams of / belong / backgrounds / member
face / hardships / culture / attitudes / audience / tolerance

- 1) I have worked here for 10 years but I never feel that I _____ here.
- 2) In spite of their different _____, they became friends immediately.
- 3) The art club aims to get bigger and draw more _____.
- 4) The writer is planning to write a book about the _____ of cancer sufferers.
- 5) As I'm a sociologist, the _____ of old African tribes have always attracted me.
- 6) She is an excellent teacher. She always has positive _____ towards her students.
- 7) My sister is very interested in literature and she _____ becoming a great novelist in future.
- 8) Even if some things go wrong, we should remember that there is always _____.
- 9) Some countries in Africa frequently _____ financial and social problems.
- 10) I don't have any _____ towards selfish people.
- 11) During the concert, the _____ danced and sang songs with the singer.

D) Match the sentence halves including the target words.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1) The audience laughed a lot | a) as she dreams of becoming a surgeon. |
| 2) I don't know any traditions | b) as she likes different cultures . |
| 3) Tina will study medicine | c) some members left the committee. |
| 4) They don't become friends with Omar | d) when the showman fell on the stage. |
| 5) Ali never lost his hopes | e) that belong to our society. |
| 6) You should face your fears | f) because of his ethnic background . |
| 7) Jane is talking about | g) while he was fighting with cancer. |
| 8) Sue's negative attitudes never changed | h) if you want to learn how to drive a car. |
| 9) Mary always travels abroad | i) the hardships of long distance relationships. |
| 10) Because of political problems | j) and he has no tolerance for any kind of jokes. |
| 11) He is a very serious person | k) so we decided not to work with her. |

APPENDIX 15. Instructional Material for the Experimental Group (Week 3)

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

THIRD WEEK

A) Read the text and try to guess the meanings of bold words from the context without using a dictionary.

A Musical Boost

Is there a **connection** between music and language? According to **recent** studies, the answer is yes: music boosts certain language abilities in the brain. Here we look at two examples.

Music and Hearing

A recent study by researcher Nina Kraus shows that playing a musical instrument can improve a person's hearing ability. As a part of the study, two groups of people listened to a person talking in a noisy room. The people in the first group were musicians, while those in the second group had no musical **training**. The musicians were able to hear the talking person more clearly.

Musicians hear better, says Kraus, because they learn to pay attention to **certain** sounds. Think about violinists in an orchestra. When the violinists play with the group, they hear their own instrument and many others, too. But the violinists must listen closely to what they are playing, and ignore the other sounds. In this way musicians are able to **concentrate** on certain sounds, even in a room with lots of noise.

Music and Speaking

Gottfried Schlaug, a doctor at Harvard Medical School, works with stroke¹ patients. Because of their illness, these people cannot say their names, addresses, or other information **normally**. However, they can still sing. Dr. Schlaug was surprised to find that singing words helped his patients eventually speak. Why does this work? Schlaug isn't sure. Music seems to **activate** different parts of the brain, including the **damaged** parts. This somehow helps patients to use that part of the brain again.

Understanding the Results

Music **improves** concentration, memory, listening **skills**, and our **overall** language abilities. It can even help sick people get better. Playing an instrument or singing, says Nina Kraus, can help us do better in school and keep our brain **sharp** as we get older. Music, she adds, is not only enjoyable, it is also good for us in many other ways.

¹ A **stroke** is an illness of the brain. It can make a person unable to move one side of his or her body. A stroke sometimes damages (hurts) the parts of the brain used for language.

(The text is taken from *Reading Explorer 1* 2nd Edition by Nancy Douglas and David Bohlke)

B) Circle the parts of speech of the bold words in the text.

1) **"connection"** is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

2) **"recent"** is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

3) **"training"** is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

4) **"certain"** is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

5) **"concentrate"** is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

6) **"normally"** is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

7) **"activate"** is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

8) **"damaged"** is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

9) **"improve"** is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

10) **"skill"** is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

11) **"overall"** is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

12) **"sharp"** is a/an:

- a) noun b) verb c) adjective d) adverb

C) Fill in the blanks in the sentences with the correct form of the target words.

recent / certain / training / connection / improve
skill / damaged / activate / normally / sharp / overall
concentrate

- 1) He was much more intelligent than his peers and he really had a _____ mind.
- 2) There are some programs blocking _____ internet pages in order to protect children.
- 3) I am planning to attend a course in Italy to _____ my Italian.
- 4) The car is badly _____ after the accident.
- 5) If you want this job, you should have a three-week-long _____ in order to learn the basics.
- 6) _____ it takes me half an hour to go to work, but today I will be late because of the accident.
- 7) Students need to realize that there is a _____ between their education and their future.
- 8) The _____ number of people that died in the earthquake is not known.
- 9) The financial condition in our country has changed a lot in _____ years.
- 10) If you don't want to _____ the alarm system, you shouldn't make any noise.
- 11) This is an easy job so you don't need to have any special _____ and knowledge.
- 12) I couldn't _____ on the book because of the loud music.

D) Match the sentence halves including the target words.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1) If you are sleepy | a) if you want to get this job. |
| 2) What is the connection between | b) but in summers we move to the countryside. |
| 3) The overall situation is good | c) it will be difficult to concentrate on the test. |
| 4) I don't know what but | d) factory farming and human health. |
| 5) You need to have good computer skills | e) but there are some minor problems. |
| 6) It was really difficult to fix | f) something activated the car alarm. |
| 7) A recent report said that | g) in order to improve the financial situation. |
| 8) Normally we live in the city | h) my old and damaged bicycle. |
| 9) He was not successful during the training | i) small amounts of chocolate are good for health. |
| 10) He has a sharp mind | j) so he couldn't get the job. |
| 11) Certain topics are important | k) and he can get complex things so easily. |
| 12) Something must be done | l) and they must be revised. |

APPENDIX 16. Instructional Material for the Experimental Group (Week 4)

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

FOURTH WEEK

A) Read the text and try to guess the meanings of bold words from the context without using a dictionary.

Global Cities

The Global Cities Index

"New York is a star-the city of cities," wrote author John Gunther. But why is New York-or London, Paris, or Tokyo-a great city? To answer this question, the creators of Global Cities Index looked at five factors: business, people, media, entertainment and politics.

Factor	What it measures
Business	How many global companies are in the city? Does the city do a lot of international business?
People	Does the city attract talented people from around the world? Are the city's universities good? How many residents have college degrees?
Media	Is it easy to get news and information from different sources (TV, radio, Internet)? How many residents have internet access?
Entertainment	Does the city have many entertainment options: museums, sports, music, and different types of restaurants?
Politics	How many embassies and international organizations are in the city?

Future Leaders

Most cities on the Global Cities Index are strong in certain areas. Seoul's **strength**, for example, is business, while Los Angeles's strength is people. New York, London, Paris and Tokyo are at the top because they are strong in all five areas.

Which cities will be more powerful in the future? Creators of the Global Cities Index **predict** the most growth in the following areas:

- **Asia:** In China, cities such as Beijing and Shanghai will grow, **especially** in the areas of business. In ten years, they may be as powerful as New York or Tokyo. Indian cities such as Mumbai and New Delhi also have a lot of business **potential**.
- **South America:** Rio de Janeiro and Sao Paulo in Brazil, and Bogota in Colombia, will be more powerful. In these cities, the middle class is **growing**, and life for many is improving.
- **The Middle East:** Istanbul and Ankara in Turkey, and Cairo in Egypt, will have more **influence** in international business and politics- especially in helping East and West work together.

In ten years, the top four cities on the index may be different, but one thing is certain. With over 50 percent of the world's **population** now living in urban areas, tomorrow's **global cities** will be more powerful than ever.

(The text is taken from *Reading Explorer 1* 2nd Edition by Nancy Douglas and David Bohlske)

B) Circle the parts of speech of the bold words in the text.

- 1) "factor" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 2) "attract" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 3) "resident" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 4) "source" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 5) "access" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 6) "option" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 7) "strength" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 8) "predict" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 9) "especially" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 10) "potential" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 11) "influence" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------
- 12) "population" is a/an:

a) noun	b) verb	c) adjective	d) adverb
---------	---------	--------------	-----------

C) Fill in the blanks in the sentences with the correct form of the target words.

**strength / especially / attract / predict / access / option / source /
resident / influence / population / factor / potential**

- 1) What kind of _____ did you use while writing your essay on Ottoman history?
- 2) The new shopping center _____ many people with its various facilities such as movie theaters, bowling clubs and various restaurants.
- 3) His ability to persuade people easily is his greatest _____.
- 4) Advertisements may have negative or positive _____ on children.
- 5) The seminar about special kids was very useful for parents, _____ for those who have autistic children.
- 6) Vatican is the smallest independent country with a _____ of 800.
- 7) _____ of this city are generally young students as there are five universities here.
- 8) Smoking is one of the most important _____ in the development of lung cancer.
- 9) Some scientists _____ that the Earth's temperature will rise by as much as 5° over the next 20 years.
- 10) This application helps you to have a quick and easy _____ to your bank accounts.
- 11) The new football player is very skilled and he has the _____ to be a popular player around the world.
- 12) There weren't many _____ about accommodation so we chose to stay in a small but clean hotel.

D) Match the sentence halves including the target words.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1) Susan really wants the job | a) are animal-friendly people who feed street animals. |
| 2) I don't like long walks | b) the bad influences of smoking on human health. |
| 3) He didn't want to accept the job offer | c) that affect the climate change and global warming. |
| 4) Residents of our neighborhood | d) especially in cold weather. |
| 5) Every child should be taught | e) as the salary and travel opportunities attract her. |
| 6) Florida is a multicultural state | f) but he had no other options. |
| 7) There are many factors | g) the temperature will reach 40°C today. |
| 8) Cats should always have access | h) which has a large Jewish population. |
| 9) Before choosing a career | i) with the potential to be world famous. |
| 10) Television is the main source | j) to fresh and clean water. |
| 11) He is an intelligent mathematician | k) you should know your strengths and weaknesses. |
| 12) They predict that | l) of information for many Turkish people. |

APPENDIX 17. Instructional Material for the Control Group (Week 1)

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR THE CONTROL GROUP

FIRST WEEK

A) Read the single sentences below and learn the meanings of the unknown words by looking at the gloss in the right margin.

1. It was a great **adventure**.
2. What is your **goal**?
3. It was a nice **journey**.
4. What is the shortest **route** to school?
5. The house was **modern**.
6. This is an **ancient** city.
7. We **eventually** found a house.
8. This is the **record** of our expenses.
9. He didn't take my **advice**.
10. My program is **flexible**.
11. I accepted his **challenge**.

Adventure(n.): an exciting experience in which dangerous or unusual things happen

Goal (n.): something that you hope to achieve in the future/synonym of aim

Journey (n.): an occasion when you travel from one place to another, especially over a long distance/synonym of trip

Route (n.): a way from one place to another

Modern (adj.): belonging to present time or more recent time

Ancient (adj.): belonging to a time long ago in history, especially thousands of years ago/opposite of modern

Eventually (adv.): after a long time, or after a lot of things have happened/synonym of finally

Record (n.): information about something that is written down or stored on computer, film etc. so that it can be looked at in the future

Advice (n.): an opinion you give someone about what they should do

Flexible (adj.): a person, plan etc. that is flexible can change or be changed easily to suit any new situation

Challenge (n.): something difficult

B) Fill in the blanks in the sentences with the correct form of the target words.

goal / adventure / modern / route / flexible
challenge / advice / record / journey / ancient

- 1) The new tasks that our team leader has been assigned with mean that he will have to deal with new _____.
- 2) Yesterday I watched a film about the _____ of two friends travelling across Africa.
- 3) Because of the road repairs, we had to find an alternative _____ from the north to the south of the town.
- 4) When I was a young girl, my father was fairly _____ about what time I needed to be home.
- 5) The bus _____ from London to Athens was really tiring as it took 60 hours.
- 6) If you are a new mother, it is better to ask your parents for _____ about bringing up your child.
- 7) _____ people used to take their dirty clothes to nearby rivers and wash them by hand.
- 8) My immediate _____ is to earn enough money so that I can support my family.
- 9) Do you have a/an _____ of how much you spent during your holiday in Greece?
- 10) She is staying in the most _____, innovative and well-equipped hospital in the city.

C) Match the sentence halves including the target words.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1) Tom's hours are really flexible | a) as it took 20 hours. |
| 2) Modern methods, which are used in farming | b) a project on ancient civilizations. |
| 3) Having a disabled child | c) is to become the CEO of the company. |
| 4) The driver didn't know the route | d) seem to destroy the countryside. |
| 5) He is keeping a record of his experiences | e) is a great challenge for her. |
| 6) This book is about the adventures | f) so he took us to a wrong street. |
| 7) He told me about his goal which | g) by writing a diary. |
| 8) She took the doctor's advice | h) of two mountain bikers. |
| 9) He is doing | i) and stopped taking sleeping pills. |
| 10) The journey was too tiring | j) so he can leave work whenever he wants. |

APPENDIX 18. Instructional Material for the Control Group (Week 2)

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR THE CONTROL GROUP

SECOND WEEK

A) Read the single sentences below and learn the meanings of the unknown words by looking at the gloss in the right margin.

1. His **background** is unknown.
2. What problems did you **face**?
3. Who is the new **member**?
4. This is a different **culture**.
5. I didn't like his **attitude**.
6. The **audience** was bored.
7. I don't **belong** to this group.
8. They experienced some **hardships**.
9. What does she **dream of**?
10. I still have **hopes**.
11. We have no **tolerance** for him.

Background (n.): someone's family, education, previous work etc.

Face (v.): if you face or are faced with a difficult situation, or if a difficult situation faces you, it is going to affect you and you must deal with it

Member (n.): a person or country that belongs to a group or organization

Culture (n.): the beliefs, way of life, art, and customs that are shared and accepted by people in a particular society

Attitude (n.): the opinions and feelings that you usually have about something, especially when this is shown in your behavior

Audience (n.): a group of people who come to watch and listen to someone speaking or performing in public

Belong (v.): if something belongs somewhere, that is the right place or situation for it

Hardship (n.): synonym of difficulty

Dream of (v.): to think about something that you would like to happen or have/synonym of wish

Hope (n.): a feeling of wanting something to happen or be true and believing that it is possible or likely

Tolerance (n): willingness to allow people to do, say, or believe what they want without criticizing or punishing them

B) Fill in the blanks in the sentences with the correct form of the target words.

hope / dreams of / belong / backgrounds / member
face / hardships / culture / attitudes / audience / tolerance

- 1) I have worked here for 10 years but I never feel that I _____ here.
- 2) In spite of their different _____, they became friends immediately.
- 3) The art club aims to get bigger and draw more _____.
- 4) The writer is planning to write a book about the _____ of cancer sufferers.
- 5) As I'm a sociologist, the _____ of old African tribes have always attracted me.
- 6) She is an excellent teacher. She always has positive _____ towards her students.
- 7) My sister is very interested in literature and she _____ becoming a great novelist in future.
- 8) Even if some things go wrong, we should remember that there is always _____.
- 9) Some countries in Africa frequently _____ financial and social problems.
- 10) I don't have any _____ towards selfish people.
- 11) During the concert, the _____ danced and sang songs with the singer.

C) Match the sentence halves including the target words.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1) The audience laughed a lot | a) as she dreams of becoming a surgeon. |
| 2) I don't know any traditions | b) as she likes different cultures . |
| 3) Tina will study medicine | c) some members left the committee. |
| 4) They don't become friends with Omar | d) when the showman fell on the stage. |
| 5) Ali never lost his hopes | e) that belong to our society. |
| 6) You should face your fears | f) because of his ethnic background . |
| 7) Jane is talking about | g) while he was fighting with cancer. |
| 8) Sue's negative attitudes never changed | h) if you want to learn how to drive a car. |
| 9) Mary always travels abroad | i) the hardships of long distance relationships. |
| 10) Because of political problems | j) and he has no tolerance for any kind of jokes. |
| 11) He is a very serious person | k) so we decided not to work with her. |

APPENDIX 19. Instructional Material for the Control Group (Week 3)

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR THE CONTROL GROUP

THIRD WEEK

A) Read the single sentences below and learn the meanings of the unknown words by looking at the gloss in the right margin.

1. What is the **connection** between them?
2. This is a **recent** study.
3. He has no **training**.
4. She is sensitive to **certain** topics.
5. **Concentrate** on your job!
6. We work here **normally**.
7. I should **activate** my card.
8. My car is **damaged**.
9. I have no **skills**.
10. What is the **overall** cost?
11. He has a **sharp** brain.
12. You should **improve** yourself.

Connection(n.): synonym of link or relationship

Recent (adj.): having happened or started only a short time ago

Training (n.): the process of teaching or being taught the skills for a particular job or activity

Certain (adj.): particular but not named or described

Concentrate (v.): to think very carefully about something that you are doing

Normally (adv.): synonym of usually

Activate (v.): to make something start working

Damaged (adj.): something that is damaged has been harmed or injured

Skill (n.): an ability to do something well/synonym of talent

Overall (adj.): considering or including everything

Sharp (adj.): able to think and understand things very quickly

Improve (v.): to make something better or to become better

B) Fill in the blanks in the sentences with the correct form of the target words.

recent / certain / training / connection / improve
skill / damaged / activate / normally / sharp / overall
concentrate

- 1) He was much more intelligent than his peers and he really had a _____ mind.
- 2) There are some programs blocking _____ internet pages in order to protect children.
- 3) I am planning to attend a course in Italy to _____ my Italian.
- 4) The car is badly _____ after the accident.
- 5) If you want this job, you should have a three-week-long _____ in order to learn the basics.
- 6) _____ it takes me half an hour to go to work, but today I will be late because of the accident.
- 7) Students need to realize that there is a _____ between their education and their future.
- 8) The _____ number of people that died in the earthquake is not known.
- 9) The financial condition in our country has changed a lot in _____ years.
- 10) If you don't want to _____ the alarm system, you shouldn't make any noise.
- 11) This is an easy job so you don't need to have any special _____ and knowledge.
- 12) I couldn't _____ on the book because of the loud music.

C) Match the sentence halves including the target words.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1) If you are sleepy | a) if you want to get this job. |
| 2) What is the connection between | b) but in summers we move to the countryside. |
| 3) The overall situation is good | c) it will be difficult to concentrate on the test. |
| 4) I don't know what but | d) factory farming and human health. |
| 5) You need to have good computer skills | e) but there are some minor problems. |
| 6) It was really difficult to fix | f) something activated the car alarm. |
| 7) A recent report said that | g) in order to improve the financial situation. |
| 8) Normally we live in the city | h) my old and damaged bicycle. |
| 9) He was not successful during the training | i) small amounts of chocolate are good for health. |
| 10) He has a sharp mind | j) so he couldn't get the job. |
| 11) Certain topics are important | k) and he can get complex things so easily. |
| 12) Something must be done | l) and they must be revised. |

APPENDIX 20. Instructional Material for the Control Group (Week 4)

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR THE CONTROL GROUP

FOURTH WEEK

A) Read the single sentences below and learn the meanings of the unknown words by looking at the gloss in the right margin.

1. What is the biggest **factor**?
2. He **attracted** everyone to his club.
3. Who are the **residents**?
4. What are your **sources**?
5. There is no **access** to internet.
6. He had no other **options**.
7. Do you know your **strengths**?
8. He always **predicts** the correct results.
9. I don't like my classmates, **especially** Ayşe.
10. What is his **potential**?
11. Do you know the **influences** of smoking?
12. Is the **population** big?

Factor (n.): one of several things that influence or cause a situation

Attract (v.): to make someone interested in something

Resident (n.): someone who lives or stays in a particular place

Source (n.): a thing, place, activity etc. that you get something from

Access (n.): the right to enter a place, use something, see someone etc.

Option (n.): a choice you can make in a particular situation

Strength (n.): the political, military, or economic power of an organization, country, or system

Predict (v.): to say that something will happen, before it happens

Especially (adv.): synonym of particularly

Potential (n.): if people or things have potential, they have a natural ability or quality that could develop to make them very good

Influence (n.): the power to affect the way someone or something develops, behaves, or thinks

Population (n.): the number of people living in a particular area, country etc.

B) Fill in the blanks in the sentences with the correct form of the target words.

**strength / especially / attract / predict / access / option / source /
resident / influence / population / factor / potential**

- 1) What kind of _____ did you use while writing your essay on Ottoman history?
- 2) The new shopping center _____ many people with its various facilities such as movie theaters, bowling clubs and various restaurants.
- 3) His ability to persuade people easily is his greatest _____.
- 4) Advertisements may have negative or positive _____ on children.
- 5) The seminar about special kids was very useful for parents, _____ for those who have autistic children.
- 6) Vatican is the smallest independent country with a _____ of 800.
- 7) _____ of this city are generally young students as there are five universities here.
- 8) Smoking is one of the most important _____ in the development of lung cancer.
- 9) Some scientists _____ that the Earth's temperature will rise by as much as 5° over the next 20 years.
- 10) This application helps you to have a quick and easy _____ to your bank accounts.
- 11) The new football player is very skilled and he has the _____ to be a popular player around the world.
- 12) There weren't many _____ about accommodation so we chose to stay in a small but clean hotel.

C) Match the sentence halves including the target words.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1) Susan really wants the job | a) are animal-friendly people who feed street animals. |
| 2) I don't like long walks | b) the bad influences of smoking on human health. |
| 3) He didn't want to accept the job offer | c) that affect the climate change and global warming. |
| 4) Residents of our neighborhood | d) especially in cold weather. |
| 5) Every child should be taught | e) as the salary and travel opportunities attract her. |
| 6) Florida is a multicultural state | f) but he had no other options . |
| 7) There are many factors | g) the temperature will reach 40°C today. |
| 8) Cats should always have access | h) which has a large Jewish population . |
| 9) Before choosing a career | i) with the potential to be world famous. |
| 10) Television is the main source | j) to fresh and clean water. |
| 11) He is an intelligent mathematician | k) you should know your strengths and weaknesses. |
| 12) They predict that | l) of information for many Turkish people. |

APPENDIX 21. A Screenshot from Online Vocabulary Achievement Test

09.10.2020-VOCABULARY
ACHIEVEMENT TEST (PRE-TEST)
IKC SFL PRE-INTERMEDIATE 6

Instruction: Choose the best answer to complete the sentences below.

...

Hi Ezgi, when you submit this form, the owner will be able to see your name and email address.

1. My grandfather used to tell us about his _____ as a sea captain during the war.
(1 Point)

☐ occasions

☒ adventures

☐ seasons

☐ predictions

☐ therapies

APPENDIX 22. A Screenshot from Online Strategy Training Session

Public Chat

MEHMET GÜZEL PRE-INT 6 FRIDAY 53:55

Guessing Unknown Words From Context

Strategy Training Week 2

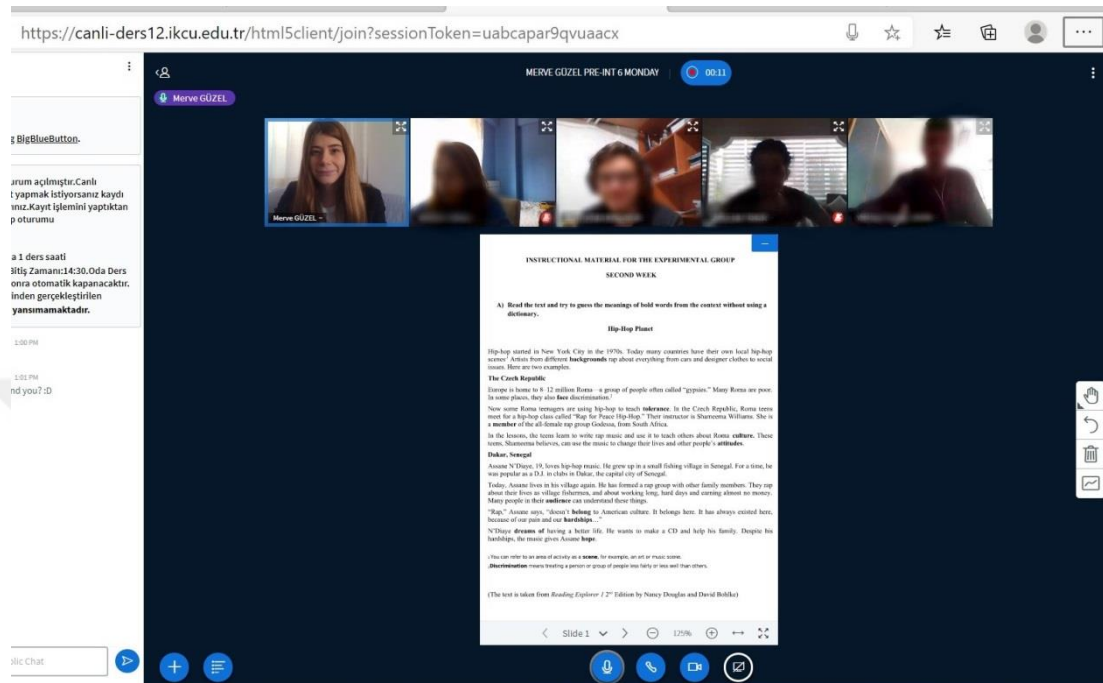
A good way to guess the meanings of unknown words in a text is to look at the context. There are several ways of using context clues to help you determine a word's meaning:

1. A way of guessing the meaning of an unknown word is to look for an **example** in the sentence. Examples are often signaled by words or phrases such as "like, for instance, this, such as, especially, include(s), these, for example etc.".

Example: He is known for his **wittiness**; for instance, he is always able to think of a funny answer for everything.

Slide 1

APPENDIX 23. A Screenshot from Online Instructional Session for the Experimental Group



APPENDIX 24. A Screenshot from Online Instructional Session for the Control Group

canli-ders6.ikcu.edu.tr/html5client/join?sessionToken=hrpl5avez7e3gjta

Merve GÜZEL PRE-INT FRIDAY 00:04

Merve GÜZEL

Canlı
rsanız kaydı
ini yaptıktan

30.Oda Ders
apanacaktır.
ptirilen
edir.

This session is now being recorded

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR THE CONTROL GROUP

TUESDAY WEEK

A) Read the single sentences below and learn the meanings of the unknown words by looking at the gloss in the right margin.

1. What is the connection between them?	Connection is a synonym of link or relationship.
2. This is a recent study.	Recent study is being happened or passed only a short time ago.
3. He has no training.	Training is the process of teaching or doing regular drills for a particular job or sport.
4. He is sensitive to outside inputs.	Sensitive is to be able to feel or respond to something.
5. Concentrate on your job!	Concentrate is to think only carefully about something that you are doing.
6. We work here normally.	Normally talk about a situation of usually.
7. I should activate my card.	Activate is to make something start working.
8. My car is damaged.	Damaged is to make something broken or harmed.
9. I have no skills.	Skills are the ability to do something well because of study.
10. What is the overall cost?	Overall is considering or including everything.
11. He has a sharp focus.	Sharp focus is to focus and understand things very clearly.
12. You should improve yourself!	Improve is to make something better or to become better.

Slide 1 100%

APPENDIX 25. Item Analysis Table

Item Analysis Table		
Questions	p	r
Q-1	0,37	0,29
Q-2	0,29	0,45
Q-3	0,82	0,71
Q-4	0,81	0,38
Q-5	0,38	0,29
Q-6*	0,96*	0,11*
Q-7	0,39	0,57
Q-8	0,63	0,64
Q-9	0,67	0,92
Q-10	0,83	0,39
Q-11	0,49	0,51
Q-12*	0,21*	0,18*
Q-13	0,43	0,37
Q-14	0,32	0,35
Q-15	0,69	0,32
Q-16	0,51	0,46
Q-17	0,54	0,71
Q-18	0,52	0,68
Q-19	0,45	0,70
Q-20	0,68	0,88
Q-21	0,51	0,43
Q-22*	0,77*	0,17*
Q-23	0,45	0,36
Q-24	0,71	0,52
Q-25	0,82	0,70
Q-26	0,67	0,56
Q-27	0,59	0,77
Q-28	0,56	0,76
Q-29*	0,45*	0,18*
Q-30	0,67	0,54
Q-31	0,89	0,46
Q-32	0,94	0,48
Q-33	0,95	0,68
Q-34	0,40	0,72
Q-35	0,77	0,68
Q-36	0,29	0,49
Q-37	0,39	0,81
Q-38	0,68	0,73
Q-39*	0,87*	0,03*
Q-40	0,83	0,38
Q-41	0,40	0,40
Q-42	0,43	0,31
Q-43	0,64	0,72
Q-44	0,75	0,63
Q-45	0,81	0,33
Q-46	0,84	0,59
Q-47	0,26	0,74
Q-48	0,38	0,41
Q-49	0,65	0,68
Q-50	0,45	0,64

Key: p= item difficulty index r= item discrimination index

Note The questions marked with * were eliminated from the test.

