

**DOKUZ EYLÜL UNIVERSITY**  
**INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES**  
**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**  
**MA THESIS**

**THE EFFECTS OF IMPLICIT, EXPLICIT AND BLENDED**  
**TYPES OF VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION**  
**ON THE FOURTH GRADERS**

**Meryem Özge AKEL OĞUZ**

**İzmir**

**2012**

**DOKUZ EYLÜL UNIVERSITY**  
**INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES**  
**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**  
**MA THESIS**

**THE EFFECTS OF IMPLICIT, EXPLICIT AND BLENDED**  
**TYPES OF VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION**  
**ON THE FOURTH GRADERS**

**Meryem Özge AKEL OĞUZ**

**Supervisor**  
**Assoc. Prof. Dr. Feryal ÇUBUKÇU**

**İzmir**  
**2012**

## **YEMİN**

Yüksek lisans tezi olarak sunduđum “The Effects of Implicit, Explicit and Blended Types of Vocabulary Instruction on the Fourth Graders” adlı alıřmanın, tarafımdan bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı dűşecek bir yardıma başvurulmaksızın yazıldıđını ve yararlandıđım eserlerin Kaynaka’da gösterilenlerden olduđunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanmıř olduđumu belirtir ve bunu onurumla dođrularım.

02/ 07/ 2012

MERYEM ÖZGE AKEL OĐUZ

**Eđitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü M¼d¼rl¼đ¼ne**

İřbu alıřma, j¼rimiz tarafından Dokuz Eyl¼l niversitesi Yabancı Diller Eđitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce đretmenliđi Y¼ksek Lisans Programında Y¼KSEK LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiřtir.

Başkan : Do. Dr. Feryal UBUKU



ye : Yr. Do. Dr. Ayfer ONAN



ye : Yr. Do. Dr. Aylin KYALAN



Onay

Yukarıda imzaların, adı geen đretim yelerine ait olduđunu onaylarım.

02/ 07/ 2012

Prof. Dr. h. c. İbrahim ATALAY  
Enstit¼ M¼d¼r¼

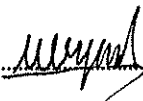
T.C  
YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU  
ULUSAL TEZ MERKEZİ

TEZ VERİ GİRİŞİ VE YAYIMLAMA İZİN FORMU

Referans No	435476
Yazar Adı / Soyadı	Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
Uyruğu / T.C.Kimlik No	T.C. 52984158260
Telefon / Cep Telefonu	
e-Posta	meryemzgen@hotmail.com
Tezin Dili	İngilizce
Tezin Özgün Adı	The effects of implicit, explicit, and blended types of vocabulary instruction on the fourth graders
Tezin Tercümesi	Dolaylı, doğrudan ve karma öğretim yöntemleriyle kelime öğretiminin dördüncü sınıf öğrencileri üzerindeki etkileri
Konu Başlıkları	Eğitim ve Öğretim
Üniversite	Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi
Enstitü / Hastane	Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Bölüm	
Anabilim Dalı	Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Bilim Dalı / Bölüm	İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bilim Dalı
Tez Türü	Yüksek Lisans
Yılı	2012
Sayfa	134
Tez Danışmanları	Doç. Dr. Fatma Feryal Çubukçu
Dizin Terimleri	Açık bilgi=Explicit knowledge Kelime öğretimi=Vocabulary teaching Kelime öğrenme=Vocabulary learning Örtük yönergeli öğrenme=Implicit instruction Dil eğitimi=Language education Yabancı dil eğitimi=Foreign language education Kalıcılık=Retention
Önerilen Dizin Terimleri	Dolaylı kelime öğretimi=implicit vocabulary instruction Doğrudan kelime öğretimi=explicit vocabulary instruction Karma kelime öğretimi=blended vocabulary instruction
Yayımlama İznini	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Tezimin yayımlanmasına izin veriyorum <input type="checkbox"/> Ertelenmesini istiyorum

a.Yukarıda başlığı yazılı olan tezinin, ilgililerin incelemesine sunulmak üzere Yükseköğretim Kurulu Ulusal Tez Merkezi tarafından arşivlenmesi, kağıt, mikroform veya elektronik formatta, internet dahil olmak üzere her türlü ortamda çoğaltılması, ödünç verilmesi, dağıtımı ve yayımı için, tezimize ilgili fikri mülkiyet haklarımız saklı kalmak üzere hiçbir ücret (royalty) ve erteleme talep etmeksizin izin verdiğimi beyan ederim.

04.07.2012

İmza: 

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my thesis advisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Feryal Çubukçu for her excellent guidance, her continuous support, her advice and encouragement that have always enlightened my way throughout the preparation of this thesis.

I owe much to Dr. Esin Kumlu for her invaluable guidance, understanding, and support before and through my studies.

I wish to express my heartfelt thanks to my parents and my sisters for their sacrifice and patience. They have always listened to me, and tried to cheer me up whenever I feel desperate. I have always felt that they are with me whatever I do.

I wish to express my eternal gratitude to my husband Ahmet Sabit Oğuz without whose unconditional love, encouragement, and support helping me throughout my MA studies I would not be able to go on.

I am grateful to my classmates Tuba Tayhani and Tuğba Han for their constant encouraging, supporting, and being attentive and ready to help me whenever I need.

Additionally, I like to thank my school principal Ercan Sağır for patient listening and encouraging my studies.

Finally, I would like to show my gratitude to the participants of this study, my students. I could not have accomplished this without their eager collaboration and effort.

02/ 07/ 2012

MERYEM ÖZGE AKEL OĞUZ

## CONTENTS

	<b>Pages</b>
<b>Acknowledgements</b>	<b>i</b>
<b>Table of Contents</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>List of Tables</b>	<b>iv</b>
<b>List of Figures</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>Abstract</b>	<b>vi</b>
<b>Özet</b>	<b>viii</b>
<b>CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.1. Statement of Problem.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.2. Purpose of the Study.....</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>1.3. Significance of the Study.....</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>1.4. The Problem Statement.....</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>1.5. Research Questions.....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1.6. Assumptions of the Study.....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1.7. Limitations of the Study.....</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>CHAPTER II LEARNING AND INSTRUCTION.....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>2.1. What is Learning?.....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>2.2. Learning a Language.....</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>2.3. Language Learning Theory.....</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>2.3.1. Rationalism vs. Empiricism.....</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>2.3.2. Behavioral Theories vs. Cognitive Theories.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>2.3.3. Connectionism vs. Nativism.....</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>2.4. Implicit vs. Explicit Instruction.....</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>CHAPTER III VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION.....</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>3.1. Vocabulary Learning and Vocabulary Instruction.....</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>3.2. Studies.....</b>	<b>42</b>

<b>CHAPTER IV METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>53</b>
<b>4.1. Model of Study.....</b>	<b>53</b>
<b>4.2. Population and Sampling.....</b>	<b>53</b>
<b>4.3. Data Collection Instruments.....</b>	<b>54</b>
<b>4.4. Procedures.....</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>4.5. Data Analysis.....</b>	<b>56</b>
<b>CHAPTER V RESULTS AND FINDINGS.....</b>	<b>57</b>
<b>5.1. Pre- and Post-Test Difference.....</b>	<b>57</b>
<b>5.2. Post-test and Delayed Post-test Difference.....</b>	<b>60</b>
<b>5.3. The Comparison of Implicit, Explicit and         Blended Groups.....</b>	<b>62</b>
<b>5.4. Gender Difference on Vocabulary Development.....</b>	<b>66</b>
<b>CHAPTER VI CONCLUSION</b>	
<b>6.1. Discussion .....</b>	<b>69</b>
<b>6.1.1. The Effect of Implicit Vocabulary Instruction.....</b>	<b>70</b>
<b>6.1.2. The Effect of Explicit Vocabulary Instruction.....</b>	<b>72</b>
<b>6.1.3. The Effect of Blended Vocabulary Instruction.....</b>	<b>73</b>
<b>6.1.4. Gender Difference in Proficiency Levels.....</b>	<b>75</b>
<b>6.2. Conclusions .....</b>	<b>75</b>
<b>6.3. Suggestions.....</b>	<b>78</b>
<b>REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>80</b>
<b>APPENDICES</b>	
<b>Appendix 1. Pre-, Post-, Delayed Post-Test.....</b>	<b>92</b>
<b>Appendix 2. Lesson Plans.....</b>	<b>96</b>
<b>Appendix 3. Official Permission of the Republic of Turkey Ministry of National         Education.....</b>	<b>124</b>



## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table 1 Implicit Instruction vs. Explicit Instruction.....</b>	<b>27</b>
<b>Table 2 The Comparison of Pre-test Scores of the Experimental Groups.....</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>Table 3 The Comparison of Pre- and Post-test Scores of the Implicit Group....</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>Table 4 The Comparison of Pre- and Post-test Scores of the Explicit Group....</b>	<b>56</b>
<b>Table 5 The Comparison of Pre- and Post-test Scores of the Blended Group...56</b>	
<b>Table 6 The Comparison of Post- and Delayed Post-test Scores of the Implicit Group.....</b>	<b>57</b>
<b>Table 7 The Comparison of Post- and Delayed Post-test Scores of the Explicit Group.....</b>	<b>57</b>
<b>Table 8 The Comparison of Post- and Delayed Post-test Scores of the Blended Group.....</b>	<b>58</b>
<b>Table 9 Descriptive Statistics for the Experimental Groups.....</b>	<b>59</b>
<b>Table 10 ANOVA Results to Find out Experimental Groups' Difference among the Success Levels in Tests.....</b>	<b>61</b>
<b>Table 11 Multiple Comparisons to Find out Experimental Groups' Difference among the Success Levels in Tests.....</b>	<b>62</b>
<b>Table 12 The Comparison of Male and Female Students' Vocabulary Proficiency Level in the Implicit Group.....</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>Table 13 The Comparison of Male and Female Students' Vocabulary Proficiency Level in the Explicit Group.....</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>Table 14 The Comparison of Male and Female Students' Vocabulary Proficiency Level in the Blended Group.....</b>	<b>65</b>

## LIST OF FIGURES

<b>Figure 1 Ellis's (1990) Language Instruction Types.....</b>	<b>24</b>
<b>Figure 2 Long's (1991) Form-Focused Instruction Types.....</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>Figure 3 Ellis's (2005) Language Instruction Types.....</b>	<b>26</b>
<b>Figure 4 Mean Scores of Implicit, Explicit, and Blended Groups .....</b>	<b>60</b>
<b>Figure 5 Difference in Performance Reflected in the Tests by the Experimental Groups.....</b>	<b>63</b>

**ABSTRACT****THE EFFECTS OF IMPLICIT, EXPLICIT AND BLENDED  
TYPES OF VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION  
ON THE FOURTH GRADERS****Meryem Özge AKEL OĞUZ****DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING  
MA THESIS****Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Feryal ÇUBUKÇU****July, 2012**

The aim of research was to discover the effectiveness of Implicit, Explicit and Blended types of vocabulary instruction on the fourth graders who are the youngest learners in the present English Language Curriculum for Primary Education in Turkey, retention level, and gender difference in success levels of students. This quasi-experimental study was applied in 2011-2012 academic year in a state school, Çamlıkule Primary School. Three fourth grades (N=40) participated to test the effectiveness of Implicit, Explicit and Blended types of Vocabulary Instruction. Each group took a pre-test before the experiment. The target words were taught with three different types- without the learners getting conscious attention to the words and through a given task (implicitly), by drawing the learners' direct attention to the

form, use and meaning of new words (explicitly), and by drawing the learners' conscious attention to the target words in a language task (in a blended way)- in line with pre-made lesson plans. After the treatment a post-test and (after the following six weeks) a delayed post-test were applied to each group in order to measure the retention of the words. With this method whether the most effective vocabulary instruction type was the implicit instruction as suggested in the present language learning program, whether it was the explicit instruction as many researchers claim, or whether it was the blended instruction as it came forward in most of implementations was tried to be discovered. The results revealed that the students who received explicit treatment statistically outperformed the other two treatment groups in post-test and in delayed post-test and there was not any difference in their academic performance in terms of gender. Based on the findings of the study it can be concluded that foreign language learning programs should include explicit vocabulary instruction especially for young learners.

**Keywords:** Implicit vocabulary instruction, explicit vocabulary instruction, blended vocabulary instruction, retention.

**ÖZET****DOLAYLI, DOĞRUDAN VE KARMA ÖĞRETİM  
YÖNTEMLERİYLE KELİME ÖĞRETİMİNİN  
DÖRDÜNCÜ SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ****Meryem Özge AKEL OĞUZ****İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ PROGRAMI  
YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ****Danışman: Doç. Dr. Feryal ÇUBUKÇU****Temmuz, 2012**

Bu çalışmanın amacı Türkiye'deki devlet okullarında uygulanan İngilizce öğretim programındaki en genç dil öğrencileri olan ilköğretim dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinde Dolaylı, Doğrudan, ya da Karma bir İngilizce kelime öğretim yönteminin etkililiğini, kalıcılık derecesini ve öğrencilerin başarı durumunda cinsiyet farklılığını ortaya çıkarmaktır. Bu yarı-deneysel çalışma 2011-2012 eğitim-öğretim yılında bir devlet okulunda, Çamlıkule İlköğretim Okulunda, sürdürülmüştür. Dolaylı, Doğrudan ve Karma Kelime Öğretimi uygulanmak üzere üç dördüncü sınıf (40 kişi) atanmıştır. Her gruba deneyden önce bir ön-test uygulanmıştır. Hedef kelimeler, öğrencilerin dikkati kelimelere çekilmeden bir görev doğrultusunda (dolaylı); öğrencilerin dikkatini direkt olarak kelimelerin yapısı, kullanımı ve

anlamına çekerek (doğrudan); ve hem öğrencilerin dikkatini kelimelere yöneltip hem de bir görev doğrultusunda (karma) daha önce hazırlanan ders planları doğrultusunda öğretilmiştir. Uygulamadan sonra her gruba bir son-test ve altı hafta sonra da kalıcılığı ölçmek için bir geciktirilmiş son-test uygulanmıştır. Bu metotla en etkili kelime öğretiminin İngilizce Öğretim Programındaki gibi Dolaylı mı, birçok araştırmacının öne sürdüğü ve çalışma öncesi tahmin edildiği gibi Doğrudan mı ya da birçok uygulamada öne çıktığı gibi Karma mı olup olmadığı ortaya çıkarılmaya çalışılmıştır. Sonuçlar doğrudan öğretim alan öğrencilerin son-test ve geciktirilmiş kalıcılık testinde diğer iki deney grubundan istatistiksel olarak daha başarılı olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bulgulara dayanarak yabancı dil programlarının özellikle küçük yaştaki öğrenciler için Doğrudan Kelime Öğretimi içermesi gerektiği sonucuna varılabilmektedir.

**Anahtar kelimeler:** Dolaylı kelime öğretimi, doğrudan kelime öğretimi, karma kelime öğretimi, kalıcılık.

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Statement of Problem

A great deal of researches has been conducted since the late sixties when language instruction and empirical theoretical interest gained importance in language acquisition which is still a very young field of investigation. These researches have mostly been directed at understanding and contributing to more effective instructed language learning. Although much of the theory has been undertaken with language pedagogy in mind, Krashen's Monitor Model (Krashen, 1981), Long's Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996), DeKeyser's skill-learning theory (DeKeyser, 1998 ctd. in Doughty and Long, 2003), VanPatten's input processing theory (VanPatten, 1996; 2002) and Ellis's theory of instructed language learning (Ellis, 1994) address the role of instruction in second or foreign language acquisition. Despite the abundance of theories in the field, they do not have any umbrella method showing how and which kind of instruction can best facilitate language learning. There is no agreement as to whether instruction should be based on a traditional approach, involving the systematic teaching of linguistic features in accordance with a structural syllabus, or a modern approach, involving attention to linguistic features in the context of communicative activities derived from a task-based syllabus or some kind of combination of the two.

The concept of teaching "linguistic features" has also changed dramatically throughout years. It is not as straight forward process as it appears to be at first sight. Teaching grammar in typical language instruction was replaced by first teaching skills such as reading, listening, writing, and speaking, and then vocabulary instruction came up as the fifth skill. Now vocabulary learning is seen as the very first step of language learning in recent years contrary to the history of language teaching in which vocabulary teaching was neglected or de-emphasized. Now it is claimed by vocabulary specialists that lexical competence is very important to

communicate successfully and appropriately (Coady and Huckin, 1997, as cited in Decarrio, 2001). From the late 1980s, vocabulary was an area that had drawn researchers' interest within the mainstream of L2 acquisition (Nation 1997, as cited in Shen, n.d.). The way of instruction, also, is an important contributor in the development and consolidation of vocabulary knowledge in foreign language teaching and learning. An instructional treatment is explicit if rule explanation is a part of the instruction or if learners are asked to attend to particular forms and try to discover the meanings themselves. To the contrary, when no rule presentation or directions are provided and the learners are expected to derive knowledge by using some inner parameters to learn just from the input, it is considered as implicit. And the blended type of vocabulary instruction is a type using both types in a balanced way to facilitate language learning by means of interplay among morphophonological, syntactic, and conceptual processes. However, there is no agreement about the way of instruction- teaching vocabulary implicitly by providing learners with “a mere exposure to numerous inputs” or explicitly through “similar exposure along with explicit explanation of the relevant rules” (DeKeyser, 1995). Therefore, one of the most frequently asked questions in language teaching circles is whether vocabulary should be taught explicitly by giving meanings directly as in the traditional approaches or implicitly by letting learners infer meaning from input by using their inner learning mechanisms as they do while learning their mother tongue. The latter is seen superior to the former by many researchers shaping modern language instruction approaches. The implicit instruction is seen and applied as the only and the ‘most’ beneficial instruction type for young learners in the present English Language Curriculum for Primary Education in Turkey (Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı, 2006), as well, which has been applied since 2006 in public schools which include approximately 35-50 students in one class and where English lesson is only three hours a week.

However, to develop vocabulary intentionally, both specific words and word-learning strategies should be taught to learners explicitly. To enlarge students' knowledge of word meanings, specific word instruction should be robust (Beck et al., 2002 as cited in Diamond and Guthlon, 2006). In addition, according to recent



researches it can be said that learning words in rich and meaningful contexts through implicit instruction is not always possible because it is not practical and time consuming. Some previous studies show that explicit vocabulary instruction leads to better overall performance. As these studies which try to figure out the underlying mechanisms of information processing phases and the role of instruction in these language learning processes show, explicit instruction leads a way to some kind of attention to form which facilitates retention of words in language learning. However, it should be noted that explicit or implicit learning is dependent on input structure and children use a variety of sources of evidence- either implicit or explicit- while trying to figure out the meaning of new words and the formal categories and regularities. Thoughtful and well-planned instructional strategies, at this point, are very helpful for learners to make them choose the best way to develop their vocabulary span and increase their ability to comprehend any text or speech and form their experiential and conceptual backgrounds in their life-long learning. This study is going to serve as an answer to the limited and insufficient explanation of the effect of instruction type- explicit, implicit or blended- on vocabulary learning and teaching in a classroom in a public school on the youngest learners, fourth graders, in Turkey's primary education.

## **1.2. Purpose of the Study**

Based on the arguments above, the main purpose of this quasi experimental investigation is to find out and compare the effectiveness of implicit, explicit, or blended type of vocabulary instruction on the fourth graders- the youngest language learners of Turkish government curriculum applied in public schools. In addition, this study attempts to find out whether implicit, explicit, or blended types of vocabulary instruction affect the students' vocabulary retention level in English, and which instruction type does it most and in what way. It also seeks to determine whether male and female students have different success levels in different types of vocabulary instruction.

### 1.3. Significance of the Study

As Ellis, Leowen, Elder, Erlam, Philp, and Reinders (2009) state vocabulary knowledge is the core of language learning. Teachers can take heart from recent developments in research that a heavy concentration on vocabulary acquisition, especially in the early ages of learning, is a prerequisite for later proficiency in the language (Thornbury, 2002: 159). As mentioned above, language instruction has changed dramatically throughout the years and in language teaching the grammar instruction has been replaced by skills first, and then vocabulary instruction. There are very different aspects in the field about the vocabulary instruction, its role, and its types. Krashen (1989) supports the implicit vocabulary instruction. However, after researches were conducted in class, explicit vocabulary teaching gained some value. Researchers and methodologists tried to develop strategies for explicit vocabulary learning and instruction. On the other hand, there are some who find that both explicit and implicit processes take place in vocabulary learning but each has a different role.

Explicit vocabulary instruction involves the modeling of vocabulary skills provided by the instructor, clear explanations and examples of the word being taught, a high level of teacher feedback, support, and recasts and multiple opportunities for students to practice and apply newly learned skills (National Center for Reading First Technical Assistance, 2005). Explicit instruction is efficient and effective when the teacher can present the maximum number of skills in the minimum amount of time and students become successful (Bauman & Kame'enui, 2004). Several previous studies provide an overview about the role of a number of related concepts such as consciousness, awareness, attention, noticing and focus on form in foreign language learning. As these studies show, explicit instruction leads a way to some kind of attention to both form and meaning which eases the language learning process. However, although there is research based on the effectiveness of systematic and explicit instructional interventions, there is little evidence on effective vocabulary interventions for struggling EFL learners. Much of the existing research on effective vocabulary instruction for native English speaking students can be applied to EFL

learners, but there is much research that needs to be done that focuses on specific vocabulary interventions in EFL context. And even infants in the very first years of their lives abstract formal regularities implicitly on the basis of structured input. Therefore, it can be said that implicit learning appears to be developmentally prior to explicit learning which is late in intellectual development. In addition, the curriculum provided by the Ministry of National Education in Turkey claims that "...Children are more concerned with the use of language to convey meaning than with correct usage...Thus, it is better to begin with a play-centred approach, and gradually move to more conscious and cognitive learning as they mature" (2006: 39). It, also, claims implicit instruction has more beneficial outcomes than explicit instruction, and the books sent by the government include only implicit ways of instruction requiring learners infer meaning by using various contexts. However, using language productively is mostly based on vocabulary knowledge, and vocabulary instruction and the type of this instruction where language teaching takes place in dramatically high demographics for only three hours a week become vitally important because the learners cannot have enough processing time for making deductions implicitly without any instruction or direction and to reflect their actual performance to be measured. Thus, an instruction model may be of great help for teachers of English as a foreign language to conjoin theory (implicit instruction used as the most beneficial model to promote language acquisition as in the English language curriculum for primary education published by the Ministry of National Education in Turkey and the textbooks sent by the government) and practice (the realities of the present language learning and teaching environments). Also despite many examples of implicit and explicit instruction-based researches in adult language education, there are not many researches in the topic of explicit or implicit ways of instruction in children education especially in vocabulary learning and retention.

The debate on whether to teach vocabulary explicitly or implicitly has been a subject to lexical studies. However, there are relatively few studies about explicit and implicit learning and teaching and a direct comparison in-between them especially in terms of vocabulary instruction in foreign language context such as Laufer's (1994) longitudinal study on the differences on the lexical quality in learners' writing whose

major was English as a foreign language, Zimmermann's (1997b) pilot study in which she investigated the effectiveness of reading with vocabulary instruction, Laufer and Shmueli's (1997) research on the importance of explicit vocabulary instruction, Paribakht and Wesche's (1997) study on the effectiveness of using "reading plus" activities to increase learners' second language vocabulary acquisition by comparing the results with a "reading only group", Bayram's (2009) study applied in EFL context in Turkey to compare the effects of explicit and implicit vocabulary teaching on vocabulary learning and retention through reading, and Ünal's (2006) study on the teaching and learning of nontechnical vocabulary items in English to Turkish intermediate EFL students through interactive vocabulary instruction. This study will build on the existing general knowledge in terms of being a study making a comparison between explicit, implicit, and blended types of vocabulary instruction and trying to find out whether these types lead an effective vocabulary learning and retention in the EFL context in Turkey. In addition, since the studies in this field are limited to the discussions based on theories but not the effects of instruction in classroom practice, this study may also fill a gap in the literature both in the local and global level. The study is aimed to fill this blank in educational field in foreign language learning and teaching, and to suggest the needed instruction type making use of both implicit and explicit types of vocabulary instruction conducted by the teachers in a government school. Moreover, this study may have practical results. The findings in this study may provide clues as to the vocabulary instruction at the primary school level in EFL context. The lesson plans and materials in the appendix may provide samples for future researchers, syllabus designers, and classroom teachers, as well.

#### **1.4. The Problem Statement**

How do implicit, explicit, and blended types of vocabulary instruction affect the fourth graders in EFL context?

### **1.5. Research Questions**

The main research question is whether the type of vocabulary instruction- implicit, explicit or blended- has any effect on the fourth graders. Some other questions are:

- Does implicit vocabulary instruction affect the fourth graders' vocabulary proficiency and retention level in English lesson? In what way?
- Does explicit vocabulary instruction affect fourth graders' vocabulary proficiency and retention level in English lesson? In what way?
- Does blended vocabulary instruction affect the fourth graders' vocabulary proficiency and retention level in English lesson? In what way?
- Does gender play a role in the instruction type?

### **1.6. Assumptions of the Study**

The previous learning experience of learners such as English knowledge obtained in private lessons, kindergarten, or private courses was not taken into consideration in the study. Therefore, it was assumed that the participants of the study were not affected by previous learnings, did not know the vocabulary items in the study, and it reflected the realistic situations in government schools. Additionally, since no research homework was required from students during the study it was assumed that the students would stay away from other resources such as other books and internet. A disturbance variable like this would not affect the results of the study. Also the researcher was the regular English teacher of the classes. However, the possible tendency of the researcher to a certain instruction type was assumed to be eliminated by means of lesson plans prepared beforehand with the help of the thesis supervisor.

### **1.7. Limitations of the Study**

First of all, one of the limitations of this study is the inadequate sampling of program or class types because no random sampling of teachers or students was implemented, and the research was conducted in Çamlıkule Primary School, İzmir, Turkey by the researcher herself. Secondly, the number of participants is limited to only 120 students, 40 students in one class for each instruction type- implicit, explicit, and blended vocabulary instruction. Therefore, it cannot be generalized beyond its limits. Thirdly, as mentioned under the heading Assumptions of the Study above, independent or intervening variables such as language proficiency and educational background of learners were not controlled. In the fourth place, the study had been conducted only for six weeks, and the application of different vocabulary instruction types is only limited to this six-week-period. Finally, one of the limitations of this study is the lack of an instrument to assess the vocabulary size or real proficiency level of learners in the research design. An instrument was developed and the reliability analysis was made, but it cannot be claimed that it measures the learners' real and overall proficiency of vocabulary. All those limitations lead to ungeneralizable results and unjustified claims. In many cases some of the differences have been overlooked for the sake of revealing possible generalizations, while potential qualifications and limitations are recognized.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LEARNING AND INSTRUCTION**

#### **2.1. What is Learning?**

Learning in general is not easy to define because of its complex nature and there are many different perspectives emphasizing a different facet of this complex process as Tarpy (1997: 6) points out. Learning consists of the acquisition and modification of knowledge, cognitive- linguistic- motor- and social skills, strategies, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours (Schunk, 2000: 1). As all theorists, researchers, and practitioners agree, the importance of learning in human development is undeniable, but there are different views on the causes, processes, and consequences of learning. Greek philosophers start the debate about human learning by claiming that knowledge is either innate (Plato's view) or derived from experience (Aristotle's view). René Descartes puts forward that there is a duality between mind and body and claims that mind consists of an unextended reality and represents reason and intellect which could be obtained by humans alone (Tarpy, 1997: 14). The antecedents of these philosophers agree and disagree with these views in different ways. For example, learning is defined as the change in behavior which is the consequence of a stimulus- response chain shaped by positive and negative reinforcement by the behaviorists. In humanism which emerged in the 1960s, learning is student centered and personalized and the study of the self, motivation and goals are important which is, in contrast, to the behaviorist notion of operant conditioning in which it is claimed that all behavior is the result of the application of consequences. In cognitivism replacing behaviorism in the 1960s knowledge can be seen as schema or symbolic mental constructions, and learning is defined as change in a learner's schemata. To the constructivists, rising up in 1980s following the behaviourists but disagreeing with them in the issue of learners' being blank slates before learning, learning is an active and contextualized process of constructing knowledge rather than acquiring it, and knowledge is constructed based on personal experiences and hypotheses of the environment.

Learning is first defined as simply as the ‘overt behaviour’ which stems from individual’s genetical capability and tendency and leads the learner to behave in a certain way. Learning may also be viewed as an ‘internal state of knowledge’ in which a transition from a state of ignorance to a state of knowledge by being exposed to certain stimuli happens and behaving in a certain manner to perform the expected behaviour occurs afterwards. Considering these both aspects, in its broadest sense, learning can be defined as “an inferred change in the organism’s mental state resulting from an experience and influencing the organism’s potential for the following adaptive behaviour” (Tarpy, 1997: 8). The first part of this definition emphasizes the indispensability of the performance for learning in order to secure the expected behaviour. The second feature emphasized in the definition is the difference in organism’s mental state involving some neurological state created or altered during learning process. A third feature is the importance of experience emphasizing the fact that behaviours that cannot be performed without instruction reflect learning. A fourth claim in the definition is that learning is a relatively permanent change in behaviour. And the final aspect refers to the claim that learning generates a potential to behave in a certain way, although that potential may not be expressed at every moment.

Despite experts’ divergence in the precise nature of learning, a general definition of learning can also be given as follows as cited in Schunk’s (2000: 2) book: “learning is an enduring change in behavior or in the capacity to behave in a given fashion resulting from practice or other forms of experience”. If we examine this definition, it can be said that one criterion for defining learning is behavioral change or change in the potential of behavior again as in Tarpy’s definition. Learning involves developing a capability of doing something differently by developing new actions or modifying the existing ones. This changed capacity to behave expectedly is inferential because it is known that people often learn skills, knowledge, beliefs or behaviors without demonstration at the time learning occurs (Schunk, 2000). The second criterion mentioned in Schunk’s definition of learning is the permanency of behavioral change since behavioral changes stemming from drugs, alcohol, and fatigue cannot be counted as learning. However, it should also be noted that learning



may not last forever because forgetting occurs. It is still debatable how long changes must last to be classified as learned but learning, therefore, is defined as a 'relatively' permanent behavioral change. The third criterion in the definition is that learning occurs through practice or experience, but the role of physical readiness or heredity factors to perform some kind of expected behaviour should not be ignored as Schunk emphasizes (2000). Illeris asserts that (2007: 5) learning is 'any process that in living organisms leads to permanent capacity change and which is not solely due to biological maturation or changing'. Illeris, also, points out that the change which is permanent to some extent until it is overlaid by new learnings or forgotten because the organism no longer uses it is not just about maturation of potentials present in the organism in advance. However, such maturation may be a prerequisite for learning to take place. As seen here, learning is a bit more complex than most people think: it is defined as the process of acquiring knowledge or skill through study, experience or teaching, experience that brings about a relatively permanent change in behavior, a change in neural function as a consequence of experience, the cognitive process of acquiring skills or knowledge, an increase in the amount of response rules and concepts in the memory of an intelligent system (Fisher & Frey, 2008: 1). Seeing this diversity in the definition of learning, it is almost impossible to give an exact definition of learning that is generally acceptable to all learning theories and researchers.

The endless discussion still goes on in learning theories and their basic principles. Although the significance of practice and experience in learning is mainly focused in the definitions of learning examined above, the inferential nature of learning, or in other words, learning and cognition being intertwined are emphasized in the last decades (Reber, 1993: 4). From an evolutionary perspective, the idea of learning as overt behaviour becomes important first and is claimed to be superior to learning through internal states. According to this idea, internal neurological mechanisms or states seem controlling or providing a capacity for behaviour, but learning occurs just through behavioral manifestation which is claimed very important for survival and adaptation. As Schunk (2000: 11) points out this idea can be labeled as behavioral theory of learning meaning a change in the rate, frequency

of occurrence, or form of behavior or response as a function of environmental factors. In contrast, from a cognitive perspective, it can be said that learning is inferential that we cannot observe or measure it directly but its products. Learning includes just a capacity to behave in a certain fashion because people often learn skills, knowledge, beliefs, or behaviors without demonstrating them while learning occurs. This category can be labeled as a cognitive theory of learning which claims that learning is an internal mental phenomenon run by the brain by means of knowledge inferred from the environment. For decades practitioners and researchers have been researching these seemingly controversial but actually complementary issues about learning and the theory of learning.

## **2.2. Learning a Language**

We as human beings have an endless curiosity to understand how the world works, and because it is one of our most precious, complex, and fascinated talents, learning as an issue explaining how our worlds work has drawn attention of philosophers, researchers, and practitioners for centuries (Tarpay, 1997: 15). Throughout this research history, human learning has always been claimed as complex, elaborate, rapid and typically depending on the use of language. Because learning is primarily based on the use of language, language learning can be claimed worthy of investigation thoroughly to illuminate the very basic tenets about learning.

Despite being far too complicated, intriguing, and mysterious to be adequately explained, language can be defined as a human system of communication of thoughts and feelings through arbitrary signals such as voice sounds, gestures, or written symbols. Learning a language can be defined in its simplest form as the process by which the language ability develops in human. It is not easy to define it in a 'most' proper way since it includes too many variables such as fundamental theoretical issues like literacy, language representation in mind and brain, culture, cognition, pragmatics, intergroup relations, second and foreign language acquisition, bilingualism, and language education. Many variables or channels such as brain,

language, mind, self and culture are active during language learning (Tarpy, 1997). As Lightbown and Spada (1999) point out, language learning is affected by many factors some of which are the personal characteristics of the learner, the structure of the native and target languages, opportunities for interaction with speakers of the target language, and access to correction and form-focused instruction. Language learning takes place in such a complex ecology not in a laboratory, and the full repertoire of human nature from our cognitive machinery to our social and communicative needs is in use in the language learning process. There have been many attempts to understand language learning and the methods we use to come to that knowledge, but language is a highly abstract and complex communication system in its nature as indicated above, and does not lend itself to easy analysis. As a result, language theorists have been unable to propose universal pedagogical methodologies on this issue. Researchers have puzzled about language learning and tried to explore numerous aspects about its development by making use of various disciplines such as linguistics, biology, psychology, anthropology and sociology. Issues concerning the capability of human beings to learn languages, the learnability of language, and the question of how to learn another language and what to make to facilitate language learning have been the attractive issues ever since.

### **2.3. Language Learning Theory**

The study of language is notoriously debatable. As outlined briefly above, there are many conflicting and overlapping claims and theories about learning and language learning. It will be helpful here to make a distinction among these claims according to their similarities and differences in the theories they depend on. If we take the roles of theory and research in the study of language learning into consideration, we may look at the definition of theory which defines theory as a scientifically acceptable set of principles offered to explain a phenomenon by providing frameworks for interpreting environmental observations and for serving as bridges between research and education (Suppes, 1974). As put forward, theory facilitates understanding complex issues in a systematic manner, and forms ties

between thoughts and performance. Because the acquisition of language is extremely complex, various and a lot of theories on language learning have been proposed by researchers and practitioners after countless hours of observation and tests. Amongst those there are two that are very outstanding; the behavioral theory and the cognitive theory. However, it is necessary here to begin by comparing two philosophical and scientific traditions, rationalism and empiricism to provide a ground for understanding these theories.

### **2.3.1. Rationalism vs. Empiricism**

The roots of contemporary learning theories extend far into the past and they mostly reflect a universal desire for people to understand themselves, others, and the world around them (Schunk, 2000). Two positions on the origin of knowledge and its relationship to the environment are rationalism and empiricism. Rationalism refers to the idea that knowledge derives from reason without the help of the senses. This idea can be traced back to Plato who holds that there is a kind of distinction between mind and matter, and humankind acquires knowledge by thinking, reasoning, discovering, and reflecting on the ideas. To him, the knowledge of ideas is innate and brought into awareness through reflection. In other words, the mind is innately structured to reason and attribute meaning to incoming sensory information. Descartes by advancing Plato's views adds that there is a mind- matter dualism but this bipolar structure has a kind of interaction inbetween. Kant who is another rationalist philosopher extends these ideas and claims that the mind orders the disordered external world through the senses and by altering it according to innate laws. He believes that reason acts upon information acquired from the world.

On the other hand, Schunk (2000: 17) describes that empiricism refers to the idea that experience is the only source of knowledge. According to Aristotle, Plato's student and successor, there is not a sharp distinction between mind and matter, and the external world is the basis for human sense impressions which, in turn, are interpreted as lawful by the mind. He also claims that an idea reminds of others and

learning occurs through associations. Another influential figure John Locke extends this view, and claims that all knowledge is based on the external world and two types of experience- sensory impressions and personal awareness, and adds that no innate ideas exist. There are also other empiricist philosophers like Berkeley who believes that the mind is only reality and people impose qualities onto their sensory impressions altering the reality, Hume who thinks that people cannot be certain about both the external world and their own ideas but they just attribute meaning to the outside world, and Mill who argues that the whole (thoughts) may be the sum of the parts (sensory impressions), but it is not always the case, and simple ideas may not be combining in orderly ways to form complex ones. Although these philosophical positions and learning theories do not neatly overlap, behavioral theories typically can be claimed to be empiricist and cognitive theories look more like rationalistic.

### **2.3.2. Behavioral Theories vs. Cognitive Theories**

There were two theorists, Skinner and Watson, who studied the development of language in young children known as the behaviorist theory. They and other originators and contributors like Ivan Pavlov, E.L. Thorndike, and Bandura who believe solely in this theory are known as behaviorists who think that organisms come into the world as “blank slates.” This means that when babies are born into the world they do not have any knowledge whatsoever; they do not know anything and they cannot do anything. In addition, behaviorists believe that their theory’s basic principles apply to all species. Schunk (2000: 30) states that one very important principle of the behaviorist theory is that the role of the environment is of utmost importance in proving the theory. They believe that the process of learning occurs only if there comes a change in behavior. Behaviorists basically study the relationship between stimuli and responses. In a behavioral approach learners’ behaviors are assessed to determine when to begin instruction. In order for learning to take place it is essential to arrange stimuli in the environment so that learners can make the proper responses and be reinforced. Learning is progressed in small steps through differential reinforcement and responses to shape the behavior (Schunk,

2000). Frequent responses by learners and feedback concerning the accuracy of responses are needed. Behavioral principles of instruction certainly have a close relation to learning because the goal of instruction is to produce a change in behavior. However, behavioral theories of language learning ignore the powerful influences of observational and interactional learning and of cognitive principles which are essential to explain complex procedures like problem solving in language learning.

In contrast with behavioral theories, cognitive theories emphasize the mental structure of knowledge and the development of networks of information and production systems (Schunk, 2000: 24). These theories explicate how learning occurs through receiving, processing, storing, and retrieving information in memory when needed. There is less concern with students' performance, or what they do, but more concern with what they know and the way they come to know that. Although cognitive perspectives resemble some behavioral principles like giving the importance to practice and feedback to establish appropriate stimuli in the environment to which learners can attend, they emphasize the thinking processes producing the behavior rather than the behavior itself. Other important principles are about instruction supporting the necessity of active involvement by learners, use of hierarchical analyses to design instruction and learning, emphasis on the structure and organization of knowledge, and linking new knowledge to learners' prior cognitive structures by using meaningful material and giving feedback (Schunk, 2000). In both approaches it is claimed that there is an orthodox position inbetween them which claims that there is little if any learning without attention, or in other words more attention results in more learning as Baars puts forward (as cited in Robinson, 2001).

### **2.3.3. Connectionism vs. Nativism**

After explaining behavioral theory based on empiricist philosophical position and cognitive theory based on the rationalist philosophical position, we can discuss

other two competing positions about linguistic knowledge: connectionist position drawing on behavioral learning theories, and innatist position drawing on cognitive learning theories. The connectionist psychologists like Rumelhart and McClelland take linguistic knowledge as the sum of an elaborate network of nodes and internodes connections of varying strengths dictating the ease with which specific meanings can be accessed (Ellis, Leowen, Elder, Erlam, Philp, & Reinders, 2009: 10). According to this view, learning is driven primarily by input and a relatively simple, cognitive mechanism that is able to respond to both positive evidence from the input and negative evidence from corrective feedback. Linguistic knowledge is couched in the form of rules and principles in mind (Pinker & Prince, 1988). To understand language and cognition one must break them up according to two aspects: the rules connected in mind and behavior coming forth as a response to a new rule. Thorndike, in whose study connectionism is first mentioned as a term and who is the founder of connectionism as a theory of learning, postulates that the most fundamental type of learning involves the forming of associations, or connections, between sensory experiences (stimuli) and neural impulses (responses) manifesting themselves behaviorally (Schunk, 2000: 31).

Connectionism as a theory of learning has actually its roots in associationism. Associationism dates back to classical times but is substantially refined by the seventeenth century philosopher John Locke. The fundamental belief of associationism is that learning could be regarded as the formation of associations between previously unrelated information and new information based on their contiguity. Associationism does not contain many of the more advanced and sophisticated notions of connectionism (Cohen, Kiss & Le Voi., 1993).

There is not an agreement on what exactly connectionism is, but most connectionist model share some common properties with associationism. Firstly, connectionists do not use neurological terms like synapses and neurons directly as in associationism, but instead they use the terms nodes and networks. These nodes are said to be massively interconnected with other nodes to form a network of interconnections. That is how the term connectionism comes out. Each of these

nodes can be connected to many different networks. The knowledge is stored in these interconnections and is associated with other kinds of knowledge contained in the network and to other networks. Connectionists believe that these interconnections store the lexical information in the interconnections between the nodes in the form of a network. The representation of a word might involve interconnections between various parts of this network in the brain. For example, a word may seem tied to the phonological, semantic or orthographic parts of the network. Thus connectionism explains flexibility found in human intelligence using methods that cannot be easily expressed and avoids the shortness arising from standard forms of symbolic representations (Horgan & Tienson, 1989). Connectionists believe that information is in the form of massively interconnected sub-networks which are related to each other rather than as a simple unified system. For instance, a sub-network of morphological knowledge can connect with a sub network of word roots, which in turn can connect to a semantic sub-network which stores meanings of words. With this point of view we can say that the knowledge is distributed among many interconnections (Waring, n.d.).

There is a strong popular belief here that we learn languages through imitation, induction and correction done with these networks. According to this view which was articulated by Leonard Bloomfield (1933), language learning is a process of imitation and habit formation shaped by the parents through abstraction and displacement. Other than the roles of parents, educational principles that the connectionist position addresses dictate that learners need to understand how to apply knowledge and skills they acquire. Therefore, schooling should form habits instead of expecting learners to create themselves, should beware of forming a habit which must be broken later, and should not form more habits than needed but just usable habits. A skill should be introduced at the time when it can be used and when the learner is conscious of the need with a satisfying and useful purpose.

On the other hand, the supporters of innatist position based on the work of Chomsky claims that humans have access to the knowledge that is processed innately and learning is a natural act for human beings. They believe that all human beings



enter the world with a biological readiness, an inborn device, to learn language (Cooter & Reutzel, 2004). According to this innatist and mentalist view of language learning, there is a contribution of a complex and biologically specified language module or a component of the brain devoted to language which is a genetically determined language faculty locating in the mind of the learner (Ellis et al., 2009: 10). Chomsky (1986:3) defines this module for learning language as “an innate component of the human mind that yields a particular language through interaction with presented experience- ‘the language acquisition device’ (LAD)- that converts experience into a system of knowledge attained: knowledge of one or another language” which should be activated in the first decade of life- the critical period. They also state that linguistic knowledge is derived from impoverished input with this device, and language is acquired according to the compatibility to the Universal Grammar (UG). The UG contains a system of grammatical rules and categories common to all languages. Theorists assume that language is a structure or grammar independent of language use because it is impossible to exemplify all probabilities in a language. According to Chomsky, who was the first researcher to propose the innatist theory, grammar is generative in terms of providing infinite set of sentences with a finite set of rules (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Therefore, the innatist position gives importance to competence rather than performance unlike the connectionist position. In the innatist position, to support the superiority of competence over performance it is claimed that it is impossible to explain how children can generate or acquire language they have never been exposed before if we ignore the fact that language acquisition rests on innate abilities or structures rather than insufficient and ambiguous stimulus or input deprived of enough feedback or correction. In other words, the developing linguistic system evolves everyday, and has an infinite linguistic capacity reflecting the essential creativity of language. The use of language is dependent on a variety of social and contextual environmental variables and can be analyzed at many different levels of description. However, language development is still successful despite errors, the finite linguistic input, and an unsystematic exposure to the full range of representative linguistic data in acquisitional setting. This situation is called as ‘the theory of poverty of stimulus’ and supports the innatist position in language learning (Milekic & Weisler, 2006: 16).

The connectionist position explains how babies learn language (through making kind of connections between what they already know and their new learnings in their minds) while the innatist position reveals why babies are born to English-speaking parents speak English instead of Spanish (by means of using their LAD and UG). Mostly, these two positions are perceived as oppositional in these terms, but in one sense they agree. The supporters of both the innatist and connectionist positions try to explain how language learning occurs by claiming that L2 (second or foreign language) competence consists primarily of implicit knowledge which is tacit, intuitive, and evident in learners' verbal behaviour. They claim that the aim of theory is to explain how this implicit knowledge is acquired and kept in a person's mind without necessarily being expressed as performance and is often acted on instinctively. However, these two positions differ in the importance they attach to explicit knowledge which is conscious and articulated knowledge, expressed and recorded as words, numbers, codes, mathematical and scientific formulae and relatively easy to communicate, store, and distribute. These two different ways of knowledge and their instruction will be discussed more broadly in the next section.

#### **2.4. Implicit vs. Explicit Instruction**

Effective teaching should be based on a sound and established theoretical foundation, and without this foundation, the quality of practice suffers (Goldstein, 1986). In other words, regardless of perspective, theories should and sometimes do share some common values in order to enhance learning through instruction. There are numerous theories and approaches about teaching a second or foreign language, some exotic some mundane but all have one thing in common – a desire to make the learning of a foreign or second language as efficient and effective as possible. In addition to trying to facilitate learning, theories share the idea that learners progress step by step in language development. Therefore, it is necessary to organize and present materials in small steps. Despite this agreement, little overlap occurs between the fields of learning and instruction at the levels of theory, research and application (Shuell, 1988: 277). However, the attempt to integrate theory, research and practice

makes us question our principles and learning settings which, in turn, provoke theoretical knowledge to improve through results of informed teaching practice.

After summarizing general learning theories and language learning theories and underlining the importance of co-working of theory, research and classroom practice, a convenient starting point here is to touch on the issue of classroom practice and mention what instruction which is the most outstanding factor about classroom learning is and how important it is for learners. In the past, classroom second language development was always treated as an issue amenable to a logical rather than an empirical approach (Ellis, 1984: 6). Theorists were happy to extrapolate classroom language development theories from general learning theory based on laboratory experiments with animals by which language development was seen as the product of stimulus-response links developed through imitation, practice and reinforcement with a full commitment to a behaviorist account of language development. This reluctance to engage in classroom research can be explained by the natural inclination not to undertake unnecessary work. It is much easier to draw on the work of other researchers who have investigated the nature of learning in general or who have studied naturalistic acquisition than to enter the 'black box' and begin the messy business of trying to find out how learners learn a language there. After the 60s and 70s the definition of classroom language development has changed and now the term 'instruction' is defined as 'to intervene in interlanguage development of L2 learner' (Ellis et al., 2009: 16). Instructional theory and research have changed dramatically in recent years while the influence of behaviorism declined and the impact of instructional and contextual variables on learning in educational settings gained importance (Schunk, 2000: 23). Current instructional researches investigate topics like the impact of instructional variables on learners' cognition, the role of individual differences, the interactions among teachers and learners, and how learners construct knowledge in this process. Chaudron (1988: 1) asserts that in recent years there have been especially increasing empirical researches on instruction concerning the major features of teacher and student behavior in classrooms, the types and quantities of instructional and noninstructional tasks, the relative amounts of participation by the teacher and students, the functions and forms

of language in interaction and learning outcomes since 1960s. He also puts forward that with careful evaluation of investigation results, well-informed decisions could be made at all levels of educational planning to develop the curriculum, to prepare the most appropriate materials, to train teachers well by modifying teacher's speech in explanations, to prefer the best classroom teaching activities and techniques, and to make decisions about individualization of instruction (Chaudron, 1988: 192). Thus classroom oriented research can guide the teacher, researcher, curriculum developer, or administrator toward principles of effective instruction. In a synthesis of several classroom researches it is seen that instructional contexts are more influential and contribute more positively to acquisition of the target language than naturalistic exposure when duration of exposure and other factors are controlled (Chaudron, 1988: 4). Classroom oriented research is mainly based on two contexts: the foreign language context in which the learner acquires the target language when there is little natural use of the language in the surrounding society, and the second language context in which the target language is not only the content of instruction but the medium of instruction for programmatic decisions and/ or linguistic necessity (Chaudron, 1988: 5). In the first context which is our main concern in this investigation and which is the case for English language learning and teaching community most broadly all around the world, the target language is generally treated as equivalent to any school subject in which terminology, concepts, and rules are taught, homework is written, and tests are taken where the learners are totally dependent on instruction as Ellis (1984) points out. At this point, the effectiveness of classroom instruction gets more worthy of concern.

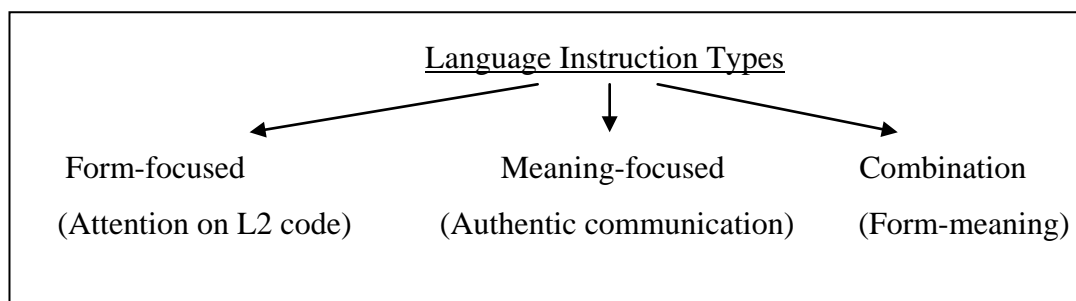
In the fifties and sixties there was no field of investigation that could be labeled as 'second language acquisition' (Ellis, 1990). There were only some claims about how language teaching should be applied, and they were just based on linguistic theory or a general theory of learning put forward by behaviorist psychologists who treated learning as a process of habit formation and leaned on structuralist and behaviorist theories as mentioned above. Mentalism came later inspired by Chomsky's strong claims for innate, universal linguistic properties of the mind drawing on similarities between naturalistic and instructed second language

development- SLA (Larsen Freeman & Long, 1991: 300). They claimed that instruction had little or no effect on the acquisition process. Maybe the most well-known position concerning the influence of instruction on the target language development was that of Krashen (Chaudron, 1988: 6). While interpreting L2 acquisition he offers an extensive analysis of the part of instruction. He evaluates the effects of instruction as limited, but he says instruction supports the learner affectively by providing the learner with comprehensible language input that is at the suitable level which is just ahead of the learner's stage of rule development. To him, instruction will especially be valuable when other naturalistic input is not available as in the case of foreign language contexts where acquisition occurs in the contexts providing formal instruction. On the other hand, Krashen (1985) acknowledges that rule teaching and instruction through conscious learning of those rules are not substantial enough for learners' progress and at times it is even detrimental to the development of communicative proficiency. He has also argued that instruction is powerless to change the natural route of L2 acquisition and so learners should be let to follow their own internal syllabus. Findings from studies on developmental sequences indicate that, although instruction may facilitate SLA, its facilitation may be constrained by the learner's developmental readiness (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). However, Long (1983) states that more complex rules and metalinguistic awareness could be obtained only through instruction not only readiness. Any learning task is complex in terms of consisting of the acquisition of certain fundamental units, elements, or rules, their integration in functional relationships and applications, and a certain amount of production, practice, and other mental operations. Because of this assumption Long is supported and Krashen is criticized by a number of applied linguists such as McLaughlin (1978), Sharwood-Smith (1981) and Ellis (1985) who advocate that noticing a feature in the input is an essential first step in language.

Formal instruction does not effect the route of the development- the general sequence or specific order of acquisition- of SLA, but it effects the rate- the speed at which learning takes place- and success -the proficiency level finally achieved (Ellis, 1985). However, Krashen asserts that *acquisition* and *learning* are separate terms (Krashen & Terrell, 1983: 26). The former occurs automatically when the learner

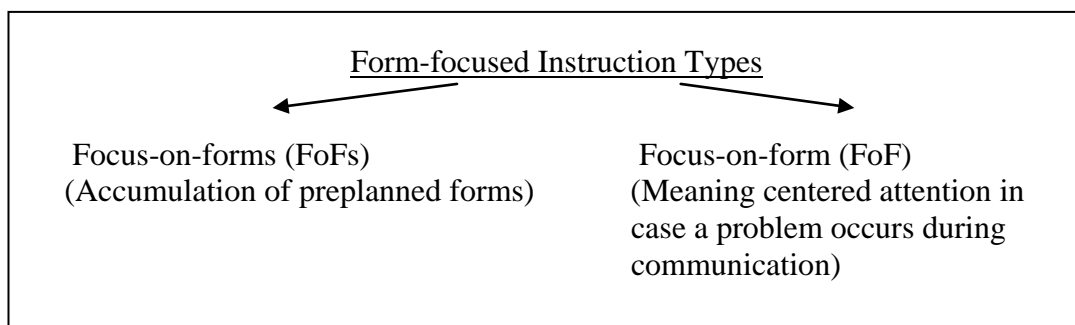
engages in natural communication while the focus is on meaning, but the latter occurs as a result of formal instruction when the learner is focused on the formal properties of the L2. Formal instruction may provide more opportunities to practice comprehensible input and accelerate the acquisition, but learned knowledge can be used just to monitor output generated by means of acquired knowledge. In other words, to Krashen, acquisition cannot be equal to learning. Krashen believes that the role of teaching is to provide opportunities for communication rather than to draw attention to the L2 code. However, there are also some other points of view in favour of attention and all forms of instruction like Schmidt (as cited in Robinson, 2001) claiming that the concept of attention is necessary in order to understand virtually every aspect of SLA including the development of interlanguage, the development of second or foreign language fluency, the role of individual differences such as motivation, aptitude and learning strategies and the ways in which instruction contributes to language learning. Long also claims that there is a considerable evidence that instruction makes a difference and has a beneficial effect for children as well as adults, for intermediate and advanced students, and in acquisition-rich environments (SLA context) as well as acquisition poor environments (foreign language context) (1983: 374). Ellis (1985: 215) states that raising the learner's consciousness about the nature of target language helps the learner to internalize it. Therefore, it can be claimed that learning and cognition are richly intertwined issues and not two distinct fields with one dominating the other (Reber, 1993). The effect of consciousness-raising on learning can vary depending on both the degree of explicitness with which a rule presented and also the degree of elaboration involved. In other words, the important issue in raising consciousness is not just uttering the L2 code explicitly but to elaborate on it and apply it especially with young learners whom talking about rules cannot appeal to (Sharwood-Smith, 1981). Consciousness occurs by learners' noticing negative evidence, attending to language, directing focus on explicit instruction, voluntary use of analogical reasoning, and their consciously guided practice resulting in finally unconscious and automatized skill (Fotos & Nassaji, 2007: 17).

The key question at this juncture is what form this attempt to raise learners' consciousness should take. The central research topic in a great deal of researches is firstly whether this intervention promotes L2 learning and then what kind of intervention is most effective. For the first issue of debate, in the light of previous studies it could be claimed that instruction does promote L2 learning and it does it in two ways: directly in terms of having an immediate effect on the learner's ability to perform the target structures in natural communication and it can work indirectly in terms of having a delayed effect coming out after a while following instruction. However, research is concerned with issues going beyond the question of mere effectiveness. When it comes to the issue on 'the most effective kind of instruction', instruction types should be mentioned here. According to Ellis (1990) the intervention can be altered as form- focused instruction where the learners are encouraged to focus their attention on specific characteristics of the linguistic code, meaning focused instruction designed to promote authentic communication in the classroom, or as a kind of combination of both form and meaning focused instruction as shown in Figure 1.



**Figure 1 : Ellis's (1990) Language Instruction Types**

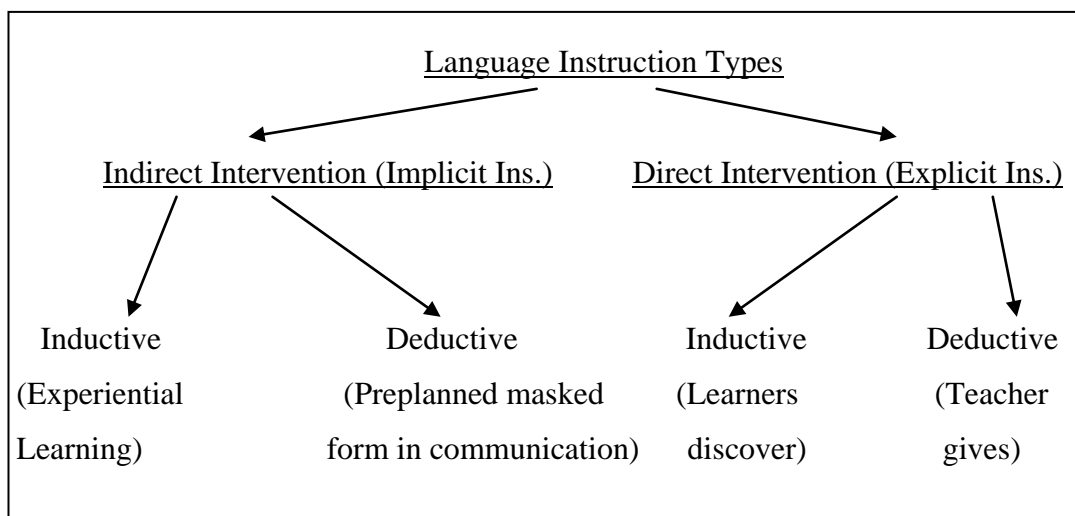
Long (1991) distinguishes two approaches of form-focused instruction (FFI) in which attention is on forms of language and the aim of instruction is to raise consciousness of learners. The first one is focus-on-forms (FoFs) which requires a planned approach in which a specific form for treatment is selected firstly and learners systematically accumulate these forms as discrete entities. The latter is focus-on-form (FoF) which involves attention to form in tasks that are meaning centered and including a communication problem to be resolved in negotiation. It is shown below in Figure 2.



**Figure 2: Long's (1991) Form-Focused Instruction Types**

Ellis (2005: 713) also defines language instruction broadly as ‘indirect’ and ‘direct’ intervention (See Figure 3). Indirect intervention is to create conditions where learners can learn things experientially by learning how to communicate in the L2. It mostly takes place in a task-based syllabus motivating communication among the classroom participants. Indirect intervention looks like inductive in nature, but it can also take place as deductive intervention when a specific learning target is determined and masked from the learners without drawing their explicit attention. Direct intervention constitutes explicit instruction in which metalinguistic awareness is achieved deductively by giving rules and meanings directly and inductively by helping learners discover rules and meanings themselves, and whose function at the outset is to direct and focus learners’ attention to the target language. Direct intervention is characterized by a structural syllabus. In direct intervention skill-getting is aimed and in indirect intervention both skill getting and skill using are required (Ellis, 2005b: 713). In order to evaluate the contribution of direct or indirect intervention to learning and acquisition, the intervention can simply be classified- for isolating the differential effects of instruction types- as explicit instruction involving some sort of rule being taught during the learning process, and implicit instruction providing learners with experience of specific exemplars of a pattern while they are not attempting to learn it to enable learners to infer rules without awareness (Ellis et al., 2009).





**Figure 3: Ellis's (2005) Language Instruction Types**

Housen and Pierrard (2006: 10), too, describe the characteristics of explicit and implicit instruction as follows. They claim that implicit instruction attracts attention while explicit instruction directs attention to target form. Implicit instruction occurs spontaneously in a reactive manner in a communication oriented task-based instruction and also it is proactive when tasks are designed to elicit the use of a specific linguistic target, but explicit instruction is predetermined and planned in a proactive manner and also may occur reactively when based on learner errors. Minimal interruption of communication of meaning occurs in implicit instruction while it is vice versa in explicit instruction. Implicit instruction presents linguistic target in context, but explicit instruction presents it in isolation. Therefore, implicit instruction encourages learners to use the target form freely, but explicit instruction involves controlled practice. Moreover, implicit instruction does not use metalanguage which is language about language while explicit instruction makes use of terminology in rule explanation (see Table 1).

**Table 1**  
**Implicit Instruction vs. Explicit Instruction**

Implicit Instruction	Explicit Instruction
- Creating learning conditions	- Achieving metalinguistic awareness
- Attracting learners' attention to the target language while communicating in a task-based syllabus	- Directing learners' attention to the target language in a structural syllabus
- Skill-getting and skill-using	- Skill-getting
- Occurring spontaneously or for eliciting a specific linguistic target	- Predetermined and planned or based on learner errors
- Minimal interruption of learning	- Interruption of learning
- Linguistic target in context	- Linguistic target in isolation
- Free practice	- Controlled practice
- No metalanguage	- Metalanguage

After differentiating the characteristics of these two language instruction types, the question is which one is superior to other in terms of development, rate and success in L2. In a research, Norris and Ortega (2000) define implicit instruction as instruction having enriched input and which neither rule presentation nor directions are provided and which aims for comprehension in a way by giving a set of sentences asked to be memorized, and explicit instruction as metalinguistic explanation or production practice situated in meaningful contexts clearly and purposefully drawing learners' attention to the specific elements when they investigate the effects of the types. They find out that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction. Some other studies have also proved that explicit instruction may be more effective than implicit instruction especially when learning involves simple rules (DeKeyser 1995: 379-410; Robinson 1996: 27-67). Although first language (L1) acquisition involves implicit learning, these mechanisms cannot be used for SLA due to learned attention and transfer from L1, but only by recruiting additional resources of explicit learning (Fotos & Nassaji, 2007: 17). Instruction that contains

explicit instructional techniques results in more positive effects than those involving implicit techniques and the effectiveness of the instructional treatments depend on the methodological approaches adopted, especially the assessment procedures used to measure the effectiveness of instruction (Norris & Ortega, 2000: 11). In other words, it should be noted that many of the studies on the effects of these two types of instruction use methods of measuring acquisition that favor explicit instruction. Other studies suggest that the relative benefits of explicit instruction might also be related to factors such as the extent of instruction, the kind of task involved, the amount, nature and timing of planning as in Ellis's study (2005: 141-172). On the other hand, implicit instruction is effective in developing L2 proficiency in terms of resulting in linguistic knowledge that learners can access when asked to engage in real life. However, implicit instruction may not always result in high levels of linguistic and sociolinguistic competence, it is relatively new having no received set of principles, it may be too radical in contexts where language learning is mostly perceived as analytical, and it is not clear how it can cater for autonomous language learning (Ellis, 2005b: 725). On this issue, Lightbown (2000) states that focus on both form and meaning in the continuum of implicit versus explicit instruction is much more advantageous. Additional research (Ellis, Basturkmen & Leowen 2001; Lyster & Mori 2006) suggests that such a shift inbetween can promote interlanguage restructuring.

However, in the light of above mentioned characteristics of these two types of instructions it can be claimed that they mostly lean on an external perspective to the learner which mostly gives importance to the teacher, material writer, or course designer and neglect learner perspective as if there had to be a direct correlation inbetween instruction type and learning as Ellis et al. points out (2009: 18). Brumfit (1984) underlines that even if learners do follow a fixed route, the teachers should not take it for granted that their teaching also follows it. In other words, it cannot be known if implicit instruction always entails implicit knowledge and explicit instruction entails explicit knowledge because learner preferences play an important role in responding to input as information they process or intake they take in directly. Instructional treatment cannot wipe out the effect of individual differences among

learners (Ranta, 2002). Berry and Broadbent (1988) also prove it in their research. Grammar is taught explicitly in three ways to the subjects: firstly a group of subjects are told that specific grammatical information is going to be taught to them in order to direct their attention to those specific features; in another group this information is presented during teaching procedure; and in the last situation grammatical explanation is provided after many examples about that grammatical information. They find out that specific instruction concerning the materials to be learned in complex situations will be maximally beneficial when the explanation is given earlier, and there is representational coordination between the instruction type, instruction time, and the implicit knowledge derived from experience. This investigation underlines the fact that there is not a necessary connection between the underlying epistemic form of the knowledge represented in mind and our formalization of the instruction type, but there is between explanation or consciousness raising time and task.

To sum up, to date the focus has always been on measuring the language learning that results from instruction and, on the basis of this, inferring to what extent and in what ways the instruction affected L2 acquisition in researches. It can be claimed that instructed learning is an effective alternative to naturalistic learning, and it plays a significant role in foreign language learning. Therefore, the important question to be asked here is not the rate of effectiveness of instruction, but what kind of instruction helps most. Current trends in language teaching reflect implementation of both of these methodologies to some degree. Therefore, so far we could not get definite answers to this question. In spite of these uncertainties, researches have to be conducted in order to give teachers pedagogic recommendations, and to help teachers to understand that instruction should be characterized with various activities by engaging learners in meaningful interactions and making them aware that some attention to language form is necessary, as well (Lightbown, 2000: 433). Therefore, many instruction types are operationalized in very different ways and sometimes together to cater for both the implicit knowledge which is tacit, procedural, automatic, and internalized and the explicit knowledge which is conscious, declarative, controlled, and learnable (Rod Ellis, 1997: 130). In the next section the

correlation between instruction and language learning will be discussed from a vocabulary aspect which is neglected in the past but one of the most important issues in language learning and teaching fraternity nowadays, and which is sharing the increasing popularity with blended instruction types involving both explicit and implicit instruction relying on form-focused-instruction and communicative approaches in language teaching.

## CHAPTER 3

### VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

#### 3.1. Vocabulary Learning and Vocabulary Instruction

It should be noted that vocabulary has many different meanings itself such as the knowledge of words and their meanings used to communicate efficiently, total number of words in a language, words known by a person, list of words with their meanings, or a lexical unit of lexicon (Hornby, 1995 & Lado, 1964 as cited in Rahmy, 2007). Zimmerman (1997a: 5) underlines that vocabulary constitutes the core of language and for language learners it is vitally important. Without vocabulary it is impossible to teach grammar or linguistic knowledge to be used in communication and discourse and other language skills. Vocabulary should be at the centre of language teaching, because “language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar” in Lewis’s (1993: 89) words. Additionally, Lewis (2001: 8) claims that “without grammar little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.” It is asserted that words inevitably come before structures (Little, 1994:106). Moreover, Widdowson (1989: 135) agrees that communicative competence does not mean knowing rules, but knowing a stock of partially pre-assembled patterns. Rules are not generative but regulative and they are not usable without vocabulary. Additionally, insufficiency in vocabulary of a language learner leads to the loss of interest in that target language. As Laufer (1998: 14) suggests, learners make a progress in language learning only with an increase in the number of words they know. Gass and Selinker (2001: 449) add that lexicon is the most important language acquisition component for learners. All these show how significant vocabulary is in language learning and teaching.

Despite being that important, as put forward by many researchers (Coady & Huckin 1997; Schmitt & McCarthy 1997; Zimmerman 1997a) vocabulary learning and instruction have been neglected issues in second and foreign language research until recent decades. For a long time grammar was the leading issue in second or foreign language instruction. It is startling to witness how infrequently vocabulary or

lexis was mentioned at all before the 1980s in SLA history. However, after 1980s scholars' attention turned to the lack of interest to lexis not only in older grammatical syllabuses and approaches in which isolated sentences and word lists were memorized, but also in more recent communicative approaches in which function and discourse are appreciated while vocabulary instruction is neglected. Although the grammar translation method seemed to focus on vocabulary, it had a negative effect on learning process by making learners memorize vocabulary items through word lists (Rivers, 1983). As Rivers (1983: 116) drew attention, structural linguistics emphasizing on phonology, morphology, and syntax neglected vocabulary instruction, and in the audio-lingual method the focus was on grammatical structures rather than vocabulary which was thought to be learned at later stages. Since the 1970s the importance of lexical knowledge has taken an increasing appreciation (Bennett, 2006: 13). However, communicative linguistic theorists were also criticized for emphasizing less on vocabulary and its instruction while focusing more on structures, functions, notions, and communication strategies (O'Dell, 1997: 259). In the history of second or foreign language instruction the methods and approaches emphasized grammar instruction or other language skills such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking. In the 1980s the initiation of lexicographical research came out, which aroused from the need for accurate language description. Through accurate description of vocabulary, the concepts of lexical phrases or multiword chunks rather than individual words were introduced and it was shown that language production was retrieval of larger phrasal units from memory and not a syntactic and grammatical rule governed process in the speaker's internalized language knowledge (Zimmerman 1997a: 16; Richards & Rodgers 2001: 132). Vocabulary and lexical units are seen as the core of a foreign or second language learning and instruction. Today the significance of vocabulary is appreciated as the number of studies and modern instruction models concerning vocabulary increase. As Thornbury (2002: 6) states this depends on the recent availability of computerized databases of words and partly on the development of new approaches to language teaching which have become more word centered rather than grammar centered since words are vital means to express meaning. Especially for the last two decades, vocabulary pedagogy has benefited both from the developments in computer technology and from various

improvements in the world (Carter & McCarthy, 1988: 43). First of all, it has benefited from theoretical advances in the linguistic study of the lexicon, second from psycholinguistic investigations into the mental lexicon, and finally, from the communicative trend in teaching, bringing the learner into focus. In other words as McCarthy (1990: 8) points out, no matter how well grammar or the sound of the target language is learned without words, expressing a wider range of meanings in communication in an L2 cannot happen in a meaningful way. However, when confronted with this seemingly vital part of second language learning, second or foreign language learners get usually frustrated because of the heavy vocabulary load they have to learn. Therefore, studies on vocabulary tended to focus on the ways of understanding and managing this difficult process.

Another difficulty other than the heavy vocabulary load that the learners have to master is the broad meaning of knowing a word. Word learning depends heavily on the learner's understanding of the thoughts of others, on their theory of mind (Bloom, 2000: 55). Theory of mind arranges how learners learn the entities to which words refer, intuitively how words relate to one another, and understands how words can serve as communicative signs. The changes in the attitude towards vocabulary through time and the birth of various modern language learning and teaching approaches have also led to changes in the use of theory of mind and the definition of lexical competence in recent years. In contemporary approaches to language learning, knowing a word does not mean knowing its translation or its dictionary definition only; it has taken on some new meanings and many aspects. For example, knowing a word is considered as knowing the limitations imposed on the use of words according to variations of function and situation. Vocabulary knowledge requires rich and decontextualized knowledge of a word's meaning, and then its relationship to other words, and finally its extension to metaphorical uses. Richards (1976: 83) emphasizes the significance of becoming familiar with a word's sociolinguistic attributes, its semantic behavior, its grammatical aspects (derivational and inflectional), and its possible combinations. Furthermore, Ooi and Kim-Seoh (1996: 53) assert that lexical competence is the competence for use rather than just the knowledge of word meaning. Thus, they argue that L2 learners should also be



aware of the lexical sets and collocations in the target language for efficient learning of vocabulary. Generally knowing a word is now more than knowing just its meaning and form but as Nation (1990: 31) claims knowing a word means knowing the meaning, the written or spoken form, the grammatical manner, the collocations, the register, the associations and the frequency of the word with its negative and positive connotations, as well. In other words, Nation (1990) states that knowing a word has three aspects; (1) knowing the form of a word (spoken form, pronunciation, written form, spelling, and word parts, inflections, and derivations), (2) knowing the meaning of a word (meaning, figurative meaning, referents and associations), and (3) knowing how a word is used (grammatical functions, semantic relations, collocations, constraints according to register, formality or frequency, and socio-cultural associations). However, actually knowing a word with its all kinds of knowledge is not always possible or maybe necessary. However, with receptive knowledge (meaning recognizing a word from its written or spoken form and helping the learner while reading and listening) and with productive knowledge (meaning most aspects of knowing a word and which is used while writing or speaking) a word can be used by the learners in different levels (Nation 1990, 2001; Schmitt 2000).

After discussing what knowing a word really means, it is necessary to pile up what a vocabulary instruction consists of and the techniques in it easing knowing a word. As Baker (2003) claims there are various phases in vocabulary instruction one of which is the teacher's presenting the pronunciation and the meaning of the word, the teacher's controlling the understanding of the learners and making learners relate the word to their own life by using it in appropriate context (as cited in Rahimi & Sahragad, 2008). These stages might be applied differently. For example, while presenting a vocabulary item various techniques such as providing a short definition, a detailed description, pictures or real objects through miming and/or acting, making learners match the word with its meaning and labeling, or giving associated ideas and collocations in context might be used. While checking the comprehension after presentation and making learners produce the new vocabulary item, the primary aim is the correct usage and the retention of the words taught. Sentence completion, cloze tests, crossword puzzles, categorizing, sequencing, deleting the odd one, identifying

chunks, semantic mapping (which is a visual strategy to expand and extent vocabulary by showing categories a word is related to), songs, games and keyword method (in which a key word resembling the target word phonologically is taken and pictured together with the target word), and interpreting dictionary entries are some techniques used at this stage. Nation (1990: 40-41) states that a good vocabulary exercise should firstly be on useful, frequent words; secondly have a clear and useful learning aim encouraging learners to use the word in ways that establish new mental connections; thirdly make learner take active role in searching and evaluating the target word; and finally present the new vocabulary item in context. Teachers should adapt those activities by taking every chance to expand the learners' phrasal lexicon and develop their awareness about word parts. Learning multiword items, fixed expressions and prototypical sentences under multiple exposures are the greatest value at this phase. However, the richness of contextual clues, the learners' tendency and the size and quality of their previous word knowledge and store are also significant when we consider the fact that, as Hawkins points out (2005: 31), effective instruction means teaching that focuses not on development of decontextualized vocabulary and grammatical features, but the one supporting learners' abilities to engage with the multiple forms of language, literacies, and texts presented and valued in schools.

Still, as estimated, learning or requiring all these aspects is not possible at one exposure (Schmitt, 2000: 36). At this point it can be said that vocabulary acquisition is a cumulative process requiring many times of exposure for production for communicative purposes appropriately in the right context (Read, 2000: 40). Here the significance of the way of instruction to increase exposure and to expand vocabulary knowledge of learners comes forth. There are various ways to teach or learn vocabulary. After vocabulary instruction gained importance, how to teach vocabulary became a kernel of interest. As mentioned above vocabulary instruction can be led through various ways including productive speaking or writing activities to make learners produce something else with what they have learned. Some of them do that in a conscious, planned and systematic way and some do in an unconscious way by making learners acquire vocabulary after being exposed to the target

language in natural contexts. The first group can be called *direct vocabulary instruction* in which learners learn vocabulary through unnatural activities such as word lists, games, and vocabulary lists. The second group can be labeled as *indirect vocabulary instruction* which requires the learner focus on tasks rather than just focusing on vocabulary developing his vocabulary knowledge subconsciously while being engaged in any language activities and which is based on contextualization (Nation 1990; Nation 2001).

Indirect vocabulary instruction is defined as instruction without teaching and without conscious inductions requiring the learners' attention to word form and meaning (Hulstijn, 1997: 49). Implicit learning is defined as the acquisition of knowledge by means of a process taking place naturally, simply and without conscious operation as in indirect vocabulary instruction (Nick Ellis, 1994: 360). L2 vocabulary only develops with natural communicative exposure in the target language as in the development of L1 vocabulary which develops through contextualized and naturally sequenced language (Zimmerman, 1997a: 15). Processing theory which was developed by Craik and Lockhart (1972) supports the claim that retention of vocabulary can only be possible with a deeper processing of the information. Krashen (1989: 440) supporting the implicit vocabulary instruction emphasizes comprehensible and meaningful input and the inevitability of comprehension of vocabulary items for acquisition, as well. He notes that both explicit and implicit instruction can take place in vocabulary, but only implicit learning entails acquisition. Schmitt (2000: 137), also, points out that for foreign language learners it is impossible to learn thousands of words through conscious ways as in direct learning and they have to pick them up unconsciously which makes a mingle of direct and indirect learning inevitable. This way of learning requires meaningful context to be used to provide retention of vocabulary by means of deeper mental processing of words. However, according to recent researches it can be said that learning words in rich and meaningful contexts through indirect way is not always possible since it is not practical and time consuming. Stahl (1999: 14) asserts that context may be a powerful teaching aid in learners' vocabulary growth, but it is a long-term process since word meanings are slowly accumulated through exposure

and this process can be shortened by means of explicit instruction. After their research, Laufer and Shmueli (1997: 106) put forward that incidental vocabulary acquisition cannot occur if unfamiliar words are not noticed and processed deeply as in explicit instruction. Actually the construct of attention is needed for understanding nearly every aspect of second and foreign language learning (Schmidt, 2001). Thus learners become aware of a mismatch between what they produce and what they need to produce and what proficient native speakers produce and what they should do. Therefore, as Laufer (1998: 268) suggested in her study incidental vocabulary learning should be supported with follow-up explicit tasks which need not to be decontextualized word lists but the ones making learners encounter new words in rich contexts to reinforce retention and vocabulary use.

*Explicit or intentional learning* is the other term for direct learning and *implicit or incidental* for indirect learning. As Schmitt (2000: 145) defines it, explicit vocabulary learning means focused study of words. Nick Ellis (1994: 360) states that explicit learning wherein the learner makes and tests hypotheses in search for structure is a more conscious operation compared to implicit learning. In explicit learning students memorize term after term with their respective meanings which is quick but also superficial, and they encounter vocabulary in a relatively isolated form without enough contexts. Explicit vocabulary instruction involves learning activities emphasizing attention on vocabulary. Nation and Newton (1997: 241) state that explicit vocabulary instruction means allotting time to do explicit vocabulary exercises such as word-building exercises, matching words and definitions, studying vocabulary in context and semantic mapping focusing on the targeted vocabulary. Explicit instruction of vocabulary or direct instruction is conducted through various techniques such as memorizing newly learned vocabulary items, fill-in-the blanks exercises, using the words in new contexts. It is mostly essential at the very first stages of acquiring a target language, especially for beginners learning the most frequent words in order to catch up with the complex structure of the texts or any other input in the target language. Coady (1997: 232) states that learners should be first given explicit instruction and practice in the most frequent 3000 words-*threshold vocabulary* as Laufer (1997: 22) defines as automatically recognized word

forms and their common meanings and then they should engage in incidental or implicit vocabulary tasks. Moreover, some certain characteristics of an L2 such as pronunciation, orthography, length, morphology, grammar- part of speech, abstractness, register and multiple meanings stemming from wide variety of expressions, multiword items, collocations, chunks can be problematic for learners to tackle with alone without explicit instruction from accuracy to fluency in understanding and producing the target language. While the students learn a new vocabulary item, they construct word webs permanently renewing and reviewing, and this complicated and difficult process cannot be bearable without any outside help like explicit instruction. However, as any other instruction model it is also criticized by many researchers claiming that in definition based instruction which is especially the traditional type of explicit instruction not many words can be covered through this instruction type involving memorizing brief definitions of only a single meaning. Nick Ellis (1997) notes that explicit instruction should be supported and developed with instruction methods involving definitional, contextual information, and several exposures rather than drill and practice methods only, providing a variety of knowledge in various contexts and contained keyword techniques. According to the researchers more focused explicit instruction is desirable when the learning period is limited and specific vocabulary outcomes are desired. As Laufer (1994: 31) suggests, learners tend to develop their vocabulary slowly when they do not receive vocabulary instruction, and their vocabulary development process can be accelerated if they receive explicit vocabulary instruction.

On the other hand, implicit learning means acquiring new words by becoming exposed to the target language while the learner's attention is on the task rather than learning vocabulary itself and in which learners learn by guessing from context. Implicit vocabulary instruction consists of learning happening when the mind is focused elsewhere, for example, while understanding a text or using target language for communicative purposes (Decarrico, 2001: 285). Implicit vocabulary instruction consists of learning vocabulary through communicative activities like listening to teacher read-alouds, listening to stories, information gap activities, group work, and extensive reading (Nation & Newton, 1997: 241). Another way to learn vocabulary

implicitly is inferring word meanings from contexts. Kruse (1987) states that vocabulary items should be introduced in order to make the learners guess or infer the meanings from the context or illustrations. However, in a limited instructional period it is put forward that little vocabulary learning occurs in guessing owing to the little attention spent for the word form and meaning. In Sökmen's (1997: 237-239) words, EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners have limited amount of time and enough vocabulary knowledge, and acquiring words mainly through guessing is a slow process not necessarily resulting in long-term retention. As Nagy (1997: 80) points out, the amount of learning largely depends on the familiarity of the reader with the subject matter, the richness of the context about the meaning of the word, the closeness of the clues to the unknown word, and the similarity of the syntactical structure similarity of the L2 word to the L1 word easing successful guessing. For all these reasons explicit instruction of vocabulary is needed, as well.

However, it should be noted that these two different learning types are not direct opposites but complementary. Schmitt (2000: 121) states that complementary combination of explicit teaching and incidental learning is beneficial for L2 learners. Grabe and Stoller (1993: 27) agree that vocabulary development most likely occurs using a combination of incidental learning and explicit instruction. Besides, incidental deeper processing of implicit learning or merely intentional focusing on vocabulary of explicit learning does not guarantee the real knowing or retention of vocabulary, so both explicit and implicit learning have a role and especially different roles to play in vocabulary learning (Hulstijn, 1997: 203). Furthermore, most vocabulary learning- especially in the first stages- occurs incidentally or implicitly, but a deliberate intentional or explicit learning is also required (Nation, 2001). Vocabulary knowledge can be expanded by means of implicit instruction encouraging conversation, oral language practice, reading to learners and making learners read extensively for further lexical development and by means of explicit instruction by teaching words explicitly, word learning strategies and raising attention to the word for teaching core vocabulary and raising recognition of it. According to Nick Ellis's research (1994: 89-96) connecting word form and meaning is learned explicitly best while the phonetic and phonological features and

articulation is learned implicitly. He adds that the recognition and production aspects of vocabulary learning should be implicit, but meaning and mediational aspects of vocabulary should rely on explicit learning process, and choosing one over other depends on learners' immediate needs. For instance, high frequency words which form the very basis of learner's vocabulary building should be taught explicitly in order not to be late in the first phases of learning target language. When dealing with high-frequency words it should be noted that they deserve considerable time and attention from teachers and learners (Nation, 1990: 15). There is also proof in recent studies of second language learners that a combined approach could be much better than just implicit or explicit vocabulary learning alone to provide retention. For example, there are lots of recent studies about the combination of the two like Parry's (1991, 1993, 1997) longitudinal case study in reading, Zimmerman's (1997b) study on the effect of interactive vocabulary teaching in vocabulary knowledge of students when coupled by required and extensive reading, and Grabe and Stoller's (1997) study on the effect of extensive reading on vocabulary learning.

Sökmen (1997: 239) asserts that a good vocabulary learning program no longer consists of just implicit or explicit ways of vocabulary instruction, but both of them. It can be claimed that vocabulary should be taught both explicitly and implicitly, multiple exposure is necessary, learning in rich contexts should be used, vocabulary tasks should be restructured when necessary and its instruction should be able to be changed flexibly according to how it is assessed and evaluated, and finally dependence on a single vocabulary instruction will not result in optimal learning. Therefore, a balanced approach calling for multiplicity and complementarity in research and instructional methods have started to replace one dimension instruction types. Schmitt and McCarthy (1997) and Nick Ellis (1997) contend that explicit instruction can be used to present vocabulary items and then implicit instruction to make use of context in which the new vocabulary item is encountered many times leading the new knowledge of collocations and additional meanings. As stated above they support the idea that the most frequently used words should be taught explicitly since they are the prerequisites for target language production. As Zimmerman (1997a) claims implicit or incidental vocabulary instruction should be hand in hand

in order to provide multiple exposure to the target vocabulary in natural context through meaningful activities to facilitate a better understanding on how vocabulary items are used in actual communication. As Laufer and Hulstijn (2001: 15-17) agree, if the elaboration of activities involving deep processing and more actively involved learners takes place in modern and creative instruction types, retention which is the prior aim of vocabulary instruction and learning will be more effective. To investigate the efficiency of these instruction types and their blended forms in foreign or second language classrooms there is still a long way to go (Kitajima, 2001: 470).

### **3.2. Studies**

In previous sections, we presented positions of researchers on the importance attached to vocabulary learning and instruction in second and foreign language learning and the description of implicit, explicit, and blended vocabulary instruction and their relevance to language learning and acquisition. It is agreed by students, teachers, material writers, and researchers that learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second or foreign language. However, the best way of achieving successful vocabulary learning is not clear because it depends on various factors (Schmitt, 2008). Nevertheless, there is now a very substantial research literature on vocabulary learning, although much of it has been unable to contribute directly to pedagogy. What is missing perhaps in all those researches is giving knowledge about what happens in classrooms when vocabulary learning is the main concern, especially when we consider the recently growing interest in the classroom as a learning environment in language teaching in general (Carter & McCarthy, 1988: 51). In this section, studies demonstrating the pedagogical relevance of explicit, implicit, and blended types of vocabulary instruction will be introduced to highlight the pedagogical lessons that can be learned.

Vocabulary acquisition has been extensively researched in the last three decades. Different points of view have come out so far. It is asserted that despite the



abundance of researches on second or foreign language vocabulary acquisition, there is not an agreement in the field (Read, 2000: 38). One aspect on which researchers cannot agree is whether vocabulary instruction should be applied implicitly or explicitly. The current language teaching paradigm emphasizes meaning-based learning where students learn language features by using them rather than by focusing on them explicitly, but with supplementary exercises when necessary (Doughty & Williams, 1998). However, vocabulary requires a different approach incorporating explicit attention to learning the lexical items. As Laufer (2005) suggested, learners who understand the overall message often do not pay attention to the precise meaning of individual words, and it is not always possible to guess from the context when 98% of words are unknown. Furthermore, words which are easily understood from context may not generate enough engagement to be remembered. Therefore, explicit vocabulary instruction almost always leads to greater and faster gains with a better chance of retention, although research indicates that valuable learning can increase with implicit vocabulary instruction.

One of the studies supporting explicit vocabulary instruction is Laufer's (1994). Laufer (1994: 23) conducted a longitudinal study to investigate differences in the lexical quality in learners' writing whose major was English as a foreign language. To do this, she utilized a Lexical Frequency Profile classifying the vocabulary of an essay into frequency levels. She looked at the rate of the University Word List created by Xue and Nation (1984). Additionally, she looked at the lexical variability in the text. The participants were 48 university students whose mother tongue was Hebrew or Arabic. The university students participated in various courses none of which taught vocabulary explicitly. Laufer collected compositions written by the students in class time as part of their class evaluation. She compared the scores in pieces of writing to measure the learners' progress. It was reported that there was not a significant change in lexical variation (Laufer, 1994: 30). The non-native speakers' productive vocabulary developed more slowly when the objective was to reach native-like proficiency. Her research showed that "explicit vocabulary teaching [was] needed to compensate for the insufficient quantity of input" (Laufer, 1994: 31). She also added that "if explicit vocabulary teaching became an integral

part of a written proficiency course, the lexical profiles of the students might be more impressive at the end of such a course” (Laufer, 1994: 31).

On the other hand, Zimmermann (1997b) applied a pilot study in which she investigated the effectiveness of reading with vocabulary instruction. The participants were 35 upper intermediate students preparing to study in the U.S.A. Different teachers worked with the control group, but the treatment group had the same teacher who received specific instruction from the researcher on how to conduct the class. Both groups had 24- 25 hours of instruction including reading, composition, speaking, and academic skills per week. However, the treatment group experienced an extra 3 hour-per-week interactive vocabulary instruction which included activities like various encounters with the target words, words in different contexts, information about each word, and connections between students’ background knowledge and vocabulary instruction (Zimmermann, 1997: 125). In these lessons, the students participated actively in the learning process by working on meaning, comprehension in context, and communicative activities. In the control group, however, the teachers focused on readings and only talked about vocabulary when students asked questions without a special instruction. Besides, both groups had 5 hours of self-selected reading per week. The students received a pre- and post-test on their knowledge of academic words taken from the University Word List. Students answered a questionnaire on background information and their perceptions on how one’s vocabulary developed best (Zimmermann, 1997: 128). The results reported that the treatment group had a better mean score in the post-test. Zimmerman’s (1997b: 135) results led her to believe that by directing students’ attention to a limited set of words and lexical features, vocabulary instruction could lead to more increased motivation and make work-learning task more manageable. Moreover, the results of the questionnaire indicated that students preferred to study words beyond the definitions.

Another study which emphasized the importance of explicit vocabulary instruction was Laufer and Shmueli’s (1997) research in which they worked with four treatment groups while testing four different ways to approach vocabulary

learning: using vocabulary lists, working with words in sentence and with translations and definitions of words, working with words in short texts, and working with words in elaborated texts including embedded synonyms and sentence explanation. The participants were high school students whose first language was Hebrew. All the treatment groups worked on a practice session with the new vocabulary and completed a consolidation exercise which consisted of “a cloze exercise focusing on the 20 target words” (Laufer & Shmueli, 1997: 96). A control group was given a list of 20 words to check the meanings on their own, and they were informed they would have a quiz on the words. Students were tested after the experiment and five weeks later. Only the control group was informed about the date of the post-test which made the study quasi-incidental. The results indicated that the control group performed the least in both short and long term retention. The most effective performance was the first treatment group who had a definition and an example. Both treatment groups that worked with the list and the sentence method performed equally. Students who translated the words had better results. Laufer and Shmueli (1997: 106) concluded that implicit vocabulary instruction would not lead good performance if unfamiliar words were not noticed or processed deeply.

Paribakht and Wesche (1997) supported explicit vocabulary instruction in their study, too. They investigated the effectiveness of using “reading plus” activities to increase learners’ second language vocabulary acquisition by comparing the results with a “reading only group”. The participants were 38 intermediate-level students from varied language backgrounds. The same subjects were taught to both groups but by using four different themes, texts on media and the environment for the treatment group and the themes fitness and biological revolution for the control group. The treatment group studied the reading texts that the researchers selected, and these students completed various vocabulary exercises such as reading a word list and then locating these words in a text, matching a target word with its definition, substituting words with the target words, categorizing connectives, and unscrambling words to create a sentence in class and reading comprehension exercises at home. Both the vocabulary and the comprehension exercises were corrected in class. The control group read a main text and answered comprehension questions at home

which were checked later in class. Additionally, these students read two extra texts on the same themes including the target words. Paribakht and Wesche (1997: 195-196) concluded that both groups performed well, but the “reading plus group” had better results. It was suggested that explicit vocabulary instruction was more desirable when the time is limited and specific vocabulary outcomes were expected (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997: 197).

Laufer’s (1994) study indicated that the non-native students tended to improve their vocabulary slowly when they did not receive vocabulary instruction and students’ vocabulary could be accelerated if they received explicit vocabulary instruction. Zimmermann’s (1997b), Laufer and Shmueli’s (1997), and Paribakht and Wesche’s (1997) studies employed a more explicit teaching approach, and their results demonstrated that attention on vocabulary and extra reading activities with definition, examples, context, and various types of consolidation exercises were beneficial to learners’ vocabulary development and retention. Laufer (2005) found out in her reviews on her three studies that explicit vocabulary exercises led to about 70% of the words being known on immediate receptive post-tests. Although it decreased to 21-41% on two-week delayed post-tests, it was far better than results reported from implicit instruction. Moreover, teachers may not naturally use many new words in their lessons that will provide implicit learning. Meara, Lightbown, and Halter (1997) found that teachers from both audiolingual and communicative approaches used only about 2.75 new words per 500 words of speech, and the teacher talk consisted of mostly already partially known lexical items. Research here clearly indicates that a vocabulary learning program needs to have an explicit component engaging students to improve their vocabulary and to increase retention.

In another study applied in EFL context in Turkey like our study, the purpose was to compare the effects of explicit and implicit vocabulary teaching on vocabulary learning and retention through reading. Bayram (2009) conducted a pre-test, a post-test, and guided writing tasks at the school of foreign language in Muğla University in 2008-2009 academic year with a treatment and control group included 20 students. The treatment lasted twelve-weeks. Treatment group outperformed the

control group in the two instruments. The results showed that a long treatment and repeated exposure of explicit vocabulary teaching led to better vocabulary learning and retention. Another research conducted in Turkey concerning the teaching and learning of nontechnical vocabulary items in English to Turkish intermediate EFL students through interactive vocabulary instruction was Ünal's (2006) study. Two groups, one experimental and one control, were chosen from a private college. The experimental group was exposed to interactive vocabulary instruction, while the control group learned items through a traditional definition based vocabulary instruction. After an analysis between pre- and post-test it was seen that experimental group's scores were statistically more significant than the control group. The findings indicated that interactive vocabulary instruction can be used as an effective vocabulary teaching method. In other words, from this study it can be inferred that just one exposure is not enough. Instead, vocabulary instruction must be enriched through repeated exposure providing student engagement after directing students' attention to the target words implicitly.

Although engagement-rich explicit vocabulary instruction is more effective in promoting learning, there are inevitable limitations in time that teachers can provide such a contact (Schmitt, 2008). When we consider the relative effectiveness in increasing vocabulary learning, we might think that explicit vocabulary instruction would be a major approach in classrooms, but this is not always so. Case studies in two Asian contexts indicate that the percentages of words taught explicitly are very low like 2.79% in Hong Kong, and 12.24% in China (Tang & Nesi, 2003). Hence, teachers need to increase meaning-focused exposure via implicit instruction as an equal partner to explicit vocabulary instruction. However, early research on vocabulary acquisition and implicit instruction put forward discouragingly low rate. For instance, in Horst, Cobb, and Meara's (1998) study one word was correctly identified out of every 12 words tested. Whereas, the early studies often had a number of methodological weaknesses such as including very small amount of reading, insensitive data collection instruments, small number of target words, and no delayed post-tests (Schmitt, 2008: 347). Vocabulary learning experiments especially the ones that do not include post-tests have been criticized on

methodological grounds by Wang, Thomas and Ouellette (1992). However, it should be borne in mind that without additional exposure it is normal that performance be lower than performance on an immediate post-test in implicit vocabulary instruction. Since implicit instruction, or indirect intervention, in Ellis's words (2005a: 725), may not result in high levels of linguistic competence under such circumstances, it is relatively new that it seems too radical for some teaching contexts, and it is not clear how implicit instruction can cater for self-directed language learning as it depends very largely on exposure; it does not seem preferable. More recent studies finding solution to those problems, however, have found more gains from implicit instruction. Pigada and Schmitt (2006) studied the learning of spelling, meaning, and grammatical characteristics during a one-month extensive reading case study. They found that 65% of the target words were increased for a pick-up rate of about 1 for every 1.5 words tested. Spelling was enhanced most while meaning and grammatical knowledge were enhanced to a lesser degree. Waring and Takaki (2003) also found stronger gains and retention for recognition than recall knowledge. The Japanese participants recognized the meaning of 10.6 out of 25 words on a multiple-choice test, but only were able to provide a translation for 4.6 out of 25. Nevertheless, the recognition of meaning score dropped to 6.1 while the translation score dropped sharply to 0.9 after three months. This indicates that implicit vocabulary instruction is more likely to provide a partial rather than full level of mastery.

Another important issue related to implicit learning is the number of exposures necessary to provide longer retention. Webb (2007) compared the learning of words via translation with or without an example sentence. The results for both treatment and the control group were the same, and the results showed that a single context had little effect on gaining vocabulary. More exposure leads to better vocabulary knowledge. However, there is not a certain number. Rott (1999) found that six exposures were better than two or four exposures in her study. Likewise, Pigada and Schmitt (2006) found that there was not a certain number but more than 10 exposures led a rise in the learning rate. Waring and Takaki (2003) suggested that students needed at least 8 exposures to recognize a word's form or its meaning 50% on a multiple-choice test three months later. However, there was less than 10%

chance for a student to give a translation for a word after three months. It is found that words appearing eight or more times led a reasonable increase in vocabulary learning (Horst, Cobb, & Meara, 1998) while Webb (2007) found that 10 encounters led to better learning gains. In class time the exposure time is more limited. Vidal (2003) found that Spanish university students learned small amounts of vocabulary from 14-15 minute academic lectures in which most target words seemed to move from being totally unknown to recognition. However, in the 4-8 week delayed post-test learners' knowledge increased about only 50%. Ellis's (1995) study is another example of instruction and exposure time in class time and their effects. The participants of this study were Japanese high school students performing a listening task in which they were expected to locate kitchen items on a picture of an empty kitchen with simple or elaborated instructions or the opportunity to interactively ask for clarification. In general the learning was modest: the rates for correctly translating words after two days were 14% for instruction group and 33% for interactive group, but learning was respectively durable after one month that delayed post-test scores were 14% and 26%.

Given all these studies, it can be inferred that it is difficult to gain a productive level of mastery from just exposure (Schmitt, 2008). Learning 2000 high frequency words can be productive (Sökmen, 1997: 239). However, Hill and Laufer (2003) estimate that a second or foreign language learner needs to read over 8 million words of texts or about 420 novels to increase their vocabulary size by 2000 words. Researches indicated that American high school students who are native speakers know between 25.000 and 50.000 words, or even more (Nagy & Anderson, 1984: 324). It was argued that such a large number of words cannot have been learned solely by means of explicit vocabulary instruction; instead most of the words were learned through repeated encounters. When we take the number of words in a language into account, a combination of both approaches might be ideal. Implicit learning seems to be better at recognition level for enriching partially known vocabulary, but just relying upon implicit instruction for vocabulary development does not seem practical since it requires time. Instead, explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction should be used in an integrated way since they are

complementary approaches. Hill and Laufer (2003) found that explicit post-reading tasks led to better vocabulary learning than comprehension questions requiring knowledge of the target words' meaning. In Atay and Kurt's (2006) study, young Turkish EFL learners who did reading comprehension and interactive post-reading tasks outperformed the ones who did written vocabulary tasks. Another study giving a good example to the value of post-reading exercises is Mondria's (2003). In this study, Dutch students inferring the meaning of French words from context and then verifying meaning with a word list before memorization learned as much vocabulary as students who were given a translation before memorization. This indicates that implicit learning with explicit follow-up can be as effective as a purely explicit instruction. However, it should be noted that translation and memorization method was more time saving, about 26%, than implicit and follow-up method. Just as with reading tasks, explicit post-tasks seem to improve gains from listening exposure (Schmitt, 2008). Jones (2004) found out that various post-listening tasks such as pronunciation help, synonym definition, and pictures of the target words led to 3 or 4 times higher scores than listening and pronunciation help alone. However, Rott, Williams, and Cameron (2002) found that while-reading with multiple choice glosses resulted in better scores than reading-only implicit learning alone, but the scores fell to the same level as the implicit learning condition after five weeks. Thus, it seems that learning gained from implicit learning and supplementary explicit exercises can be useful only if followed up upon, but if not the advantage may be lost (Schmitt, 2008).

It is very difficult to compile all the studies published and make a synthesis to draw out pedagogical suggestions. However, Hunt and Beglar's (1998) principles provide a good start for summing up a principled approach to vocabulary learning. They are creating opportunities for implicit learning of vocabulary, deciding which of 3000 most common words learners need to know, providing opportunities for explicit learning, elaborating word knowledge, developing fluency with unknown vocabulary, experimenting with guessing from context, examining different types of dictionaries and teaching students how to use them. Schmitt (2008) provides some principles about vocabulary learning, too. Students need large vocabularies to use a



second or foreign language, and vocabulary learning is a complex process in which different approaches may be appropriate at different phases. As Prince (1996: 489) has put it, effective vocabulary learning requires a stage in which the word is isolated from the context and submitted to elaborative processing. At the beginning of vocabulary learning, meaning- form link may be established best via explicit instruction. Then, it should be consolidated with repeated exposures and knowledge of different aspects of word knowledge should be enhanced. Finally, the maximum amount of engagement with lexical items should be maintained by learners. Moreover, Hulstijn (2001: 273) points out that in most published materials for learners for beginners and intermediates, a selected core vocabulary is taught explicitly and repeated through various activities with contextual learning implicitly. As seen in those principles, explicit and implicit instruction is not just complementary but also they require each other because it is impossible in explicit instruction to teach all the contextual types of word knowledge because of time constraints, and in implicit instruction productive level of mastery cannot be achieved without the additional attention coming from explicit instruction. A study supporting this kind of blended approach is Souleyman's (2009) study which aimed to find out narrative comprehension and immediate and delayed vocabulary retention as a result of implicit and explicit teaching and learning of vocabulary. The participants in this study were 78 fourth semester students of French as a foreign language from six classes at an American university. They were randomly assigned to implicit and explicit groups. The students read the same enhanced electronic text with permanently highlighted target items in the explicit condition, and temporarily highlighted target items in the implicit condition. The statistical analysis showed that both conditions had both strengths and weaknesses with regards to immediate and delayed retention. It was suggested that both implicit and explicit modalities could be jointly implemented in order to achieve higher learning outcomes, and the combination might lead to a dual improvement in gain and retention in the learning process.

To sum up, several decades ago it was rare to describe vocabulary acquisition because it was a neglected aspect of language learning. However, interest in

vocabulary research has unexpectedly grown at an enormous rate since 1980s, and this tendency has become increasingly apparent in researches (Meara, 1996: 27). The renewed importance given to vocabulary instruction seems to continue to interest and be fertile field for the efforts of second language researchers in the new century (Sökmen, 1997). In this chapter, we presented some examples of these empirical studies as a summary and a critical analysis of some of the issues these studies point to, and after such an analysis it can be concluded that an effective vocabulary learning program should be principled, long-term, and including the richness of lexical knowledge in terms of size, depth, and fluency (Schmitt, 2008). When we consider the various factors affecting vocabulary learning, it can be claimed that there is not and there will never be one ‘best’ teaching methodology, but maximizing the sustained engagement with the lexical items appears to underline all effective vocabulary learning.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1. Model of Study**

This study is quantitative in terms of aiming to find out causation in events and phenomenon objectively, and being an experiment conducted in a controlled way along with tests administered (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008: 48-65). Nunan (1992:41) states that studies which are organized around a pre- and post-test, experiment and control groups, and in which subjects are not assigned randomly are called quasi experimental. Having all these characteristics this study is, also, a quasi experimental study.

#### **4.2. Population and Sampling**

The study population was the fourth graders learning English as a foreign language. The reason why this group was chosen in this study was the fact that students started learning English in the fourth grade in government schools in Turkey and the participants would not be affected by their previous learning experience and they would not form their own learning styles and strategies yet which made it possible to interrogate the effect of instruction type without disturbance variable such as learners' expectations and prejudices. Additionally, the very basis of language learning is vocabulary knowledge and Language Curriculum for Primary Education in Turkey is based mostly on vocabulary development. Therefore, this group was ideal for such a study aiming to find out the effect of instruction type. The participants of the study are 120 students learning English as a foreign language in İzmir Buca Çamlıkule Primary School in the academic year 2011-2012. Three fourth grade classes which were assigned by the administration in the first grade by taking into consideration the rate of male students to female students were chosen. Therefore, it was not possible to interfere with class

formation. Then the groups were assigned randomly to be instructed with implicit, explicit, or blended types of vocabulary instruction. The groups were made up of equal or almost equal numbers of male and female students. The first class which was instructed in implicit way included 20 male and 20 female students, explicit class included 20 males and 20 females, and blended class included 16 male and 24 female students totaling 120 students. The age range did not vary because attending to a primary school was compulsory at the age of seven and the participants were 10 or approximately 11 years old. Necessary permission was granted before the experiment from the Republic of Turkey Ministry of National Education (see Appendix 3), and the participants were informed about the confidentiality of their answers, the procedure and the involvement in the study.

### **4.3. Data Collection Instruments**

The instruments to collect data quantitatively were developed according to Language Curriculum for Primary Education in Turkey, literature reviewed, and research questions by the researchers themselves. After the necessary official permission, the test consisting of 25 items was piloted on two different fourth grade classes in Çamlıkule Primary School including 89 students in total. A reliability analysis was conducted to find out the test's validity by means of Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of internal consistency. The alpha coefficient for 25 items was .83, suggesting that the items had relatively high internal consistency. The opinion of the thesis supervisor and her friends was asked for the content validity, the level of meaningfulness, and appropriacy of the test. The items were found appropriate. Then this test was utilized in the study as the pre-test aiming to access basic information about the participants' background in English language, the post-test having the purpose of seeing the change in vocabulary development and the delayed post test used to see to what extent vocabulary retention level change according to the vocabulary instruction type (see Appendix 2).

#### 4.4. Procedures

In our study it was aimed to find out whether explicit vocabulary instruction was effective in vocabulary development and retention. In explicit instruction, the meanings of vocabulary items, vocabulary learning strategies, feedback and support from teacher were provided. Additionally, we aimed to elicit the effect of implicit vocabulary instruction in which learners were provided with experience of specific examples of a word while they were not attempting to learn it to enable them to infer meaning without awareness. Additionally, we tried to discover the effect of the blended type of vocabulary instruction in which both implicit and explicit ways of instruction were used to some extent by providing the meaning first and then making learners to infer the meaning from the specific examples. Finally, the main aim of the study was to make a comparison among implicit, explicit, and blended types of vocabulary instruction and to find out whether gender played a role in success levels in different instruction types.

The study was implemented in the first semester in order to eliminate disturbance variable stemming from learner expectations and previous learning experiences while comparing the types. To do this a unit called 'My Clothes' which had many new vocabulary items was chosen from the Language Curriculum for Primary Education in Turkey. After selecting the target vocabulary, lesson plans (see Appendix 2) were prepared by the researchers through taking research questions into consideration and in the light of literature reviewed. After preparing lesson plans a test was developed by the researchers. Its reliability was measured in November and implemented as the pre-test at the beginning of December. Three fourth grade classes were instructed in three different ways of instruction mentioned above- implicit, explicit, and blended- during six weeks by their own English teacher, who was also the researcher, in their regular English lessons (three hours a week). After the experiment had been finished, the pre-test was conducted as the post-test to measure the success level of the students. After forty five days, in the second semester the post-test was applied as the delayed post-test to see whether some change comes out in the retention level of target vocabulary.

#### **4.5. Data Analysis**

After the experiment lasting for six weeks the data collected by means of the test in the appendix 2 which was used as the pre, post, and delayed post test were analyzed by SPSS 15.0 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program on the computer. The data were compared statistically by using paired-sample t-test to measure the proficiency level, retention level, and gender difference; and by using one way analysis of variance (One Way ANOVA) to compare means of three experimental groups.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **RESULTS AND FINDINGS**

This chapter introduces the findings to give detailed information about the data collection procedures and their statistical analysis in three experimental groups. The findings will contribute to the literature in terms of revealing the significance of instruction type in foreign language vocabulary at the lower grades, the retention of vocabulary and the gender role in vocabulary proficiency level in each instruction type.

#### **5.1. Pre- and Post-Test Difference**

The pre-test was conducted at the beginning of the experiment. 120 students in three groups- 40 students in implicit group, 40 students in explicit group, and 40 students in blended group- took the pre-test. After the six-week treatment, the same test was used as the post-test. Finally, after 45 days the test was implemented as the delayed post-test. The test included 25 items and the scoring was realized by giving one point to each correct answer and zero point to each wrong answer. Firstly, in order to find out whether experimental groups reflected a normal distribution, Kolmogorov Smirnov test of normality was applied to the groups' pre-, post-, and delayed post-test scores and it was seen that the data was normally distributed. Then, Paired-sample t-test was used to compare the means of pre- and post-test scores in each group to see whether there was a significant difference within the groups in terms of learning vocabulary through implicit, explicit, and blended instruction types; to what extent the retention of vocabulary change among the groups; and whether gender played a role in success levels.

All students were asked to answer a Pre-test consisting of 25 questions in order to test the vocabulary knowledge before the instruction. Those multiple-choice questions aimed to test whether the subjects had known the target vocabulary beforehand or not. When the mean scores were compared, the comparison showed

that the groups were similar concerning their English target vocabulary knowledge levels at the beginning of the intervention (see Table 2).

**Table 2**  
**The Comparison of Pre-test Scores of the Experimental Groups**

Groups	N	Means	Std. Dev.
Implicit	40	.284	.113
Explicit	40	.310	.130
Blended	40	.333	.162

The 25 question pre-test was administered as the post-test to the same groups after the vocabulary teaching process. Its goal was to compare the groups' improvement in their vocabulary knowledge. Through using paired sample t-test pre-test and post-test results of implicit, explicit, and blended groups were compared. Our first experimental group was the implicit vocabulary instruction group. The statistical results are presented as follows (see Table 3):

**Table 3**  
**The Comparison of Pre- and Post-test Scores of the Implicit Group**

Tests	N	Means	Std. Dev.	-t-	-p-
Pre-test	40	.284	.113	7.927	.000
Post-test	40	.538	.230		

According to Table 3, the mean scores of the implicit group's pre-test were calculated as .284, post-test as .535. A paired sample t-test analysis of the pre-and post-test for the implicit group was computed as .000 at the 0.05 level of significance. This shows that there was a significant difference before and after the intervention in the implicit group ( $p < 0.05$ ). That is to say, the group's vocabulary knowledge rose after the experiment when we consider the mean scores (-.254).



Secondly, the pre- and post-tests of the explicit group were compared (see Table 4).

**Table 4**  
**The Comparison of Pre- and Post-test Scores of the Explicit Group**

Tests	N	Means	Std. Dev.	-t-	-p-
Pre-test	40	.310	.130	14.880	.000
Post-test	40	.735	.196		

As seen above, the mean scores of the explicit group was calculated as .3100 for pre-test, and as .735 for post-test. The analysis showed that there was a significant difference between the pre- and post-test in the explicit vocabulary instruction group ( $p < 0.05$ ) in terms of their vocabulary knowledge.

Lastly, the pre-test and pos-test of blended group were compared (see Table 5).

**Table 5**  
**The Comparison of Pre- and Post-test Scores of the Blended Group**

Tests	N	Means	Std. Dev.	-t-	-p-
Pre-test	40	.333	.162	9,344	.000
Post-test	40	.647	.230		

In the last table on the pre- and post-test difference of blended type of vocabulary instruction, the mean of the blended group's pre-test scores was calculated as .333, post-test as .647. The paired sample t-test analysis indicated that there was a significant difference between pre- and post-test in blended group ( $p < 0.05$ ) in terms of their vocabulary knowledge after the experiment. It showed that vocabulary instruction is beneficial in vocabulary development no matter which instruction type is used.

## 5.2. Post-test and Delayed Post-test Difference

A retention test which was used as the pre- and the post-test as well was applied to the three experiment groups after 45 days in order to test the retention level of vocabulary taught through three different vocabulary instruction types. Firstly, post-test and delayed post-test results of implicit group were compared. The statistical results are displayed in the table below:

**Table 6**

**The Comparison of Post- and Delayed Post-test Scores of the Implicit Group**

Tests	N	Means	Std. Dev.	-t-	-p-
Post-test	40	.538	.230	.647	.521
Del. Post-test	40	.553	.248		

According to Table 6, the mean scores of the implicit group's post-test was calculated as .538, and delayed post-test as .553. Although there seemed a difference between mean scores, when the paired sample t-test analysis of the post- and delayed post-tests for the implicit group was used, the p value of .521 at the 0.05 level of significance was obtained meaning that there was not a statistically significant difference between the post-test and delayed post-test in the implicit group ( $p > 0.05$ ). In other words, the implicit vocabulary instruction did not seem effective in vocabulary retention.

Second analysis was made on post- and delayed post-test results of explicit group.

**Table 7****The Comparison of Post- and Delayed Post-test Scores of the Explicit Group**

Tests	N	Means	Std. Dev.	-t-	-p-
Post-test	40	.735	.196		
Del. Post-test	40	.764	.190	1.596	.119

As displayed in the table the means of post- and delayed post-test of explicit group was .735 for post-test and delayed post-test of explicit group was .764. Paired sample t-test results showed that the significance value was .119 which was above 0.05 level of significance, and it suggested that there was not a difference between post- and delayed post-tests.

The last analysis which was shown in Table 8 was on post- and delayed post-tests of blended groups.

**Table 8****The Comparison of Post- and Delayed Post-test Scores of the Blended Group**

Tests	N	Means	Std. Dev.	-t-	-p-
Post-test	40	.647	.230		
Del. Post-test	40	.701	.232	2.020	.050

As seen above, the means of post-test of blended group were measured as .647, and the means of delayed post-test were calculated as .701. The p value measured by means of Paired sample t-test to find out the difference level was .050 ( $p=0.05$ ) which meant that there was not a statistically significant difference between post- and delayed post-test results of blended group in terms of retention.

When taken as a whole, it can be concluded that the statistical difference was not obtained as a result of analyses. However, in terms of mean scores all groups seemed to increase their vocabulary knowledge after 45 days following the treatment and explicit group outperformed the blended and the implicit groups on the post-tests

and delayed post-tests, but indeed the difference is not statistically significant enough as shown in tables above ( $p \geq 0.5$ ). We will examine the extent of this difference and in what way it happens later in a detailed way with the help of figures below.

### 5.3. The Comparison of Implicit, Explicit and Blended Groups

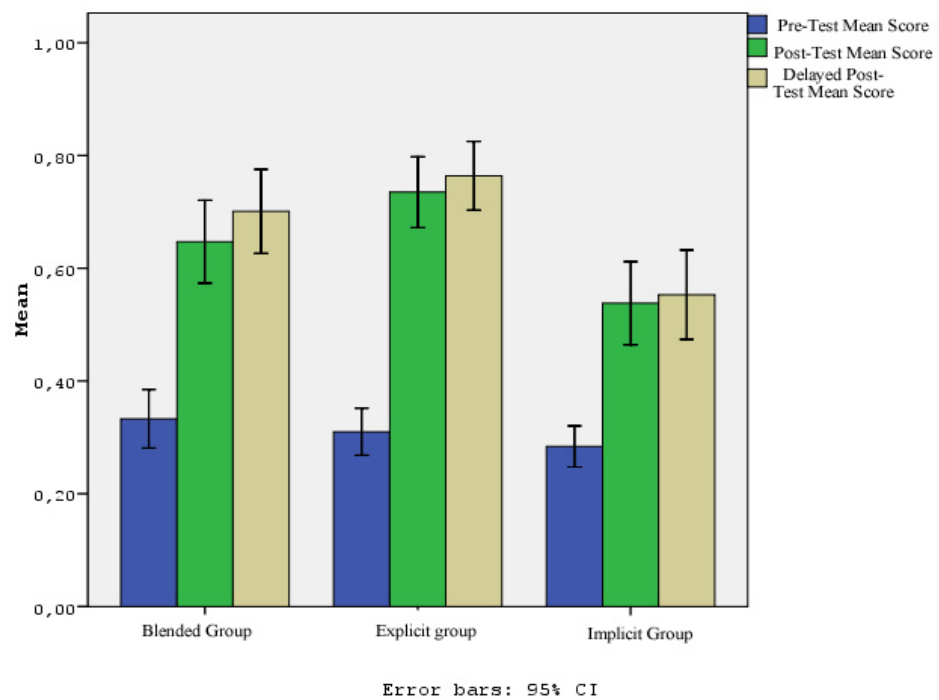
When the mean scores of these three groups were compared through one way analysis of variance (One Way ANOVA) the following results came out. In Descriptives table mean scores, standard deviation and standard error values are given (see Table 9).

**Table 9**  
**Descriptive Statistics for the Experimental Groups**

Mean Scores	Groups	N	Mean	Standard Dev.
Pre-Test	Implicit	40	.284	.113
	Explicit	40	.310	.130
	Blended	40	.333	.162
Post-Test	Implicit	40	.538	.230
	Explicit	40	.735	.196
	Blended	40	.647	.230
Delayed Post-Test	Implicit	40	.553	.248
	Explicit	40	.764	.190
	Blended	40	.701	.232

According to these results, when the values of the post-tests and delayed post-tests were analyzed, it was observed that experimental groups' average did not decrease in either post-test or delayed post-test. Moreover, explicit group instructed with explicit vocabulary instruction had the best scores, while blended group performed less and implicit group the least in post-test and delayed post-tests. These results can be examined in the figure below.

**Figure 4**  
**Mean Scores of Implicit, Explicit, and Blended Groups**



Although the above-mentioned results showed that implicit group was the least successful one in post-test and delayed post-test, ANOVA was applied in order to see whether the difference between pre-test and post-test, post-test and delayed post-test, and pre-test and delayed post-test among three experimental groups were random or not. The table below shows the result of this analysis.

**Table 10**  
**ANOVA Results to Find out Experimental Groups'**  
**Difference among the Success Levels in Tests**

Tests	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	-p-
Pre-test	Between Groups	.048	2	.024	1.281	.282
	Within Groups	2.195	117	.019		
	Total	2.243	119			
Post-test	Between Groups	.779	2	.390	8.067	.001
	Within Groups	5.650	117	.048		
	Total	6.429	119			
Del. Post-test	Between Groups	.939	2	.469	9.266	.000
	Within Groups	5.925	117	.051		
	Total	6.864	119			

The results of ANOVA test showed that there was not a significant difference among the groups in pre-test before the experiment ( $p=.282>0.05$ ). After the experiment, however, there was a significant difference in terms of vocabulary development ( $p=.001<0.05$ ). Additionally, retention level was significantly different in three experimental groups ( $p=.000<0.05$ ). However, ANOVA table evaluates the differences among the groups as a whole, and it does not provide information about between which two groups there is a significant difference. For this reason, the Tukey Test table should be examined below:

**Table 11**  
**Multiple Comparisons to Find out Experimental Groups'**  
**Difference among the Success Levels in Tests**

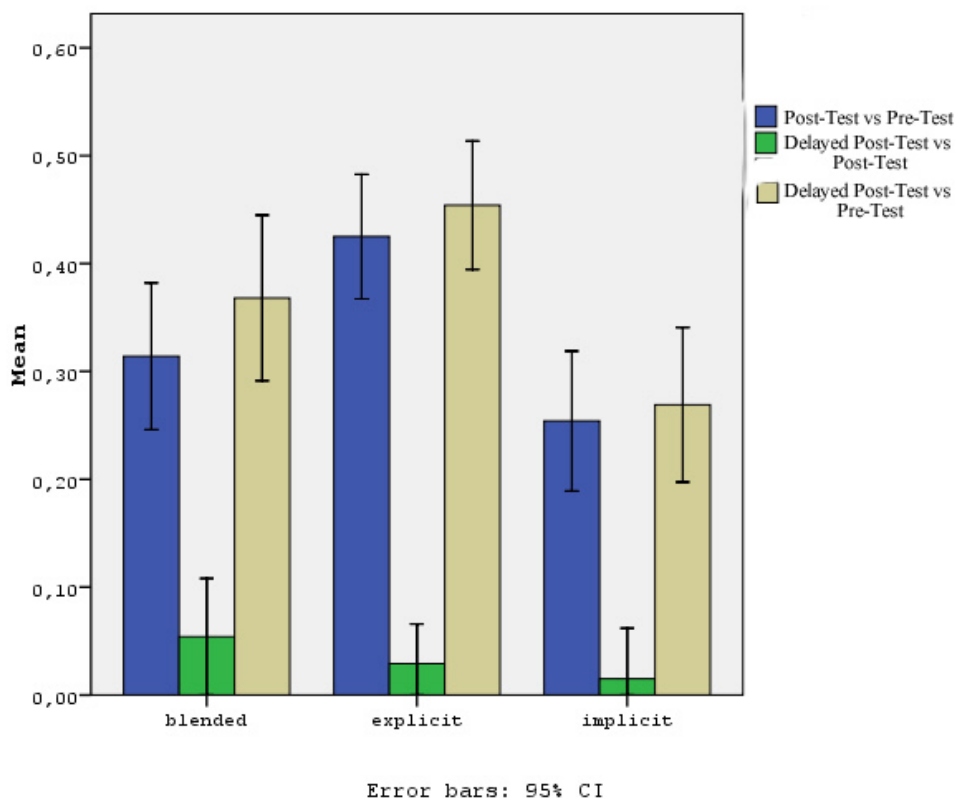
Dependent Variable	Instruction Type (I)	Instruction Type (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	-p-
Pre-test	Implicit	Blended	-.049	.030	.337
		Explicit	-.0260	.030	1.000
	Explicit	Blended	-.023	.030	1.000
		Implicit	.026	.030	1.000
	Blended	Explicit	.023	.030	1.000
		Implicit	.049	.030	.337
Post-test	Implicit	Blended	-.109	.049	.228
		Explicit	-.197	.049	.000
	Explicit	Blended	.088	.049	.228
		Implicit	.197	.049	.000
	Blended	Explicit	-.088	.049	.228
		Implicit	.109	.049	.085
Del. Post-test	Implicit	Blended	-.148	.050	.012
		Explicit	-.211	.050	.000
	Explicit	Blended	.063	.050	.639
		Implicit	.211	.050	.000
	Blended	Explicit	-.630	.050	.639
		Implicit	.148	.050	.012

When the p values in the table were considered, it was seen that there was not a statistically significant difference inbetween the experimental groups before the treatment ( $p=1.000$ ,  $p= .337$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). However, after the treatment in post- and delayed post-test, the significance mostly stemmed from implicit vocabulary instruction, and the significance was not as high between blended and implicit vocabulary instruction groups and between blended and explicit vocabulary instruction groups. The figure prepared by means of these results through SPSS

program shows that in implicit group vocabulary proficiency level and retention was the lowest, while blended group is in the middle and the explicit group has the best results (see Figure 5).

**Figure 5**

**Difference in Performance Reflected in the Tests by the Experimental Groups**



The above figure indicates that explicit group outperformed the implicit and blended groups on the post-test and delayed post-test, but indeed the difference is not statistically significant enough in especially delayed post-test ( $p > 0,05$ ).

#### 5.4. Gender Difference on Vocabulary Development

Another aim of our study was to discover whether gender played a role in success levels stemming from different instruction types. Another Paired sample t-



test was conducted in order to find out the difference in success levels between male and female students. There were 20 male and 20 female students in implicit group, the number was equal in explicit group, too, and there were 24 male and 16 female students in blended group. Firstly, the difference was tried to be revealed by investigating means scores of the implicit group in two genders and Paired samples t-test was used again to find out the difference in post-tests. The first table below is on mean scores and gender differences.

**Table 12**  
**The Comparison of Male and Female Students'**  
**Vocabulary Proficiency Level in the Implicit Group**

Gender	N	Means	Std. Dev.	-t-	-p-
Female	20	.496	.195	1.156	.255
Male	20	.580	.259		

Although it seems that male students were more successful than female students in post-test of implicit group in terms of means, statistically there is not a significant difference between the genders in terms of vocabulary proficiency level ( $p=.255 > 0.05$ ). Another t-test was conducted to see whether there was a difference between male and female students in terms of vocabulary proficiency in explicit group (see Table 13).

**Table 13**  
**The Comparison of Male and Female Students'**  
**Vocabulary Proficiency Level in the Explicit Group**

Gender	N	Means	Std. Dev.	-t-	-p-
Female	20	.730	.194	.159	.874
Male	20	.7400	.202		

Despite the difference in mean scores of male and female students, Table 13 indicated that there was not a statistically significant difference between male and female students in explicit vocabulary instruction group, too. The third table in this section is on the vocabulary proficiency level of male and female students in blended group.

**Table 14**  
**The Comparison of Male and Female Students'**  
**Vocabulary Proficiency Level in the Blended Group**

Gender	N	Means	Std. Dev.	-t-	-p-
Female	16	.592	.244	1.230	.226
Male	24	.683	.217	1.200	.240

In blended group, there was not a significant difference between male and female students if we do not take means difference into account again. As seen in the tables above, there is not a significant difference between male and female students in terms of success level stemming from different vocabulary instruction types. As has been said, with respect to the results obtained from the analysis of data pertaining to the pre-, post-, and delayed post-test one can conclude that although the difference among the means of the experimental groups was not statistically significant, after the treatment given to all three groups it was seen that explicit group performed best in post-test and retention test while blended group was the second and implicit group had the least scores, and there was not a statistically significant difference in terms of gender within the groups although according to mean scores male students seemed more successful in all three types of vocabulary instruction.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, the discussion concerning the similarities and the differences between previous studies and our study are presented. Moreover, conclusions that can be deduced from our study and suggestions for further study are provided in the light of the literature and researches in the field, and the findings with the pedagogical implications for foreign language classrooms at lower grades.

#### **6.1. Discussion**

The review of research on the effect of instruction on L2 vocabulary development suggests the following claims. Firstly, it should be noted that learning a second or foreign language mainly involves learning the sound system, grammar, and vocabulary of that language. Vocabulary learning especially plays a very crucial role in learning another language. Seal (1990, as cited in Celce-Murcia, 1991: 269) states that “words are perceived as the building blocks upon which the knowledge of the second language can be built.” In the past, vocabulary teaching and learning were often neglected in language learning programs, but recently there has been a renewed interest in the nature of vocabulary, vocabulary learning, and vocabulary instruction. When we consider the crucial role attributed to vocabulary learning in second or foreign language learning, we can understand the importance of vocabulary instruction. Vocabulary instruction can be applied through various ways. Naming one of the types as the best is not possible since success in vocabulary learning depends on various factors (Schmitt, 2008). There seems to be substantial research on vocabulary learning and instruction types, but they are unable to contribute to vocabulary instruction in real classrooms as Carter and McCarthy (1988) states. Some of those instruction types are implicit, explicit, or blended types of vocabulary instruction. In implicit instruction, vocabulary items are taught through a task in context; in explicit instruction, students’ attention is directed to the form, meaning,

and use of vocabulary items; and in blended instruction the previous two are used to some extent in order to meet students' needs. In our study these three types were implemented on the fourth graders to see the effects, retention level and gender difference stemming from these types.

### **6.1.1. The Effect of Implicit Vocabulary Instruction**

Our first research question was whether implicit vocabulary instruction affected the fourth graders' vocabulary development and retention. Contrary to some studies supporting implicit instruction, the results of this study showed that when the time allotted for the treatment was the same, the implicit vocabulary instruction did not yield as high scores as the explicit and blended instruction types. Likewise, early research on vocabulary acquisition and implicit instruction put forward discouragingly low rate such as in Horst, Cobb, and Meara's (1998) study in which after the implicit instruction only one word was correctly identified out of every 12 words tested. However, case studies conducted in two Asian contexts indicated the vice versa that the percentages of words taught explicitly were very low like 2.79 % in Hong Kong, and 12.24 % in China (Tang & Nesi, 2003). Therefore, it was claimed in these researches that meaning-focused exposure should be enhanced through implicit instruction. Despite the studies claiming the superiority of explicit vocabulary instruction, these early studies were blamed with having a lot of methodological weaknesses like insensitive instruments, small number of target words, small amount of time allotted to the study, and having no delayed post-tests (Schmitt, 2008: 347). As indicated above under the *Limitations of the Study* heading, our results for implicit vocabulary instruction could be so low because of some of these reasons, too, since the intervention was compressed to six weeks and our data collection instrument may be catering for explicit instruction more. For instance, an extensive reading case study lasting one month conducted by Pigada and Schmitt (2006) on the learning of spelling, meaning, and grammatical characteristics showed that meaning and grammatical knowledge did not enhance as much as spelling. From this study we can conclude that insufficient time for implicit vocabulary instruction

may be the reason of these poor results because it does not provide enough processing time for implicit learning to be reflected in students' performance like it is in our study. Ellis's (1995) study on vocabulary instruction supports this claim, too. In this study one group learns target words before a listening task explicitly, and the other by letting students interactively ask whatever they want to learn while a listening task implicitly. The results showed that in general the learning was modest in both groups, but learning was respectively permanent after one month in implicit group which meant that implicit learning takes time to be internalized. Ünal's (2006) study conducted in EFL context in Turkey used the same methodology as Ellis's (1995) study. She utilized interactive vocabulary instruction in her experimental group, while the control group learned the words through a traditional based vocabulary instruction. The findings lent support to the findings of previous study. In the research it was claimed that implicit vocabulary instruction could be used to enhance students' exposure instead of just traditional vocabulary acquisition type. Waring and Takaki's (2003) study which was on the effect of implicit vocabulary instruction in recognition and recall may be another example measuring poor results for implicit instruction like in our study. This study indicated that implicit vocabulary instruction led to better results in recognition rather than recall in post-test and delayed post-test which meant that implicit vocabulary learning provided a partial rather than full level of mastery in vocabulary development. Another study whose results are in line with our study was Vidal's (2003). In this study it was found that small number of vocabulary was learned from short academic lectures and the scores did not enhance much in delayed post-test. One of those studies reporting low scores after implicit instruction is Laufer's (1994) longitudinal study conducted to investigate differences in learners' writing without explicit instruction. In this study it was reported that there was not a significant change in lexical variation at the end of the treatment, and explicit vocabulary instruction was necessary to enhance quantity of input. Explicit learning plays an important role in language acquisition (Ellis 1990; Schmidt 1990). In implicit instruction, as Stahl (1999: 14) contends, context may be a beneficial teaching aid in learners' vocabulary growth, but at the same time it is a long-term process since word meanings are slowly accumulated through exposure and this process can be shortened by means of explicit instruction.

The results of this study, too, supports this claim since the scores in delayed post-test of implicit vocabulary instruction was the poorest when compared to the other two types.

### **6.1.2. The Effect of Explicit Vocabulary Instruction**

The second research question of our study was whether explicit vocabulary instruction affected the fourth graders' vocabulary development and retention. The results indicated that under the conditions of this study, explicit vocabulary instruction led to the best mean scores either in post-test or in delayed post-test among implicit and blended types of vocabulary instruction. There are a lot of studies in agreement with this finding. One of those is Zimmermann's (1997b) pilot study investigating the effectiveness of reading through interactive vocabulary instruction. The results demonstrated that vocabulary instruction could provide better scores when students' attention were drawn towards a limited set of words and lexical features like in explicit instruction and it motivated students much more. Bayram's (2009) study is another example using reading and vocabulary instruction together in terms of methodology. Her results support Zimmerman's (1997b) results, as well. In this study it was reported that a long treatment and repeated exposure of explicit vocabulary teaching led to better vocabulary learning and retention. Another study supporting explicit vocabulary instruction was Laufer and Shmueli's (1997) research investigating four approaches of vocabulary learning: using vocabulary lists, words in sentence and with translation, words in short texts and words in elaborated texts including synonyms and sentence explanations. This study was conducted in foreign language context with Hebrew high school students like our study. In post-test and after-five-week delayed post-test the students' performance in the control group who learned the words on their own from the lists was the lowest. The results of the study supported our results and indicated that implicit vocabulary instruction would not provide better scores if the students did not notice or processed the words deeply. The results of our study can further be supported by Paribakht and Wesche (1997) who investigated the effectiveness of "reading plus" activities to enhance

learners' second language vocabulary acquisition by comparing the results with "reading only" control group. The results showed that both groups performed well, but the treatment group having extra instruction on the reading texts performed much better and they suggested that explicit vocabulary instruction led to more successful results when the time was limited and vocabulary outcomes were expected. The results of our study can also be supported by Waring (1995) who studied on the appropriateness of contextualized methods of vocabulary learning for all learners. He asserted that beginners require a body of basic vocabulary items before they could start learning from context because the text was too difficult for them. Besides, other studies supporting ours were conducted by Nation (1994) and Hulstijn (2001) who believed that direct approaches in vocabulary learning were more useful particularly for beginning and intermediate levels.

### **6.1.3. The Effect of Blended Vocabulary Instruction**

The third research question in our study was whether blended vocabulary instruction affected the fourth graders' vocabulary development and retention. Our finding concerning this issue was that blended vocabulary instruction was in the middle in terms of scores obtained by the students in post- and delayed post-test. It can be concluded that this type of instruction led to better mean scores than implicit vocabulary instruction because unlike implicit vocabulary instruction in blended vocabulary instruction pre-, while, and post-exercises helped students comprehend the meaning of words much better. As mentioned in Chapter 3, there is an endless debate over the effectiveness of explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction. For instance, Krashen (1989) is a supporter of implicit vocabulary teaching. On the other hand, there is an argument and a huge amount of studies in favour of explicit vocabulary teaching. The literature includes supporters of the idea that both explicit and implicit vocabulary teaching takes place in vocabulary acquisition with a different role. Schmidt (1990) contends that unconscious language learning without attention is impossible. Ellis (1994) adds that the recognition, production, and phonetic and phonological aspects of vocabulary learning are best learned through

implicit ways with repeated exposure, but arbitrary aspects and meaning of vocabulary require explicit learning with conscious processing at semantic and conceptual levels. Doughty and Williams (1998) also claim that the current language teaching circles emphasized meaning-based learning enriched with supplementary exercises rather than focusing on them explicitly. Thus the lessons should be planned to increase meaning-focused exposure. Webb's (2007) study comparing the learning of words with translation and example sentence and with only translation supported this claim and put forward that a single context had little effect on vocabulary development and more exposure led to better performance. However, Hill and Laufer (2003) stated after their research on task time and electronic dictionaries in incidental vocabulary acquisition that for a second or foreign language learner it was quite difficult to increase their vocabulary size by 2000 frequent words from limited context. They also found that explicit post-reading tasks led to better vocabulary learning than comprehension questions requiring knowledge of the target words' meaning. Atay and Kurt's (2006) study on the effect of interactive post-reading tasks and vocabulary task for reading comprehension also supported the assertion that implicit learning supported with explicit instruction was claimed to be substantially effective. Another study favoring blended instruction is Mondria's (2003) research on implicit learning by inferring meaning from context and explicit learning by being given translations of words. In this research both groups seemed to perform equally although explicit instruction was more time saving. In addition, Jones's (2004) study supporting blended instruction in listening and vocabulary instruction discovered that explicit post-listening tasks helped more than listening and pronunciation help alone. Another study accepting the obligation to use both implicit and explicit instruction types in vocabulary is Souleyman's (2003) research in which he found out that both implicit and explicit instruction types could be implemented to achieve better narrative comprehension and immediate and delayed vocabulary retention. Rott, Williams, and Cameron's (2002) study also showed that the treatment group using multiple choice glosses while reading resulted in better scores than reading only group, but the scores fell dramatically in after-five-week delayed post-test. It can be the reason why our blended group in our study could not take the highest scores in



delayed post-test, as well, because maybe explicit exercises were not enough to promote implicit learning in blended vocabulary instruction.

#### **6.1.4. Gender Difference in Proficiency Levels**

Our last research question was whether gender played a role in required vocabulary instruction type. Our results showed there was not a significant difference between male and female students. In literature, however, we did not come across such a study investigating gender difference in vocabulary development and retention stemming from vocabulary instruction.

### **6.2. Conclusion**

The aim of this research was to see the effect of vocabulary instruction types at the fourth graders in government schools. As pointed out in the literature, explicit vocabulary instruction can be a powerful instruction type for providing vocabulary learning and retention. Conscious engagement with vocabulary items leads to better reflection from students. The research comparing three types of vocabulary instruction- implicit, explicit, and blended- reached a common conclusion that explicit vocabulary instruction and secondly blended vocabulary instruction led to much better performance than implicit vocabulary instruction although they do not take place in the present English Language Curriculum for Primary Education in Turkey (2006), and the course books sent by government. Sökmen (1997) claims that an effective vocabulary learning program should have learners build their vocabulary, establish mental connections by integrating new words and already existing ones, provide multiple exposure, promote learners' processing skills (such as guessing from the context), ease imaging, use various vocabulary learning and teaching techniques, and encourage learner autonomy. She adds that a blended approach which implicit and explicit vocabulary instructions are used to some extent to teaching is useful for showing our student various ways to learn and let them

choose the best for themselves. We do not see the two types of vocabulary instruction as competitors, rather we see them as complementary each with its own strong sides dependent on the immediate purposes of the learning. Most of the studies implemented merit special explicit attention for the frequent words, while implicit instruction is better for less frequent words. Therefore, using both types seems beneficial.

The environment chosen for the treatment and data collection was real classrooms of the participants with their regular English teacher; the reason for complementing the study this way was that it offered more natural environment for learners without having the stress of being tested. Vocabulary instruction was researched because the field had very few studies comparing implicit and explicit treatments in a real classroom setting (DeKeyser, 2003). The data were collected quantitatively through a test used as pre-, post-, and delayed post-test. The findings indicated that students in explicit instruction group outperformed the blended and the implicit group. In explicit group, vocabulary items were presented by means of real photographs, and some exercises such as writing down, repetition, drills were used. Peer-teaching and vocabulary games were parts of vocabulary instruction, as well. The students in the blended group interactively asked their teacher to use the vocabulary items to complete the activities, saw the written forms of the words, wrote down the items for playing vocabulary games, saw the words in context, worked in groups and pairs, and used the words to report their works. This group was in the middle in terms of the mean score of the students. The implicit group saw the words first in a task, wrote down the ones they needed to complete the task, exposed to the words in context and used the words they wanted while reporting their work. The implicit group had the poorest scores in the tests. However, it should be borne in mind that the instructional activities developed for this study were compressed for research purposes into a six-week period. In principle the use of instruction type and specific activities are liable to vary depending on the difficulty level of the words according to the students, how feasible they are to develop tasks appropriate for the learning capacities of the age group concerned, and how easily the instruction types can be made to fit into the curriculum that is being followed. An important

conclusion of this study is that explicit instruction is most successful at the first stages of foreign language learning with young learners especially when time and environment constraints are taken into consideration. However, although blended vocabulary instruction was not statistically significant, it must also be utilized to benefit from immediate learning gains of explicit vocabulary instruction and not to ignore long-term retention provided by implicit vocabulary instruction.

Several conclusions can be obtained through this study for students, teachers, material writers, curriculum designers, and researchers. First of all, this study partially filled a gap in the literature about in-class research on vocabulary instruction types especially in Turkey with a focus on young learners' learnings. The literature reviewed consisted of the importance of vocabulary, instruction types, and a brief review of previous studies which can be used as a guide for further study. Students who participated in this study noticed the importance of vocabulary to use the target language productively, and had the experience of different vocabulary learning and teaching techniques of which they can make use later on. It was seen that these various activities reflecting different instruction types should be used in English lessons. Teachers should be aware of the importance of vocabulary instruction first and they should provide various implicit or explicit activities to cater for differential learning goals and student expectations without taking gender difference into consideration because there was not a significant difference inbetween male and female students. Teachers should enrich their lessons by benefiting from explicit and blended types of vocabulary instruction more while preparing their lessons, adapting the course books, addressing to learners' goals. It requires them to be aware of vocabulary development phases of learners. One other purpose of this research was to show that vocabulary teaching incorporates a range of approaches and that vocabulary learning and instruction requires attention to various factors. If teachers are serious about the learners' vocabulary development, they should plan the process in terms of goals, and within the scope of curriculum and learning tasks. The research indicates that they can have a major effect on learning. Material writers and curriculum designers should take explicit and blended vocabulary instruction into account especially while preparing materials or

curriculums for young learners to foster vocabulary learning. Course books should present vocabulary in context providing multiple exposures with the inclusion of different aspects of vocabulary such as rich and decontextualized knowledge of a word's meaning, and then its relationship to other words, and finally its grammatical functions. It is possible that some of the vocabulary activities in this study may be effective among beginners and can be used in course books sent by the government to government schools in Turkey.

In general it can be claimed that considering the goals of individuals and groups, setting priorities for these goals, taking multiple dimensions into account, adapting learning and teaching processes, bearing in mind that there is not a 'best' way to learn or teach a language, and being patient are the general guidelines for L2 learning and teaching (Troike, 2006). This study's true value lies in helping teachers to understand that, as Lightbown (2000: 433) suggested, activities should be altered in various ways by focusing on those engaging students in meaningful interaction. Clearly, since it is impossible to address all these requirements with one method this study of vocabulary instruction types at fourth graders leaves us with a number of issues that would benefit from further investigation.

### **6.3. Suggestions**

This study was realized to compare the effects of implicit, explicit, and blended types of vocabulary instruction on students' learning and retention and to find out gender difference in success levels in these three types of instruction if there is. Further studies can be conducted with larger numbers, by making adequate sampling by attaining students randomly, by taking age and educational backgrounds into account, with different instructors impeding researcher tendencies, and in a longer time frame. Furthermore, a more sensitive instrument to assess the real and overall explicit and especially implicit vocabulary development that would possibly change the results can be used. The same study could be implemented in three steps with three instruction types each with a control group to precisely know whether the

change in success levels resulted from the intervention. A follow-up qualitative study could also be added to measure the learner and teacher preferences and attitude towards different types of vocabulary instruction. As for the possible research areas for further study, there can be many more other than these, since studies investigating the effects of instruction type in vocabulary development in foreign language context are very few.

## REFERENCES

- Archer, A. L., & Hughes, C. A. (2010). *Explicit Instruction: Effective and Efficient Teaching*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Atay, D., & Kurt, G. (2006). Elementary School EFL Learners' Vocabulary Learning: The Effects of Post-reading Activities. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 63(2), 255-273.
- Bauman, J. F., & Kame'enui, E. J. (2004). *Vocabulary Instruction: Research to Practice*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Bayram, D. Ö. (2009). A Comparison of the Effects of Explicit And Implicit Vocabulary Teaching On Students' Vocabulary Learning And Retention Levels Through Reading Texts. Unpublished Master Thesis, Muğla University Institute of Social Sciences.
- Benneth, P. (2006). An Evaluation of Vocabulary Teaching in an Intensive Study Programme. Unpublished Master Thesis, University of Birmingham.
- Berry, D. C., & Broadbent, D. E. (1988). Interactive Tasks and the Implicit-Explicit Distinction. *British Journal of Psychology*, 79, 251-272.
- Bialystok, E., & Hakuta, K. (1994). *In Other Words*. New York: Basic Books.
- Bloom, Paul. (2000). *How Children Learn the Meanings of Words*. Massachusetts: The MIT Press.
- Bühler, K. (1990). *Theory of Language*. USA: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Brumfit, C.J. (1984). Key issues in curriculum and syllabus design for ELT. In C.J. Brumfit (Ed.), *General English syllabus design. ELT Documents*. No. 118. London: Pergamon Press & The British Council.
- Bruner, J. (1960). *The Process of Education*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Carter, R., & McCarthy M. (1988). Developments in the teaching of vocabulary: 1945 to the present day. In R. Carter & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary and language teaching* (39-59). New York: Longman.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (1991). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second Language Classrooms: Research on Teaching and Learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1986). *Knowledge of Language: Its Nature, Origin, and Use*. Westport CT: Greenwood Press.
- Coady, J. (1997). L2 vocabulary acquisition through extensive reading. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds), *Second language vocabulary instruction (225-237)*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cohen, G., Kiss, G. and LeVoi, M. (1993). *Memory and Current Issues*. London: The Open University.
- Cooter, R. B., & Reutzel, D. R. (2004). *Teaching Children to Read: Putting the Pieces Together*. Upper Sadle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Corder, G. W., & Foreman, D. I.(2009) *Nonparametric Statistics for Non-Statisticians*. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Craik, F. I. M., & Lockhart, R. S. (1972). Levels of Processing: A Framework for Memory Research. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 11, 671-684.
- Decarrico, J.S.(2001). Vocabulary learning and teaching. In Marianne Celce-Murcia (Ed), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language (285)*. USA: Heinle&Heinle.
- DeKeyser, R. (1995). Learning Second Language Grammar Rules: An Experiment with a Miniature Linguistic System. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 17(3), 379-410.
- DeKeyser, R. (2003) Implicit and explicit learning. In C. Doughty and M. Long (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition (313-349)*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Diamond, L., & Guthlon, L. (2006). Teaching Vocabulary. <http://www.auburn.edu/~nunnath/eng16240/tvocabul.html>. (Retrieved on September 25, 2011).
- Doughty, J. C., & Williams, J. (Eds). (1998). *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Doughty, J. C., & Long, M. H. (2003). *The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Ellis, R. (1990) *Instructed Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

- Ellis, N. C. (1994). Vocabulary acquisition: the implicit ins and outs of explicit cognitive mediation. In N.C. Ellis (Ed), *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (211-282). London: Academic Press.
- Ellis, N. C. (1996). Vocabulary Acquisition: Psychological Perspectives. Doc. No: ne95a. <http://swan.ac.uk/cals/calsres/vlibrary/vlib.htm> (Retrieved on September 15, 2011).
- Ellis, N. C. (1997). Vocabulary acquisition: word structure, collocation, word-classes, and meaning. In N. Schmitt & McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: description, acquisition and pedagogy* (122-139). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1984). *Classroom Second Language Development: A Study of Classroom Interaction and Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1990). *Instructed Second Language Acquisition: Learning in the Classroom*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1995). Modified Oral Input and the Acquisition of Word Meanings. *Applied Linguistics*, 16(4), 409-441.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *SLA Research and Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2005a) Instructed language learning and task-based teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (713\_728). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ellis, R. (2005b). Measuring Implicit and Explicit Knowledge of a Second Language. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27(1), 141-72.
- Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H., & Leowen, S. (2001). Learner Uptake in Communicative ESL Lessons'. *Language Learning*, 51(2), 281-318.
- Ellis, R., Leowen, S., Elder, C., Erlam, R., Philp, J., and Reinders, H. (2009). *Implicit and Explicit Knowledge in Second Language Learning, Testing, and Teaching*. Great Britain: Short Run Press Ltd.



- Fisher, D., & Frey, N. (2008). *Better Learning through Structured Teaching: A Framework for the Gradual Release of Responsibility*. USA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Fotos, S., & Nassaji, H. (2007). *Form-focused Instruction and Teacher Education: Studies in Honor of Rod Ellis*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2001) *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Goldstein, H. (1986). Toward the Integration of Theory and Practice: A Humanistic Approach. *Social Work*, 31(5), 352-357.
- Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. (1993). Implications for L2 vocabulary acquisition and instruction from L1 vocabulary research. In T. Huckin, M. Haynes & J. Coady (Eds.), *Second language reading and vocabulary learning* (24-45). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. L. (1997), Reading and vocabulary development in a second language: A case study. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition: a rationale for pedagogy* (98-122). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hill, W. F. (1963). *Learning: A Survey of Psychological Interpretations*. London: Chandler Publishing Company.
- Hill, M., & Laufer, B. (2003). Type of Task Time-on-Task and Electronic Dictionaries in Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition. *IRAL*, 41(2), 87-106.
- Hawkins, M. R. (2005). Measuring Implicit and Explicit Knowledge of a Second Language. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27(1), 25-43.
- Horgan, T. & Tienson, J. (1989). Representations without Rules. *Philosophical Topics*, 17:147- 174.
- Horst, M., Cobb, T., & Meara, P. (1998). Beyond a Clockwork Orange: Acquiring Second Language Vocabulary through Reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 11 (2), 207-223.
- Housen, A., & Pierrard, M. (2006). Investigating instructed second language acquisition. In A. Housen & M. Pierrard (Eds), *Investigations in instructed second language acquisition* (12-27). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

- Hulstijn, J. H. (1997). Mnemonic methods in foreign language vocabulary learning: Theoretical considerations and pedagogical implications. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (203-224). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hulstijn, J. H. (2001). Intentional and incidental second language vocabulary learning: A reappraisal of elaboration, rehearsal, and automaticity. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (258-286). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hunt, A., & Beglar, D. (1998). Current Research and Practice in Teaching Vocabulary. *The Language Teacher*. <http://jalt-publications.org/tlt/articles/1998/01/hunt> (Retrieved on February 20, 2012).
- Illeris, K. (2007). *How We Learn: Learning and Non-learning in School and Beyond*. New York: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.
- Jones, L. (2004). Testing L2 Vocabulary Recognition and Recall Using Pictorial and Written Test Items. *Language Learning & Technology*, 8(3), 122-143.
- Kitajima, R. (2001). The Effect of Instructional Conditions on Students' Vocabulary Retention. *Foreign Language Annals*, 34(5), 470-482.
- Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S., & Terrell, T.D. (1983). *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom..* Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis*. New York: Longman Group Ltd.
- Krashen, S. D. (1989). We Acquire Vocabulary and Spelling by Reading: Additional Evidence for the Input Hypothesis. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73(4), 440-464.
- Kruse, A. F. (1987). Vocabulary in context. In Michael H. Long (Ed.), *Methodology in TESOL* (312- 317). New York: Newbury House Publishers.
- Larsen- Freeman D., & Long M. H. (1991). *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research*. New York: Longman Inc.
- Laufer, B. (1994). The Lexical Profile of Second Language Writing: Does It Change Over Time? *RELC Journal*, 25(2), 21-33.

- Laufer, B. (1998). The Development of Passive and Active Vocabulary in a Second Language: Same or Different? *Applied Linguistics*, 19(2), 255-271.
- Laufer, B., & Shmueli, K. (1997). Memorizing New Words: Does Teaching Have Anything to Do with It? *RELC Journal*, 28, 89-108.
- Laufer, B., & Hulstijn, J. (2001). Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition in a Second Language: The Construct of Task-induced Involvement. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(1), 1-26.
- Laufer, B. (2005). Focus on Form in Second Language Vocabulary Learning. *Eurosla Yearbook*, 5(3), 399-436.
- Lewis, M. (1993). *The Lexical Approach: The State of ELT and a Way Forward*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.
- Lewis, M. (2001). *Teaching Collocation: Further Developments in the Lexical Approach*. Hove, England: Thompson – Heinle Publications.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1999). *How Languages Are Learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lightbown, P.M. (2000). Anniversary Article: Classroom and SLA and Second Language Teaching. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(4), 431-462
- Little, D. (1994). Words and their properties: arguments for a lexical approach to pedagogical grammar. In T. ODLIN (Ed.), *Perspectives on pedagogical grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Long, M. (1983). Does Second Language Instruction Make a Difference? A Review of the Research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17, 359-382.
- Long, M. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In De Bot, Kees; Ginsberg, Ralph, Kramsch, Claire (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective* (39–52). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Long, M. (1996). The role of linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (413-468). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Lyster, R., & Mori, H. (2006). Interactional Feedback and Instructional Counterbalance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(2), 269-300.

- McCarthy, M. (1990). *Vocabulary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- McLaughlin, B. (1978). *Second Language Acquisition in Childhood*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Meara, P. (1996). The classical research in L2 vocabulary Acquisition. In G. Anderman & M. Rogers (Eds.), *Words, words, words: the translator and the language learner* (27-40). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Meara, P., Lightbown, P. M., & Halter, R. H. (1997). Classrooms as Lexical Environments. *Language Teaching Research*, 1(1), 28-47.
- Milekic, S., & Weisler S. E. (2000). *Theory of Language*. Massachusetts: Bradford Book.
- Mondria, J. A. (2003). The Effects of Inferring, Verifying, and Memorizing on the Retention of L2 Word Meanings. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 25, 473-499.
- Nagy, W., & Anderson, R. C. (1984). How Many Words are There in Printed School English? *Reading Research Quarterly*, 19, 304-330.
- Nagy, W. (1997), On the role of context in first and second language vocabulary learning. In N. Schmitt & Mc Carthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: description, acquisition and pedagogy* (64-83). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, I. S. P. (1990). *Teaching & Learning Vocabulary*. Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Nation, I. S. P. (Ed.). (1994). *New Ways in Teaching Vocabulary*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2001). *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, P., & Newton, J. (1997). Vocabulary teaching. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (239-254). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Norris, J., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 Instruction: A Research Synthesis and Quantitative Meta-analysis'. *Language Learning*, 50(3), 417-28.
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research Methods in Language Learning*. UK: Cambridge University Press.

- O'Dell, F. (1997). Incorporating vocabulary into the syllabus. In N. Schmitt & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: description, acquisition and pedagogy* (258-278). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ooi, D., & Kim-Seoh, J. L. (1996). Vocabulary Teaching: Looking behind the Word. *ELT Journal*, 50(1), 52-58.
- Paribakht, T.S., & Wesche, M. (1997). Vocabulary enhancement activities and reading for meaning in second language vocabulary acquisition. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (174-200). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Parry, K. (1991), Building a Vocabulary through Academic Reading. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(4), 629-653.
- Parry, K. (1997), Vocabulary and comprehension: Two portraits. In J.Coady, J. & Huckin, T. (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Pigada, M., & Schmitt, N. (2006). Vocabulary Acquisition from Extensive Reading: A Case Study. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 18(1), 1-28.
- Pinker, S., and Prince, A. (1988). On Language and Connectionism: Analysis of a Parallel Distributed Processing Model of Language Acquisition. *Cognition*, 28, 73-193.
- Prince, P. (1996). Second Language Vocabulary Learning: The role of Context versus Translation as a Function of Proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80(4), 478-493.
- Rahimi, A, Sahragad,R. (2008). Vocabulary Learning Can Be Fun. *California Liguistic Notes*. 33(2).
- Rahmy, E. (n.d.) Increasing Learners' English Vocabulary Through Advertisements on Tv Commercial Breaks. <http://evasmp6bkt.blogspot.com/2007/10/my-paper.html> (Retrieved on February 23, 2012).
- Ranta, L. (2002). Individual Differences and Instructed Language Learning'. *The Role of Learners' Language Analytic Ability in the Classroom*, 39, 159-180.
- Read, J. (2000). *Assessing Vocabulary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Reber, A. (1993). *Implicit Learning and Tacit Knowledge*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (1976). The Role of Vocabulary Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 10, 77-89.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rivers, W. (1983). Apples of gold in pictures of silver: Where have all the words gone? In W. Rivers (Ed.), *Communicating naturally in a second language* (114-132). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Robinson, P. (1996). Learning Simple and Complex Second Language Rules under Implicit, Incidental, Rule-search, and Instructed conditions. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18(4), 27-67.
- Rott, S. (1999). The Effect of Exposure Frequency on Intermediate Language Learners' Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition through Reading. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21(1), 589-619.
- Rott, S., Williams, J., & Cameron, R. (2002). The Effect of Multiple-Choice L1 glosses and Input-Output Cycles on Lexical Acquisition and Retention. *Language Teaching Research*, 6(3), 183-222.
- Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 129- 158.
- Schmidt, R. W. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (3-32). Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Schmitt, N., & McCarthy, M. (1997). *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schmitt, N. (2008). Review Article: Instructed Second Language Vocabulary Learning. *Language Teaching Research*, 12, 329-363.
- Schunk, D. H. (2000). *Learning Theories: An Educational Perspective*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.

- Seesink, M. T. N. (2007). Using Blended Instruction to Teach Academic Vocabulary Collocations. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, The College of Human Resources and Education at West Virginia University.
- Sharwood-Smith, M. (1981). Consciousness-raising and the second language learner. *Applied Linguistics II*, 159-169.
- Shen, W. W. (n.d). Current Trends of Vocabulary Teaching and Learning Strategies for EFL Settings. <http://www.cohss.fcu.edu.tw/paper/7-9.pdf> (Retrieved on February 12, 2012).
- Shuell, T. J. (1988). The Role of the Student in Learning from Instruction. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 13, 276-295.
- Souleyman, H. M. (2009). Implicit and explicit vocabulary acquisition with a computer-assisted hypertext reading task: comprehension and retention. (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Arizona, 2009). (UMINo. 3389179).
- Sökmen, A. J. (1997), Current trends in teaching second language vocabulary. In N. Schmitt & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: description, acquisition and pedagogy* (237-257). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Stahl, S. A. (1999). *Vocabulary Development*. Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.
- Suppes, P. (1974). The Place of Theory in Educational Research. *Educational Researcher*, 3(6), 3-10.
- Tang, E., & Nesi, H. (2003). Teaching Vocabulary in Two Chinese Classrooms: Schoolchildren's Exposure to English Words in Hong Kong and Guangzhou. *Language Teaching Research*, 7(1), 65-97.
- Tarpy, R. M. (1997). *Contemporary Learning Theory and Research*. New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.
- T.C. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı. (2006). İlköğretim İngilizce Dersi (4, 5, 6, 7 ve 8. Sınıflar) Öğretim Programı. Ankara: Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı.
- Tezgiden, S. Y. (2006). Effects of Instruction in Vocabulary Learning Strategies. Unpublished Master Thesis, Bilkent University Graduate School of Education.
- Thornbury, S. (2002). *How to Teach Vocabulary*. Essex: Longman- Pearson Education.

- Troike, M. S. (2006). *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ünal, E. (2006). An Investigation into the Role of Interactive Vocabulary Instruction on Learners' Vocabulary Knowledge. Unpublished Master Thesis, Çukurova University Institute of Social Sciences.
- VanPatten, B. (1996). *Input Processing and Grammar Instruction Theory and Research*. New Jersey: Alex Publishing Corporation.
- Vidal, K. (2003). Academic Listening: A Source of Vocabulary Acquisition. *Applied linguistics*, 24(1), 56-89.
- Wang, A., Thomas, M., & Ouellette, J. (1992). Keyword Mnemonic and Retention of Second Language Vocabulary Words. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84, 520-528.
- Waring, R. (n.d.). Connectionism and Second Language Vocabulary. <http://www.fltr.ucl.ac.be/fltr/germ/etan/bibs/vocab/connect.html> (Retrieved on February 14, 2012).
- Waring, R. (1995). Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition: Linguistic Context and Vocabulary Task Design. <http://www.harenet.ne.jp/~waring/papers/BC.html> (Retrieved on March 14, 2012)
- Waring, R., & Takaki, M. (2003). At What Rate do Learners Learn and Retain New Vocabulary from Reading a Graded Reader? *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 15, 130-163.
- Webb, S. (2007). Learning Word Pairs and Glossed Sentences: The Effects of a Single Context on Vocabulary Knowledge. *Language Teaching Research*, 11(1), 63-81.
- Widdowson, H.G. (1989). Knowledge of Language and Ability for Use. *Applied Linguistics*, 10(2), 128-137.
- Xue, G., & Nation, I.S.P. (1984) A University Word List. *Language Learning and Communication*, 3(2), 215-229.
- Yıldırım, A. ve Şimşek H. (2008). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin Kitabevi.



- Zimmerman, C. B. (1997a). Historical trends in second language vocabulary instruction. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (5-19). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Zimmerman, C. B. (1997b). Do Reading and Interactive Vocabulary Instruction Make a Difference? An Empirical Study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(1), 121-140.

## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1. Pre-, Post-, Delayed Post- Test

#### Choose the correct answer.

1. Ali: What is this in the picture?

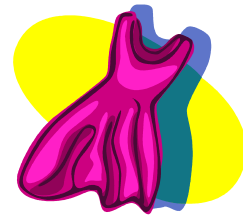
Tom: \_\_\_\_\_

- A) It is a jumper.                      B) It is a beret.  
C) It is a scarf.                        D) It is a hat.



2. What is it?

- A) It is a blouse.                        B) It is a skirt  
C) It is a dress.                         D) It is a shirt.



- 3.



What are these?

-These are \_\_\_\_\_.

- A) clothes                                B) socks  
C) boots                                  D) hats

4. Look at the girls in the picture. What **haven't** they got?

- A) A jumper                                B) Sunglasses  
C) A skirt                                  D) Boots



- 5.



She has got \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_, and \_\_\_\_\_.

- A) a beret- a jumper- boots  
B) a blouse- gloves- shoes  
C) a scarf- a dress- trainers  
D) a scarf- a coat- boots

6. I have got my \_\_\_\_\_ because it is winter in Uludağ.

- A) coat  
B) sunglasses  
C) t-shirt  
D) shoes

7. Alex and Sylvia bring their \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ for their summer holiday.

- A) jumper- coat  
B) t-shirt- gloves  
C) boots- beret  
D) dress- sunglasses

8. Which one is **wrong**?

A) A beret



B) A shirt



C) trainers



D) a blouse



9.



John loves sports. He has got \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_, and \_\_\_\_\_.

- A) a t-shirt, pants, a hat, boots  
B) a shirt, trousers, socks, shoes  
C) a blouse, shorts, a scarf, trainers  
D) a t-shirt, shorts, socks, trainers

10. \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ are winter clothes.

- A) Shorts- trainers  
B) Jumpers- boots  
C) Skirts- t-shirts  
D) Trousers- shoes

11. \_\_\_\_\_ are summer clothes. \_\_\_\_\_ are winter clothes.

- A) Gloves- Boots  
B) Berets- Blouses  
C) Scarves- Shoes  
D) Shorts- Coats

12. Which one is **wrong**?

A) A t-shirt



B) A skirt



C) Trousers



D) Boots



13. My mother loves her \_\_\_\_\_ very much.



- A) trousers
- B) skirt
- C) t-shirt
- D) shoes

14. They have got \_\_\_\_\_ in Bodrum because it is summer.

- A) sunglasses
- B) boots
- C) a coat
- D) a jumper







15. I have got my \_\_\_\_\_ because I am in Uludağ for a winter holiday.



- A) scarf
- B) t-shirt
- C) cap
- D) dress

16. Which one is **correct**?

- A) boots 
- B) a scarf 
- C) a jumper 
- D) a coat 

17. Ho-Ho- Ho! I have got a \_\_\_\_\_ for you as a new year present.

- A) cap
- B) beret
- C) hat
- D) scarf



18. Which one is a pair of **socks**?

- A) 
- B) 
- C) 
- D) 

19. This is my mother's \_\_\_\_\_, and this is my father's \_\_\_\_\_.

- A) skirt- tie
- B) tie- skirt
- C) scarf- dress
- D) blouse- dress

20. Which one is **correct** ?

- A) Shoes = Boots
- B) Hat = Cap
- C) Gloves = Scarf
- D) Trousers = Pants

21. I love sports. Where are my \_\_\_\_\_?

- A) trainers  
C) boots

- B) socks  
D) shoes



22. What colour is your \_\_\_\_\_? It is black.  
What colour are your \_\_\_\_\_? They are white.



- A) tie- trousers  
C) t-shirt- socks

- B) shirt- shoes  
D) blouse- trainers

23.



My sister has got two \_\_\_\_\_.

- A) blouses  
C) shirts

- B) skirts  
D) dresses

24. This cat has got \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_.

- A) a hat- boots  
C) a cap- socks

- B) a beret- shoes  
D) pants- trainers



25.



These are my \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_.

- A) shirts- shorts  
B) jackets- trousers  
C) blouses- skirts  
D) t-shirts- pants

## Appendix 2. Lesson Plans

### LESSON PLAN 1- IMPLICIT INSTRUCTION

<b>Teacher</b>	: Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
<b>Size</b>	: 40 Students
<b>Age-Level</b>	: 10/11-Beginner
<b>Class</b>	: 4- C
<b>Course</b>	: English-Vocabulary
<b>Lesson</b>	: My Clothes
<b>Language Point</b>	: Telling the names of clothing items (skirt, trousers, jumper, T-shirt, coat, dress, boots, shoes, scarf, and sunglasses) and making simple sentences with these words.
<b>Objectives</b>	: To enable students to identify clothing items and use them in the correct place and manner.
<b>Teaching aids</b>	: A suitcase and a pack full of clothing items (a skirt, trousers, a jumper, a T- shirt, a coat, a dress, a scarf, and sunglasses), The pictures of people, Board, Computer and a projector.
<b>Feedback</b>	: To check students' own rewritten forms of clothing items in their notebooks during Bingo Game without metalanguage but with recasts without emphasizing just the correct form of the words.

### PROCEDURE

#### Pre-task Activity

- The teacher comes to the classroom with a suitcase, a pack, and sunglasses on. After greeting students she shows a picture of Bodrum to the students and pretends to dream a holiday. Then she takes some clothing items to be and not to be used on a summer holiday from the pack, and puts them on the table while pronouncing the names of clothing items. In the pack there

are a jumper and a t-shirt- a coat and a dress- a skirt and trousers- sandals and boots- a scarf and sunglasses. The teacher says 'I can put my sunglasses into my bag, but I can't put my scarf'. After putting sunglasses while saying so, the teacher turns to the class and asks 'What else can I put?'. When a student points to a certain item, the teacher says the name of it in English and puts it into the bag until nothing to be used on a holiday is left out on the table. If a student points to a clothing item usable in winter, the teacher says, for example, 'A scarf? In Bodrum? No! What else?' and turns to another student.

- The teacher sticks the photos of people to the board when it is summer or winter. The teacher asks 'Do you like it? Is it good or bad for a summer holiday in Bodrum?'. Then the teacher writes the names of clothing items near the pictures by drawing arrows, and puts tick if it is OK for a summer holiday in Bodrum according to the answers from the students.
- The teacher tells the students to write any five of the phrases to their notebooks. While they are copying them, the teacher tells the students that they are going to play 'Bingo' game. The teacher takes another pack out of her bag including slips of papers on which all the clothing items on the board are written. She pulls a slip randomly and reads it to the class. She goes on pulling and reading till somebody shouts 'Bingo!' when all the words in his/ her notebook are pronounced. The winner is applauded.

## LESSON PLAN 2- IMPLICIT INSTRUCTION

<b>Teacher</b>	: Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
<b>Size</b>	: 40 Students
<b>Age-Level</b>	: 10/11-Beginner
<b>Class</b>	: 4- C
<b>Course</b>	: English-Vocabulary
<b>Lesson</b>	: My Clothes
<b>Language Point</b>	: Telling the names of clothing items (skirt, trousers, jumper, T-shirt, coat, dress, boots, shoes, scarf, and sunglasses) and making simple sentences with these words.
<b>Objectives</b>	: To enable students to identify clothing items and use them in the correct place and manner.
<b>Teaching aids</b>	: PPS about the story, Handouts, ‘The Best Styler’ cup, Picture Cards of picture sequence of the story, Card suitcases and flashcard photocopies.
<b>Feedback</b>	: To check students’ own re-formed suitcases without metalanguage but with recasts without emphasizing just the correct form of the words.

### PROCEDURE

#### **Task Cycle**

#### **Task**

- The teacher explains the students that they are going to watch a movie of a girl named Sheila and her adventure of packing up a suitcase for a summer holiday. A PPS with pictures and the written form of the story is shown to them once while the teacher is pronouncing it.
  
- The teacher makes groups of four and distributes the handouts to the groups. One handout includes clothing item pictures and the other the photo of Sheila.



- The teacher tells the groups that they are going to cut the clothing items out from the first handout and stick them to the second.

### **Planning**

- The teacher tells the students that in their group they are going to have a style designer to decide which clothes Sheila should be wearing, a cutter, a sticker, and a spokesperson or a group leader to report why they have chosen the certain clothing items. Students decide which role to take over and begin creating their own Sheila.

### **Report**

- The spokespersons from each group stand up and introduce their Sheila by making 'because' sentences.
- Groups vote each other secretly and the group which has the big point wins and takes the cup 'The Best Styler'.

### **Language Focus and Feedback**

- The teacher tells them that they are going to play another game in the same groups. In the game 'Making Sheila's Suitcase', the PPS is shown once again to the students showing Sheila making her suitcase by saying all her clothing items. The teacher distributes card suitcases to each group. The teacher tells them to write down all the clothing items they remember, and put them in the correct order Sheila does in the suitcase.
- A pile of clothing item flashcard photocopies are poured onto the table and leaders become runners from each group. In time given the runners are supposed to find out what Sheila put into her suitcase and place it in the card suitcases of their groups in the correct place. At the end, the suitcases of the groups are compared and PPS is shown once again. The group which is closer wins.

### LESSON PLAN 3- IMPLICIT INSTRUCTION

<b>Teacher</b>	: Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
<b>Size</b>	: 40 Students
<b>Age-Level</b>	: 10/11-Beginner
<b>Class</b>	: 4- C
<b>Course</b>	: English-Vocabulary
<b>Lesson</b>	: My Clothes
<b>Language Point</b>	: Telling the names of clothing items (blouse, pants, shirt, trainers, cap, hat, beret, tie, gloves, socks) and making simple sentences with these words.
<b>Objectives</b>	: To enable students to identify clothing items and use them in the correct place and manner.
<b>Teaching aids</b>	: A calendar, A pack full of clothing items (such as blouses, pants, shirts, trainers, caps, hats, berets, ties, gloves, socks), four gift packs, eight boxes, flashcard photocopies.
<b>Feedback</b>	: To check students' gift packs without metalanguage but with recasts without emphasizing just the correct form of the words.

### PROCEDURE

#### Pre-task Activity

- The teacher comes to the classroom and greets the class. She brings a calendar with her and shows that the New Year 2012 comes after December. She empties the pack she has with her which is full of real clothing items and tells the class that she has got lots of presents for her family. She says "Look! I have got a lot of presents (while showing a gift pack) for my family. They are my new year presents." Then she pretends that she has got a kind of problem about packing them up. She puts four gift packs with photos of her family members on the table and begins showing the clothing items from the pack one by one while saying sentences like "This is a hat. Oh yes! This is for my father! This is a cap. A cap? This is

for my brother.” If students complete the sentences with the correct or possible family member, the teacher says “Yes! You’re right! These gloves are good for my sister” to encourage them to participate.

- After a few examples, the teacher pours clothing item flashcard photocopies including the flashcards of a cap, a beret, a hat, a tie, a blouse, a shirt, pants, gloves, socks and trainers on the table. She divides the class into two groups. She gives four boxes with post-its “for my father”, “for my mother”, “for my brother” and “for my sister” to one group and another four to the other group. She tells them that they are going to help her to pack up the New Year presents for her family members. The teacher puts a sandglass on the table and reminds that the quickest group wins. At the end the best gift packs including suitable clothing item presents for the correct family members are applauded and that group is announced as the winner.

### LESSON PLAN 4- IMPLICIT INSTRUCTION

<b>Teacher</b>	: Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
<b>Size</b>	: 40 Students
<b>Age-Level</b>	: 10/11-Beginner
<b>Class</b>	: 4- C
<b>Course</b>	: English-Vocabulary
<b>Lesson</b>	: My Clothes
<b>Language Point</b>	: Telling the names of clothing items (blouse, pants, shirt, trainers, cap, hat, beret, tie, gloves, socks) and making simple sentences with these words.
<b>Objectives</b>	: To enable students to identify clothing items and use them in the correct place and manner.
<b>Teaching aids</b>	: A PPS about the story, Handouts, Pieces of clothes, Scissors, a Stapler, Shopping Magazines, Shopping magazine cover page, An example shopping magazine page.
<b>Feedback</b>	: To check students' gift pack handouts without metalanguage but with recasts without emphasizing just the correct form of the words.

### PROCEDURE

#### Task Cycle

#### Task

- The teacher explains the students that they are going to watch another movie of Sheila and her adventure of going to a shopping centre for buying New Year presents for her family members. A PPS with pictures and the written form of the story is shown to them once. Then a student is chosen to read it aloud.
  
- The teacher tells the students that they are going to prepare a New Year Shopping Magazine including clothing items and their prices. She makes

groups of four and distributes handouts including boy and girl paper dolls to the groups. Then she distributes colorful pieces of clothes and scissors. She tells the class to make clothes for these figures by cutting out these pieces of clothes and sticking them onto the page. She distributes a price list and shows an example page she has prepared before.

### **Planning**

- The teacher tells the students that in their group they are going to have a style designer to decide which clothes the stick figure should be wearing, a cutter, a sticker, and a spokesperson or a group leader to report why they have chosen the certain clothing items.
  
- The teacher assigns roles to each group member and they begin creating their own fashion figures.

### **Report**

- After the students decide which clothing items to create in the light of the designer's advice, the cutter cuts the pieces of clothes, the sticker sticks those clothes onto the handout given. Then the spokespersons from each group stand up and introduce their figure by making sentences like "This is a girl. She loves dancing. She has got a dress, a hat, and shoes." or "This is a man. He loves sports. He has got a cap, a blouse, pants, and trainers."
  
- The teacher shows fashion magazines to the class and says "Look these are fashion magazines. You make one in class." She collects pages from the groups and staples them together with a cover page she has prepared before and finally forms the New Year Shopping Magazine of the class.

### **Language Focus and Feedback**

- The teacher tells the students that they are going to play another game in the same groups.

- Before the game, the PPS is shown just once to the students showing Sheila at New Year shopping to buy presents for her family. The teacher distributes a handout to each group. The teacher tells them to write down all the presents of Sheila for a certain family member as far as they remember.
  
- At the end, the handouts of the groups are compared and the teacher corrects pronunciation or meaning mistakes implicitly without emphasizing. The PPS is shown once again. The group which is closer is applauded.

## LESSON PLAN 1- EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION

<b>Teacher</b>	: Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
<b>Size</b>	: 40 Students
<b>Age-Level</b>	: 10/11-Beginner
<b>Class</b>	: 4- E
<b>Course</b>	: English-Vocabulary
<b>Lesson</b>	: My Clothes
<b>Language Point</b>	: Telling the names of clothing items (skirt, trousers, jumper, T-shirt, coat, dress, scarf, and sunglasses) and making simple sentences with these words.
<b>Objectives</b>	: To enable students to identify clothing items and use them in the correct place and manner.
<b>Teaching aids</b>	: The pictures of the teacher, Board, Flashcards, and Handouts.
<b>Feedback</b>	: To check students' own sentences they have created in the presentation part with metalanguage and with recasts by emphasizing the correct meaning, form and pronunciation of the words.

### PROCEDURE

#### **Warm-up**

- Teacher comes to the classroom and greets students. She writes 'My Clothes' on the board and starts to show some clothing items on the photograph of hers taken in winter and summer. She sticks the photos on the board, and while showing them she emphasizes the clothing items by repeating loudly. She says 'Look! These are my clothes. I have got my *dress* and *shoes*. Here I have got my *dress* and my *sunglasses*. Here I have got my *trousers*. Here I have got my *t-shirt* and *trousers*. Here I have got my *skirt*. Here I have got my *jumper*, *trousers* and *coat*. Here I have got my *scarf*, *trousers*, and *coat*. Look! Here I have got my *coat*, *scarf*, *trousers*, and *boots*.' Then the teacher goes to the first photograph and says 'Now

please listen and repeat after me! Dress, Shoes, Dress, Sunglasses, Trousers, T-shirt, Trousers, Skirt, Jumper, Trousers, Coat.’ Then the teacher announces that they are going to play ‘Bingo’ game. She wants the students to draw five clothing items in their notebooks. The teacher turns the photos over and pulls one and says the name of clothing items on that photo. The game lasts until somebody shouts ‘bingo’ when all the drawings of his or hers is announced.

### **Presentation**

- The teacher starts to make students repeat the words in the warm-up many times. After repetition is over, the teacher takes photos from the board, writes the clothing items on the board and draws pictures for each. The teacher distributes handouts including the clothing items written and drawn on the board. Then the teacher shuffles the photos and makes up a drill by pointing various clothing items and by correcting pronunciation mistakes while students are getting help from the handout just distributed.
  
- The teacher shows a paper including many pictures- mostly clothing items and lets students look at it for 10 seconds. After time is over, she hides the picture and makes the students write down as many clothing items as they remember by getting help from the board. Then they raise their fingers and say the clothing items they have seen in the poster. The teacher puts a tick near the clothing item they have said. After some answers are provided. The teacher shows them the poster again and wants the students to draw the pictures near the clothing items they have written down in their notebooks, and put three stars near their favorite clothing item. Then the teacher asks their favorite clothes randomly and whether they love summer or winter by showing a summer and winter picture by saying, for example, ‘Well, your favorite cloth is a jumper because you love winter? Yes?’.



## LESSON PLAN 2- EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION

<b>Teacher</b>	: Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
<b>Size</b>	: 40 Students
<b>Age-Level</b>	: 10/11-Beginner
<b>Class</b>	: 4- E
<b>Course</b>	: English-Vocabulary
<b>Lesson</b>	: My Clothes
<b>Language Point</b>	: Telling the names of clothing items (skirt, trousers, jumper, T-shirt, coat, dress, scarf, and sunglasses) and making simple sentences with these words.
<b>Objectives</b>	: To enable students to identify clothing items and use them in the correct place and manner.
<b>Teaching aids</b>	: Board, Stick, Scissors and glues for each student, Flashcards, Handouts, ‘The Best Styler’ cup.
<b>Feedback</b>	: To check students’ own sentences they have created in the production part with metalanguage and with recasts by emphasizing the correct meaning, form and pronunciation of the words.

### PROCEDURE

#### **Practice**

- The teacher pronounces summer and winter and makes the students repeat after her. Then she makes pairs, distributes a two-page-handout to the students and tells them that they are going to cut pictures and words out from the second page and stick to the first by paying attention to seasons. After they are finished they raise their fingers and say the word and show the picture to the teacher and other students. If it is not correct, the teacher elicits answer from another student. If it is correct, the student says it again and the class repeats after him or her.

- After that activity is over, the teacher sticks pictures of siblings on the board and distributes another page- Student A for one desk mate and Student B for the other desk mate in pairs.
- When they fill the blanks by listening or reading their desk mates' copy, the teacher wants volunteers read one sentence at a time. Then she shows the pictures on the board and asks which picture is about the text they have just filled out.

### **Production**

- The teacher makes groups of five and tells the students that they are going to play a game in their groups. She distributes the handouts to each group and gives 10 minutes for them to get ready.
- After they draw their pictures and write paragraphs, a leader from each group stands up and shows their group's picture while reading their sentences. When each group finishes reporting, they start to vote for each other and the group taking the highest point wins the game and takes 'The Best Styler' cup.

### LESSON PLAN 3- EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION

<b>Teacher</b>	: Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
<b>Size</b>	: 40 Students
<b>Age-Level</b>	: 10/11-Beginner
<b>Class</b>	: 4- E
<b>Course</b>	: English-Vocabulary
<b>Lesson</b>	: My Clothes
<b>Language Point</b>	: Telling the names of clothing items (blouse, pants, shirt, trainers, cap, hat, beret, tie, gloves, socks) and making simple sentences with these words.
<b>Objectives</b>	: To enable students to identify clothing items and use them in the correct place and manner.
<b>Teaching aids</b>	: Flashcards, Flashcard photocopies, Student's books, Dictionaries.
<b>Feedback</b>	: To check students' own words or sentences they have created in the presentation part with metalanguage and with recasts by emphasizing the correct meaning, form and pronunciation of the words.

### PROCEDURE

#### Warm-up

- Teacher comes to the classroom and greets students. She writes 'My Clothes' on the board and starts to show some clothing item flashcards (skirt, trousers, jumper, T-shirt, coat, dress, boots, shoes, scarf, and sunglasses) learnt in the previous lesson and to ask their meanings. After shuffling the cards she asks again. Then she announces that they are going to play a game. She takes out three pieces of paper. On the papers 'ACT OUT', 'DRAW', and 'SPELL' words are written and the pieces are folded. To exemplify, the teacher pulls out a flashcard from the shuffle randomly without showing and pulls out a piece of paper and shows it to the class. If she has the 'ACT OUT' paper she pretends to wear the clothing item on the

flashcard and lets the students guess it. If she pulls out 'DRAW' paper, she begins to draw the clothing item on the board. At every line she turns to the class and waits for a guess. If she takes 'SPELL' paper, she begins to spell the word on the flashcard and at every letter she waits for a guess. After giving examples like this, she divides the class to two groups and puts a sandglass on the table. From each group she chooses a volunteer and takes him/ her to the board. The volunteer does as the teacher, but s/he has only thirty seconds. The group who can find all five words becomes the winner of the game in these ways.

### **Presentation**

- The teacher starts to make the students repeat the words in the warm-up a few times. After repetition is over, the teacher sticks new clothing item flashcards (blouse, pants, shirt, trainers, cap, hat, beret, tie, gloves, and socks) one by one on the board without writing their English names. Then she divides the class into the groups of four and gives each group one of the same flashcards on the board. Then she tells the class that they are going to find out the meaning in the dictionary and teach it to the class afterwards as in the game in the warm-up and repeat it many times. The teacher strolls around and helps and gives advice on various ways of teaching a word. After the time is up, each group comes to the board and teaches their words by drawing, acting out, spelling, explaining (for example, by saying "Look class! We have got it in winter. These are gloves." while showing the flashcard and writing their English meaning on the flashcard on the board) and making lots of repetitions. After each group other students draw that clothing item and write down their meanings in their notebooks.
  
- After all the groups are finished, the teacher makes the class repeat the words after her many times while showing them on the flashcards on the board. After the repetition, she starts another game. Before the game she reminds the class of the previous unit by making them take a look at the book. She repeats body parts arm, leg, foot, neck and head. Then she tells

the class that when she says 'arm', for example, the class is going to say 'blouse' or 'shirt'. If she says 'neck', they are going to say 'tie'. If she says 'leg', they are going to say 'pants' or 'trousers'. If she says 'foot', they are going to say 'socks' or 'trainers'. And if she says 'head', they are going to say 'cap', 'beret' or 'hat'. The teacher starts the drill and says a different body part to each student and that student says a certain clothing item that s/he can wear on that body part. The drill goes until all the students say a word from the board.

### LESSON PLAN 4- EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION

<b>Teacher</b>	: Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
<b>Size</b>	: 40 Students
<b>Age-Level</b>	: 10/11-Beginner
<b>Class</b>	: 4- E
<b>Course</b>	: English-Vocabulary
<b>Lesson</b>	: My Clothes
<b>Language Point</b>	: Telling the names of clothing items (blouse, pants, shirt, trainers, cap, hat, beret, tie, gloves, socks) and making simple sentences with these words.
<b>Objectives</b>	: To enable students to identify clothing items and use them in the correct place and manner.
<b>Teaching aids</b>	: Handouts in the Appendices, A 2012 Calendar, Scissors, Pieces of clothes, An example page for a present advice.
<b>Feedback</b>	: To check students' own words or sentences they have created in the production part with metalanguage and with recasts by emphasizing the correct meaning, form and pronunciation of the words.

### PROCEDURE

#### **Practice**

- The teacher takes repeats the previously learnt words once. She shuffles the flashcards and adds the previously learnt ten clothing item flashcards to this shuffle. Then she sticks the cards randomly on the board by turning them over and sticks twenty clothing item name again randomly and by turning over. She asks a volunteer to come to the board and choose two cards. She shows the two cards to the class and the volunteer. If the cards are a match of drawing and meaning, the teacher leaves them open. If not, the teacher turns them over again. This memory game lasts until all the words and pictures are opened.

- The teacher shows a 2012 calendar to the class and pretends going to a shopping centre (by showing a flashcard of shopping centre) to buy New Year presents (by showing a flashcard of present) for her family. She shows a price list of the clothing items and distributes it as a handout to each pair. She gives a pause in order to let the students check out the handout. Then she shows another handout including a shopping list table with various categories and a clue. She distributes a table to each pair and tells the class to fill out the table in pairs by looking at the clue. When the pairs are done, the teacher takes possible guesses from various pairs and fills the table out.

### **Production**

- The teacher tells the students that they are going to prepare New Year present ideas for the family members of the teacher. She distributes the handouts to each pair. Then she distributes pieces of clothes and scissors. She shows an example page including a paper doll having clothing items made of real pieces of clothes made by cutting out and sticking clothes onto the page with the prices on them. Then she gives 10 minutes for them to get ready.
- After they cut and stick pieces of clothes and write advice for the teacher, they report their ideas. The teacher makes a table on the board including each family member and writes the advices for New Year present offered by the students, and thanks the class for helping her.
- As homework the teacher wants the students to make such papers for each family member of their own.

## LESSON PLAN 1- BLENDED INSTRUCTION

<b>Teacher</b>	: Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
<b>Time</b>	: 40 minutes
<b>Size</b>	: 40 Students
<b>Age-Level</b>	: 10/11-Beginner
<b>Class</b>	: 4- A
<b>Course</b>	: English-Vocabulary
<b>Lesson</b>	: My Clothes
<b>Language Point</b>	: Telling the names of clothing items (skirt, trousers, jumper, T-shirt, coat, dress, boots, shoes, scarf, and sunglasses) and making simple sentences with these words.
<b>Objectives</b>	: To enable students to identify clothing items and use them in the correct place and manner.
<b>Teaching aids</b>	: A suitcase and a pack full of clothing items (a skirt, trousers, a jumper, a T- shirt, a coat, a dress, shoes, boots, a scarf, and sunglasses), The pictures of people, Board, Handouts.
<b>Feedback</b>	: To check students' own re-formed words or sentences without metalanguage but with recasts without emphasizing just the correct form of the words.

### PROCEDURE

#### **Pre-task Activity**

- The teacher comes to the classroom with a suitcase, a pack, and sunglasses on. After greeting students she shows a picture of Bodrum to the students and pretends to dream a holiday. Then she takes some clothing items to be and not to be used on a summer holiday from the pack, and puts them on the table while pronouncing the names of clothing items. In the pack there are a jumper and a t-shirt- a coat and a dress- a skirt and trousers- sandals



and boots- a scarf and sunglasses. The teacher says ‘I can put my sunglasses into my bag, but I can’t put my scarf’. After putting sunglasses while saying so, the teacher turns to the class and asks ‘What else can I put?’. When a student points to a certain item, the teacher says the name of it in English and puts it into the bag until nothing to be used on summer a holiday is left out on the table. If a student points to a clothing item usable in winter, the teacher says, for example, ‘A scarf? In Bodrum? No! What else?’ and turns to another student.

- Then the teacher makes pairs and distributes clothing item pictures including the English name of that clothing item. After making the students repeat the clothing items, she shows the pictures of summer and winter to the class and makes students repeat each of them after her many times. She sticks them on the board and after repeating them she makes students stick the picture they have under the correct season.
- The teacher tells the students to write any five of the clothing items to their notebooks. While they are copying them, the teacher tells the students that they are going to play ‘Bingo’ game. The teacher takes another pack out of her bag including slips of papers on which all the clothing items on the board are written. She pulls a slip randomly and reads it to the class. She goes on pulling and reading till somebody shouts ‘Bingo!’ when all the words in his/ her notebook are pronounced. The winner is applauded.

## LESSON PLAN 2- BLENDED INSTRUCTION

<b>Teacher</b>	: Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
<b>Time</b>	: 40 minutes
<b>Size</b>	: 40 Students
<b>Age-Level</b>	: 10/11-Beginner
<b>Class</b>	: 4- A
<b>Course</b>	: English-Vocabulary
<b>Lesson</b>	: My Clothes
<b>Language Point</b>	: Telling the names of clothing items (skirt, trousers, jumper, T-shirt, coat, dress, boots, shoes, scarf, and sunglasses) and making simple sentences with these words.
<b>Objectives</b>	: To enable students to identify clothing items and use them in the correct place and manner.
<b>Teaching aids</b>	: Computer and a projector, PPS about the story, Handouts, ‘The Best Styler’ cup, Picture Cards of picture sequence of the story, Card suitcases and flashcard photocopies.
<b>Feedback</b>	: To check students’ own re-formed suitcases without metalanguage but with recasts without emphasizing just the correct form of the words.

### PROCEDURE

#### Task Cycle

#### Task

- The teacher explains the students that they are going to watch a movie of a girl named Sheila and her adventure of packing up a suitcase for a summer holiday. A PPS with pictures and the written form of the story is shown to them once while the teacher is pronouncing it. Every time the teacher pronounces clothing item she shows that clothing item on the board and makes the students repeat.

- The teacher makes groups of four and distributes the handouts to the groups. One handout includes clothing item pictures and the other the photo of Sheila.
- The teacher tells the groups that they are going to cut the clothing items out from the first handout and stick them to the second.

### **Planning**

- The teacher tells the students that in their group they are going to have a style designer to decide which clothes Sheila should be wearing, a cutter, a sticker, and a spokesperson or a group leader to report why they have chosen the certain clothing items.
- Students decide which role to take over and begin creating their own Sheila.

### **Report**

- The spokespersons from each group stand up and introduce their Sheila by making 'because' sentences.
- Groups vote each other secretly and the group which has the big point wins and takes the cup 'The Best Styler'.

### **Language Focus and Feedback**

- Tell them that they are going to play another game in the same groups.
- In the game 'Making Sheila's Suitcase', the PPS is shown once again to the students showing Sheila making her suitcase by saying all her clothing items. The teacher distributes card suitcases to each group. The teacher tells them to write down all the clothing items they remember, and put them in the correct order Sheila does in the suitcase.

- A pile of colorful clothing item flashcard photocopies with the English names on them are poured onto the table and leaders become runners from each group. In time given the runners are supposed to find out what Sheila put into her suitcase and place it in the card suitcases of their groups in the correct place.
  
- At the end, the suitcases of two groups are compared and PPS is shown once again. The group which is closer wins. After the game is over, the teacher repeats all the clothing items and gives another handout as homework.

### LESSON PLAN 3- BLENDED INSTRUCTION

<b>Teacher</b>	: Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
<b>Size</b>	: 40 Students
<b>Age-Level</b>	: 10/11-Beginner
<b>Class</b>	: 4- A
<b>Course</b>	: English-Vocabulary
<b>Lesson</b>	: My Clothes
<b>Language Point</b>	: Telling the names of clothing items (blouse, pants, shirt, trainers, cap, hat, beret, tie, gloves, socks) and making simple sentences with these words.
<b>Objectives</b>	: To enable students to identify clothing items and use them in the correct place and manner.
<b>Teaching aids</b>	: A calendar, A pack full of clothing items (such as blouses, pants, shirts, trainers, caps, hats, berets, ties, gloves, socks), four gift packs, fly word cards, two swatters.
<b>Feedback</b>	: To check students' re-formed words and sentences with metalanguage and with recasts by emphasizing the correct form and the meaning of the words.

### PROCEDURE

#### Pre-task Activity

- The teacher comes to the classroom and greets the class. She brings a calendar with her and shows that the New Year 2012 comes after December. She empties the pack she has with her which is full of real clothing items and tells the class that she has got lots of presents for her family. She says “Look! I have got a lot of presents (while showing a gift pack) for my family. They are my new year presents.” Then she pretends that she has got a kind of problem about packing them up. She puts four gift packs with photos of her family members on the table and begins showing the clothing items from the pack one by one while saying sentences like

“This is a hat. Oh yes! This is for my father! This is a cap. A cap? This is for my brother.” If students complete the sentences with the correct or possible family member, the teacher says “Yes! You’re right! These gloves are good for my sister” to encourage them to participate. This goes until nothing is left out in the pack.

- Then the teacher takes out all the clothing items from the boxes by pronouncing one by one and by making the students repeat them after her. She draws that clothing item on the board and sticks the fly including the name of the item near the picture. She repeats all the clothes all over again at the end. Then she divides the class into two groups and chooses a volunteer from each group. She closes the words, gives swatters to each volunteer. The volunteers go to the back of the class. When the teacher pronounces a clothing item, the volunteers run and try to swat first on the word. The student swatting the most clothing items wins the game. Then the teacher distributes a handout including a matching exercise of clothing item names and the pictures of them. Then the students give the answers while the teacher is correcting possible meaning and pronunciation mistakes.

### **LESSON PLAN 4- BLENDED INSTRUCTION**

<b>Teacher</b>	: Meryem Özge Akel Oğuz
<b>Size</b>	: 40 Students
<b>Age-Level</b>	: 10/11-Beginner
<b>Class</b>	: 4- A
<b>Course</b>	: English-Vocabulary
<b>Lesson</b>	: My Clothes
<b>Language Point</b>	: Telling the names of clothing items (blouse, pants, shirt, trainers, cap, hat, beret, tie, gloves, socks) and making simple sentences with these words.
<b>Objectives</b>	: To enable students to identify clothing items and use them in the correct place and manner.
<b>Teaching aids</b>	: A PPS about the story, Handouts, Pieces of clothes, Scissors, a Stapler, Shopping Magazines, Shopping magazine cover page, An example shopping magazine page.
<b>Feedback</b>	: To check students' gift pack handouts with metalanguage and with recasts by emphasizing the correct form and the meaning of the words.

### **PROCEDURE**

#### **Task Cycle**

#### **Task**

- The teacher explains the students that they are going to watch another movie of Sheila and her adventure of going to a shopping centre for buying New Year presents for her family members While saying so, she shows the pictures of shopping centre and present. A PPS with pictures and the written form of the story is shown to them once while the teacher is pronouncing it.
  
- The teacher tells the students that they are going to prepare a New Year Shopping Magazine including clothing items and their prices. She makes

groups of four and distributes handouts including boy and girl paper dolls to the groups. Then she distributes colorful pieces of clothes and scissors. She tells the class to make clothes for these figures by cutting out these pieces of clothes and sticking them onto the page. She distributes a price list and shows an example page she has prepared before.

### **Planning**

- The teacher tells the students that in their group they are going to have a style designer to decide which clothes the stick figure should be wearing, a cutter, a sticker, and a spokesperson or a group leader to report why they have chosen the certain clothing items.
  
- Students decide which role to take over and begin creating their own fashion figures.

### **Report**

- The spokespersons from each group stand up and introduce their figure by making sentences like “This is a girl. She loves dancing. She has got a dress, a hat, and shoes.” or “This is a man. He loves sports. He has got a cap, a blouse, pants, and trainers.”
  
- The teacher shows fashion magazines to the class and says “Look these are fashion magazines. You make one in class.” She collects pages from the groups and staples them together with a cover page she has prepared before and finally forms the New Year Shopping Magazine of the class.

### **Language Focus and Feedback**

- The teacher tells the students that they are going to play another game in the same groups.
  
- Before the game, the PPS is shown just once to the students showing Sheila at New Year shopping to buy presents for her family. The teacher



distributes a handout to each group. The teacher tells them to correct the mistakes, if there is, about the presents of Sheila for a certain family member by looking at the picture given in the handout.

- At the end, all the answers are repeated. The handouts of the groups are compared and PPS is shown once again to check the correctness. Meanwhile the teacher corrects pronunciation and meaning mistakes by emphasizing and giving recasts. The group which is closer is applauded.

### Appendix 3. Official Permission of the Republic of Turkey Ministry of National Education

T.C.  
İZMİR VALİLİĞİ  
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

02 Ocak 2012

Sayı : B.08.4.MEM.0.35.20.00.604.01/139  
Konu : M.Özge AKEL OĞUZ 'un  
Araştırma İzni


DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİNE  
(Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü)

- İlgi: a) 28/02/2007 tarihli ve B.08.4.EGD.0.33.03.311-311/1084 sayılı Makam Onayı.  
b) Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü'nün 19/12/2011 tarihli ve 2443 sayılı yazısı.  
c) Valilik Makamı'nın 29/12/2011 tarihli ve 83729 sayılı Makam Onayı.

Üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi ABD İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Meryem Özge AKEL OĞUZ 'un "Dolaylı, Doğrudan ve Karma Öğretim Yöntemleriyle Kelime Öğretiminin Dördüncü Sınıf Öğrencileri Üzerindeki Etkileri (The Effects of Implicit, Explicit and Blended Type of Vocabulary Instruction on the Fourth Graders)" konulu tez çalışması için kullanacağı öççekleri, Buca ilçesi Çamlıkule İlköğretim Okulunun 4. sınıf öğrencilerine uygulanması Valilik Makamının ilgi (c) onayı ile uygun görülmüştür.

Araştırmacı tarafından yapılan araştırmanın tamamlanmasından itibaren en geç iki hafta içinde, ilgi (a) Makam Onayı ile yürürlüğe giren Yönerge kapsamında "Araştırmanın Teslimine İlişkin Taahhütname Tutanağı" doldurularak araştırmanın iki örneğinin CD'ye aktarılması Müdürlüğümüze gönderilmesi gerekmektedir.

Gereğini ve bilgilerinizi rica ederim.

  
Abdullah Reha KARASU  
Vali a.  
Şube Müdürü

<b>GELEN EVRAK</b>	
Tarihi :	06 OCAK 2012
Evraç No :	54
Evraç No :	

#### EKLER:

- 1) Valilik Onayı (1 Sayfa)
- 2) Araştırma Değerlendirme Formu (1 Sayfa)
- 3) Onaylı Veri Araçları (1 Adet 29 Sayfa)
- 4) Araştırma Tamamlandıktan Sonra, Araştırmanın Teslimine İlişkin Taahhütname Tutanağı (1 Sayfa)



35268 Konak / İZMİR  
Telefon : (0 232) 477 21 28  
Faks :  
E-Posta : arge35@meb.gov.tr



T.C.  
İZMİR VALİLİĞİ  
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : B.08.4.MEM.0.35.20.00-020/  
Konu : M.Özge AKEL OĞUZ 'un  
Araştırma İzni

85729

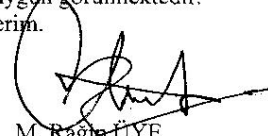
29 Aralık 2011

VALİLİK MAKAMINA  
İZMİR

İlgi: a) 28/02/2007 tarihli ve B.08.4.EDG.0.33.03.311/1084 sayılı Makam Onayı.  
b) Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü'nün 19/12/2011 tarihli ve 2445 sayılı yazısı.

Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi ABD İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Meryem Özge AKEL OĞUZ 'un "**Dolaylı, Doğrudan ve Karma Öğretim Yöntemleriyle Kelime Öğretiminin Dördüncü Sınıf Öğrencileri Üzerindeki Etkileri (The Effects of Implicit, Explicit and Blended Type of Vocabulary Instruction on the Fourth Graders)**" konulu tez çalışması için kullanacağı ölçekleri, Buca ilçesi Çamlıkule İlköğretim Okulunun 4. sınıf öğrencilerine uygulamak istediği belirtilmektedir.

Söz konusu ölçeklerin (geçerlik-güvenilirlik) uygulamasının, yukarıda adı geçen okullarda, 2011-2012 eğitim-öğretim yılında, eğitim öğretimi aksatmadan yapılması, araştırma sonucunun bir örneğinin Müdürlüğümüze verilmesi kaydıyla uygun görülmektedir. Makamlarımızca da uygun görüldüğü takdirde olurlarınızı arz ederim.

  
M. Rağıp ÜYE  
Müdür

OLUR

29.../12/2011  
İbrahim BAĞLI  
Vali a.  
Vali Yardımcısı

EK:  
Araştırma Değerlendirme Formu(1 Sayfa)


T.C.  
İZMİR VALİLİĞİ  
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

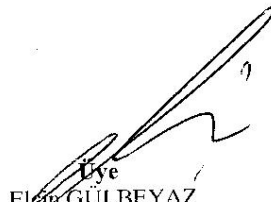
**ARAŞTIRMA DEĞERLENDİRME FORMU**

ARAŞTIRMA SAHİBİNİN	
Adı Soyadı	Meryem Özge AKEL OĞUZ
Kurumu / Üniversitesi	Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi
Araştırma yapılacak iller	İzmir
Araştırma yapılacak eğitim kurumu ve kademesi	Buca ilçesi Çamlıkule İlköğretim Okulunun 4. sınıf öğrencileri
Araştırmanın konusu	Dolaylı, Doğrudan ve Karma Öğretim Yöntemleriyle Kelime Öğretiminin Dördüncü Sınıf Öğrencileri Üzerindeki Etkileri (The Effects of Implicit, Explicit and Blended Type of Vocabulary Instruction on the Fourth Graders)
Üniversite / Kurum onayı	Var
Araştırma/proje/ödev/tez önerisi	Dolaylı, Doğrudan ve Karma Öğretim Yöntemleriyle Kelime Öğretiminin Dördüncü Sınıf Öğrencileri Üzerindeki Etkileri (The Effects of Implicit, Explicit and Blended Type of Vocabulary Instruction on the Fourth Graders)
Veri toplama araçları	Ön-Son-Kalıcılık Testi (geçerlik-güvenilirlik çalışması), Ders Planları
Görüş istenilecek Birim/Birimler	-----
KOMİSYON GÖRÜŞÜ	
<p><b>İlgi:</b> Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı'nın 28/02/2007 tarihli ve 1084 sayılı Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı'na Bağlı Okul ve Kurumlarda Yapılacak Araştırma ve Araştırma Desteğine Yönelik İzin ve Uygulama Yönergesi.</p> <p>Yönergenin 5. maddesi gereğince; araştırma başvurusu olması gereken nitelikler açısından incelenmiş olup, araştırmanın 2011-2012 öğretim yılında eğitim öğretimi aksatmayacak şekilde, ses kayıt cihazı vb. araçlar kullanılacak ise okul idaresi, ders öğretmeni ve öğrenci velilerinden izin alınması koşulu ile yapılmasına oybirliği ile karar verilmiştir.</p>	
Komisyon kararı	Oybirliği ile alınmıştır.
Muhalef üyenin Adı ve Soyadı: -----	Gerekçesi: -----

  
 Komisyon Başkanı  
 Abdullah Rıza KARASU  
 Sube Müdürü

**KOMİSYON**

  
 Üye  
 Dr. Sevtap YAZAR  
 Öğretmen

  
 Üye  
 Elan GÜLBAYAZ  
 Öğretmen