Elementary School EFL Learners’ Vocabulary Learning: The Effects of Post-Reading Activities

Derin Atay
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Abstract: As language learning involves the acquisition of thousands of words, teachers and learners alike would like to know how vocabulary learning can be fostered, especially in EFL settings where learners frequently acquire impoverished lexicons, despite years of formal study. Research indicates that reading is important but not sufficient for second-language vocabulary learning, and that it should be supplemented by post-reading activities to enhance students’ vocabulary knowledge. The present study investigates the effects of two types of post-reading activities: discrete written tasks on their own and a combination of written tasks along with interactive tasks on the vocabulary acquisition of young learners in an EFL setting. A total of 62 Grade 6 students in two classes in a public school in Turkey participated in the study. Data were collected by the Cambridge English Test (CYLET) and Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS). Results showed that the experimental group students outperformed the control group students in acquisition of both selected and unselected vocabulary items. The use of interactive tasks as post-reading activities proved to be an effective way of enhancing the L2 vocabulary knowledge of young learners.

Résumé : Apprendre une langue nécessite d’assimiler des milliers de mots. C’est pourquoi les enseignants et leurs étudiants voudraient savoir comment faciliter l’apprentissage du vocabulaire, tout particulièrement dans le contexte de l’enseignement de l’anglais, langue seconde, dans lequel les apprenants n’acquièrent souvent qu’un lexique limité, même après plusieurs années d’études. Les recherches ont montré que la lecture joue un rôle important, mais insuffisant pour maîtriser le vocabulaire d’une langue seconde. Les lectures doivent être suivies d’activités supplémentaires visant à améliorer les connaissances en vocabulaire. L’article porte sur les effets de deux types d’activités après lecture sur l’acquisition du vocabulaire chez de jeunes apprenants de l’anglais, langue seconde : des activités individuelles de rédaction et des activités de rédaction associées à des exercices interactifs. Au total,
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Introduction

The increasing body of L2 research literature on vocabulary learning and teaching in recent years clearly demonstrates the significance of vocabulary knowledge, both as part of L2 proficiency and as a basis for further L2 learning. However, there is mounting evidence that many learners, particularly in EFL contexts (Hunt & Beglar, 2005), are not developing their lexicons to levels that would permit them to communicate, read, or write adequately in English, despite years of formal study (Barrow, Nakanishi, & Ishino, 1999; Nurweni & Read, 1999). Thus, investigating the effectiveness of various types of vocabulary learning methods as well as instructional techniques has been of considerable value to L2 research and pedagogy.

Theoretical framework

Although incidental learning via guessing from context is known to be the most important source of L1 vocabulary expansion beyond the first few thousand words in common oral usage (Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985; Nation & Coady, 1988), studies on the relationship between L2 reading practice and vocabulary gains have reported that ‘getting students to read’ is not sufficient for L2 vocabulary learning (Laufer, 1997; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Meara, 1997). Second/foreign language learners in a variety of contexts were found to acquire few words through reading and guessing, even when these words were presented several times (Day, Omura, & Hiramatsu, 1991; Dupuy & Krashen, 1993; Pitts, White, & Krashen, 1989).

It appears from research that if systematic development of vocabulary is desired, reading should be enhanced through instructional intervention, especially in instructed foreign language contexts (Elley, 1989; Ellis, 1994; Hulstijn, 1992; Nation & Waring, 1997; Schmidt &
McCarthy, 1997; Stoller & Grabe, 1993; Zimmerman, 1997). Given the limitations of decontextualized vocabulary instruction, the question for L2 pedagogy in the last decades has been on investigating ways to enhance L2 vocabulary acquisition through instructional intervention. For example, the presence of marginal glosses was found to enhance vocabulary retention when compared to the absence of marginal glosses (Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus, 1996; Watanabe, 1997). Paribakht and Wesche (1997) compared learners in a reading-only condition with learners in a reading-plus condition in which the students were asked to read the selected texts and carry out vocabulary exercises. The results indicated that the reading-plus vocabulary treatment led to greater gains in target vocabulary knowledge than the reading-only treatment. The results were consistent with those of Hulstijn (2001) in that word learning through reading was enhanced by making the words salient, which pedagogically helped learners understand and retain the target words better, not only because of multiple exposures to given words, but also because of cognitive ‘elaboration’ of form-meaning relationships through association-making and other mental activity. Finally, Laufer (2003) in a study with EFL students compared vocabulary gains from reading with gains from productive word-focused tasks, (i.e., sentence completion, sentence writing, and composition writing). The results of the study showed that if a word is practised in a productive word-focused task, its meaning has a better chance to be remembered than if the word is encountered in a text, even when it is noticed and looked up in a dictionary.

A review of literature has shown that the studies comparing the effects of reading only with those of reading along with vocabulary activities were done only with adolescent and adult learners. On the other hand, a number of studies carried out with L1 children have identified limited vocabulary as an important factor in the underachievement of children (Biemiller, 2004; Chall, 1983; Chall, Jacobs, & Balsdwin, 1990; Hart & Risley, 2003; White, Grace, & Slater, 1990). Children with larger vocabulary found reading easier, read more widely, and did better in schools (Dickinson & Tabors, 2001). Conversely, children who had limited vocabulary found reading difficult, resisted reading, learned fewer words, and consequently fell further behind (Dickinson, McCabe, Anastasopoulos, Peisner-Feinberg, & Poe, 2003; Stanovich, 1986).

On the basis of these findings, it seems likely that limited L2 vocabulary would affect the elementary school EFL learners in carrying out the basic skills in English. Given the importance of vocabulary to oral and written language comprehension, it is astounding that there
have been very few experimental studies on English vocabulary learning among elementary school children. In these studies, language minority children were provided with instruction consisting of a variety of strategies that had been effective with English-only learners (Beck & McKewon, 2001; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002; Beck, McKeown, & Omanson, 1987; Beck, Perfetti, & McKeown, 1982; Craik & Tulving, 1975; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986; Stahl & Clark, 1987; Stahl, 1999). These strategies included providing definitional and contextual information about each word’s meaning, actively involving students in word learning through talking about, comparing, analyzing, and using the target words, providing multiple exposures to meaningful information about each word, and teaching word analysis.

The present study aims to expand current knowledge on foreign-language vocabulary learning and to compare the effects of two types of post-reading activities on the vocabulary knowledge of beginner-level young EFL learners in Turkey. The main research question addressed was whether reading comprehension plus interactive tasks led to more effective acquisition of selected and unselected vocabulary items than did an equal amount of learning time spent on reading comprehension plus discrete written vocabulary exercises.

Before discussing the methodology of this study, brief information about the Turkish context will be provided.

Teaching English to young learners: The Turkish situation

Political, economic, and cultural needs, and technological and economic changes in the world have influenced foreign language education in Turkey, as in many other countries in the world. Starting from the 1960s, when international ties were being established, Turkey started to feel an increasing need to keep up with the rapidly globalizing world in foreign language proficiency. After the 1980s, the acquisition of English was also ‘aided by the language-in-education-planning’ (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998, p. 28). Since then, English has become the sine qua non for a successful career in virtually any field, and consequently an integral component of national education at all levels.

In the last decade the Turkish educational system has undergone significant changes. The passage of a law in 1997 introduced the new eight-year compulsory education system, and as a result of the government’s wish to equip its citizens with improved foreign language proficiency, it became obligatory for public primary school students to start studying a foreign language, generally English, from the fourth grade on. In 2000, foreign language education at the level of kindergarten and
in the first three grades of primary education was officially permitted by
the Ministry of Education.  

According to the regulations, English is taught two hours a week in
Grades 4 and 5, and four hours a week in Grades 6, 7, and 8. English in
public schools is generally taught by native speakers of Turkish, and the
course books used are published by the Ministry of Education. The class
size ranges from 35 to 60. In private elementary schools, however, the
situation is totally different. English is taught as an ‘extracurricular
activity’ for three to four periods per week from Grade 1 to make
children familiar with the English sound system, and in Grades 2 and 3
some vocabulary development is customary. Formal instruction begins
in the Grade 4 with eight to ten periods a week.

Besides the diversity in the number of hours dedicated to English
language education, there is also a discrepancy in instructional methods
and materials used. Typical foreign language instruction in public
schools consists mostly of rote memorization of vocabulary, and written
grammar exercises. Classes are predominantly teacher-centred, and
students are usually asked to read passages from the course books and
underline and look up the new words in a dictionary. Learning
vocabulary by using traditional mnemonic techniques such as writing
words repeatedly or mouthing them are highly popular. The words
studied are mostly the ones that occur in a given text; oral communica-
tion in English is very limited. Thus, although there have not been any
formal evaluation studies, it is a well-known fact that public primary
school students have poor lexicons, despite years of formal study.

Method

Participants and setting

The participants in this study were 62 Grade 6 students in two classes in
a public school in Istanbul, Turkey. The two classes were compared in
students’ first-term English achievement test scores, and the t-test
applied to the achievement scores did not show any difference between
the groups (p < .545). Thus, it was concluded that the groups, randomly
assigned to control and experimental conditions, with 32 and 30 stu-
dents respectively, were similar in their English proficiency.

The students were all native speakers of Turkish with an average age
of 11. They were all from low-income families, none of them had ever
been to an English-speaking country, and all had very few opportunities
to use English for communicative purposes outside the classroom. They
all had English in Grades 4 and 5 for two hours a week and as Grade 6
students they had English for four hours a week. In response to a question directed to all students at the beginning of the study ‘Do you want to express your ideas in English?’ all indicated they wanted to speak English but could not. Many of them noted that they wanted to ‘chat in English, read English comics, and understand English movies/songs’ but did not know ‘sufficient’ English words.

The English teacher of both classes was a Turkish native speaker with a five years of teaching experience. She had graduated from the ELT department of a state university in Istanbul.

Data collection and analysis

Data for the present study were collected by the Cambridge Young Learners English Test (CYLET) developed by the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (2002) and by Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) adapted from Paribakht and Wesche (1997).

Both instruments, the CYLET and VKS, were piloted with a different class of Grade 6, and were given to participants as pre-tests and post-tests. Both instruments had good internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha coefficient reported of .81 and .84, respectively.

The CYLET aims to test the English level of learners between the ages of 7 and 12, and consists of three levels of assessment: Starters, Movers, and Flyers. At the beginning of the study, it seemed more appropriate to use Movers, considering the amount of time learners had spent on learning English (approximately two and a half years). Yet during our observations and the pilot study we realized that the students’ level of English was rather low, and most of the vocabulary and structures in Movers were unknown to them. Thus we decided to use Starters. For the purposes of the present study, only the reading/writing section, assessing the receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge of learners, was used.

The reading/writing section of Starters has five parts with five questions each. The first part aims to assess the receptive vocabulary knowledge of the students: There are five statements, each accompanied by a picture, and the student has to place a tick in a box if the statement describes the picture and a cross if it does not. In the second part, students are given a picture and a set of related statements, some of which are correct and some of which are not. Students only write ‘yes’ or ‘no’ as appropriate. In the third part, productive vocabulary knowledge is tested in a limited way. Students are given five pictures, accompanied by the name of the object in jumbled letters, and asked to put the
letters in order. In the fourth part, students read a short text of one paragraph with blanks. For each blank a picture is given and students are asked to supply the missing words by using the picture as a clue. In the last part, there are three pictures making up a story with five related questions, each of which requires a one-word answer. The scoring of the CYLET was carried out according to the scoring criteria suggested by University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate. In the present study CYLET was used to assess students’ knowledge of ‘unselected’ words. We used the term *unselected* because the vocabulary in the CYLET was not related to the vocabulary in the course book of the students.

The VKS adapted from Paribakht and Wesche (1997) was designed to assess students’ receptive and productive knowledge of selected target vocabulary; that is, how many of the target vocabulary items they were familiar with, and how accurately they could use a word in a sentence. The aim of the VKS was to elicit self-perceived and demonstrated vocabulary knowledge of learners in written form. The elicitation scale was originally a six-point scale, yet, as this study was carried out with young learners, the scale was modified and a two-point scale was used, as illustrated in Figure 1.

As can be seen, the self-report category A represented unfamiliarity with a word, while self-report category B represented knowledge of a word. If students chose category B for a word, they were asked to demonstrate this knowledge by writing its meaning in Turkish or in English and using it in a sentence in English.

The VKS consisted of 25 target vocabulary items, which were randomly selected from the students’ course book (see Appendix A for sample words). For the scoring of student responses, the scoring scale of Paribakht & Wesche (1997) was adapted (see Appendix B).

The student responses in CYLET and VKS were evaluated by both researchers separately and the inter-rater reliability was found to be 0.85 and 0.81 respectively.

**FIGURE 1**
Elicitation scale (adapted from Paribakht & Wesche, 1997)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-report categories</th>
<th>A: I do not know the word</th>
<th>B: I know the word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meaning:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An independent samples *t*-test was applied to the data obtained from the CYLET and the VKS before and after the study, and the significance level for both *t*-tests was set at *p* < .05.

**Procedure**

The study took place in the second term of the 2004–2005 academic year and lasted six weeks. During the first term we observed and video-recorded several regular EFL English classes in three different public primary schools in order to determine the ways primary school students were learning English vocabulary. Two weeks before the study we conducted a pilot study with the post-reading tasks we had prepared for vocabulary teaching with a different Grade 6 class, and we modified our design of instructional treatment.

In the first week of the term, both classes were given CYLET and the VKS as the pre-test on different days. To make the students in the experimental group familiar with the interactive tasks, the teacher gave all instructions in Turkish and modelled similar tasks to students who then practised them in groups for one week. The six-week vocabulary instruction in both groups started after the orientation week. One week following the instructional treatments, the same CYLET and VKS with the parts/words in a different order were given to the groups as the post-test.

**Regular instruction in both groups**

The course book used in English lessons was *Quick Step* (Genç, Oruç, & Şeremet, 2003). In each unit a different topic – football, spring, office machines, animals – was introduced by a dialogue in which target words to be learned were presented in context, yet in a highly restricted language. After the students read the dialogue aloud in class, the teacher taught each target word explicitly and wrote it with the Turkish equivalent on the board, and the students copied the definition and the sentence with the relevant word from the dialogue into their notebooks. Following the comprehension and T/F questions, the teacher first presented the relevant grammar rule explicitly on the board, generally in Turkish, and then distributed worksheets of grammar exercises such as gap filling and transformation exercises. The answers were then checked as a whole class. For vocabulary, students were given discrete written vocabulary tasks, such as providing the equivalent of the target
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word in L1, matching the target word with a definition or synonym, and fill-in-the-blanks exercises with sentences mostly taken from the text. Two hours were spent on these exercises.

**Instructional treatments**

In addition to the dialogue given in the course book, students in both classes were given a three or four-paragraph text thematically related to the dialogue in the course book (see Appendix C for a sample text; see Table 1 for the differences and similarities between groups in terms of instruction). For example, in the unit on animals, the extra text given was ‘My Pets.’ Students in the control group followed the procedure of regular instruction with the reading text: after reading the text, they went over the target words and did discrete written vocabulary tasks as post-reading activities similar to the ones mentioned.

Students in the experimental group, on the other hand, were asked to work in groups of three or four. Each student in the group was given a picture related to one paragraph of the text that he or she was to read. After each student read his or her part, the teacher collected the texts and gave each student a card with the key words of the paragraph. To make the jigsaw task easier for the children, some words were given on the picture in the first three weeks. Typically students worked through the cards sequentially, or told each other what their pictures contained and tried to use the given words. Each student was responsible for repeating and/or clarifying any points not understood by the rest. When asking questions or giving equivalents, students in general shifted to Turkish. When retelling was over, students wrote the story together. During this information exchange, the teacher monitored the groups and helped them with vocabulary when necessary. Then, asking students randomly, the teacher went over the whole text, particularly guiding them to use the target words – words they had learned in that specific unit. When students needed to use a different form of the target word, the teacher provided it and wrote a sentence with the new form on the board.

If they had time at the end of the lesson, they did one of the following tasks in class or were assigned as homework: drawing a relevant picture together or writing a poem on the topic and sharing it with the rest, writing questions to ask to other groups, or sharing their own experiences on the relevant topic. While monitoring these activities, the teacher looked for use of the target vocabulary as much as possible.
TABLE 1

Task similarities and differences between groups for a one-week period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Control group</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Week 1: 2 hours</td>
<td>Dialogue in the course book</td>
<td>Dialogue in the course book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ discrete written tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td>+ discrete written tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 1: 2 hours</td>
<td>Thematically related text</td>
<td>Thematically related text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual reading</td>
<td></td>
<td>Group work – each student reads one paragraph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-reading tasks: discrete written tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-reading tasks: interactive tasks in groups and whole class</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Instruction was the same for all six weeks.

Results

To find whether there were differences between the experimental and control groups in their unselected vocabulary knowledge at the end of the study, an independent t-test was applied to both groups’ gain scores in the CYLET test. As can be seen in Table 2, there was a significant difference between the groups in their gain scores in unselected vocabulary items.

The groups were also compared in their selected vocabulary gain scores on the VKS at the end of the study. The results presented in Table 3 show that the gain score of the experimental group was significantly higher than that of the control group.

Discussion

The present study aimed to find out the effects of two types of post-reading activities on the vocabulary knowledge of beginner-level Turkish young EFL learners. Results of the study have shown that the experimental group students who carried out reading comprehension and interactive tasks as post-reading activities for six weeks outperformed the students in the control group who did reading as well as written vocabulary tasks in acquisition of selected and unselected vocabulary items.

The conceptual framework of this study is bounded by previous research in the social context of learning, reciprocal teaching, and communicative activities. Several researchers (Brown, 1992; Brown & Campione, 1990; Vygotsky, 1978) maintained that socially interactive learning is critical to learning and cognitive development. In the present study we tried to create an interactive environment through tasks and group work. Students worked together to accomplish a set task and
TABLE 2
Differences between groups in their CYLET gain scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>M*</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>79.01</td>
<td>9.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n = 30)</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>88.88</td>
<td>9.98</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>81.08</td>
<td>8.40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n = 32)</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>83.67</td>
<td>8.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Total scores are out of 100.

TABLE 3
Differences between the groups in their vocabulary gain scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>M*</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>38.80</td>
<td>18.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n = 30)</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>52.37</td>
<td>31.59</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>39.52</td>
<td>18.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n = 32)</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>44.10</td>
<td>20.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Total scores are out of 100.

were encouraged to ask questions of each other. In contrast to a traditional instructor-led environment, here the instructor observed the interactions of the groups and provided them with scaffolding when necessary.

Jigsaw activities based on reciprocal teaching techniques were used in several studies with the aim of strengthening the reading skills among poor readers of English (Palincsar & Brown, 1984; 1988) who were trained to use four metacognitive strategies necessary for reciprocal teaching. Results revealed that the reciprocal students scored higher on comprehension monitoring tests, and the success was attributed to not only the strategies involved but also the interaction of the students in cooperative learning. Other research has also shown reciprocal teaching to be beneficial in contexts beyond the building of reading skills in English (King & Parent Johnson, 1999; Webb, 1989). In the present study, the act of verbalization and exchanging information was a key component of group work. Students who were used to developing understanding of class material by reading the course book were asked to explain their part of the story to other students. The jigsaw task allowed them to combine the parts for which they were responsible with parts from other students to construct a complete body of knowledge that all could share. Thus, during this reciprocal teaching, each student became the teacher and the distributor of knowledge. Confirming the results of
studies on reciprocal teaching (Donaldson & Kötter, 1999; King & Parent
Johnson), the reciprocal pattern of teaching and learning in this study
seemed to promote students’ collaborative relationship in constructing
meanings together, thus positively affecting their productive use of
vocabulary.

Studies carried out to investigate the attitudinal and motivational
characteristics of young learners (Djigunovic, 1995; Nikolov, 1999)
revealed that young learners were most strongly motivated by class-
room practice rather than integrative or instrumental reasons. In the
present study a number of characteristics of the tasks seemed to
motivate the learners to learn. To begin, acquisition of the ability to
speak the language is generally regarded as the primary expectation in
English classes. However, teacher to student-led directives in English –
the prevalent pattern of interaction in Turkish elementary classes – do
not constitute true communication any more than student to teacher
exchanges of brief, one-word answers or patterned responses. Such
exercises fail for lack of reciprocity – recognized in the early 1900s by
Kafka, who called it the ‘social interdependence perspective’ (Johnson
& Johnson, 1994). As later defined by Lewin, this social interdependence
is the essence of making the group a dynamic whole. Confirming the
results of other research (Dörnyei, 1997; Kessler, 1992), the present study
has shown that interdependency and collaboration among group
members substantially enhanced the motivation of learners contributing
to learners’ vocabulary knowledge. Moreover, the use of thematically
related texts, word cards, and pictures may have positively affected the
learners. Finally, the teacher played a significant role in motivating the
learners. She acted as an educational facilitator and social mediator,
providing encouragement for participants. Responding promptly to the
students’ questions and requests for help in vocabulary also made them
feel that the teacher supported them in the task.

Conclusion

To conclude, teaching English to young learners is a recent issue in
Turkey, and the conditions for effective language learning in public
schools are not fully established. Among other factors, course books
with mostly discrete written grammar and vocabulary exercises in a
restricted language, and students not being provided with sufficient
opportunities for classroom interaction to develop their basic skills can
be considered as the most important factors underlying this failure. As
was seen in the present study, after having two and a half years of
English for four to six hours a week, students could not cope with the

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The vocabulary of the Movers – the second level of the Cambridge Young Learners Test.

The findings of the study have implications for young-learner English instruction, especially in the EFL contexts where teaching and learning conditions are less than ideal. The findings of the present study have revealed that interactive tasks as post-reading activities are an effective way of enhancing L2 vocabulary knowledge of young learners. This type of post-reading task can be carried out in young-learner classes as an alternative to traditional discrete written vocabulary tasks.

Moreover, observations carried out during the study have indicated that interactive tasks were much more appealing to the needs and interests of young learners than written vocabulary exercises. In that respect, teachers of English working in the primary schools should be provided with in-service programs on the pedagogy for language teaching in primary education, and this training should be substantial and ongoing.

Finally, one of the aims of language learning is to gain critical literacy that is more than reading and writing and is inherently social and cultural (Gee, 1996; 2000). That is, the aim is that children are able to understand and communicate not only in their own native language but also in the language they are learning. Interactive tasks based on developing learners’ lexicon may be considered as an important step to reach that aim.

The study has its limitations too. First, it is difficult to draw strong generalizations from the limited number of learners. Further research with a greater number of EFL learners in various contexts and in classes of different proficiency levels is needed to find the probable effects of free-production tasks on young learners’ L2 vocabulary learning. Second, the small number of students was an important factor in making classroom activities possible (e.g., retelling in small groups); thus, the model may need certain modifications in large classes.

The studies referred to in the introduction section of this article focused on the impact(s) of different activities (e.g., productive tasks, dictionary use, glossing) on vocabulary learning in comparison to reading only. To put it another way, they did not address the question of how different types of post-reading activities may affect vocabulary learning. However, the present study has aimed to determine the contribution(s) of two types of post-reading activities to vocabulary learning. In conclusion, in spite of its limitations it has been beneficial in underscoring the crucial importance of free-production tasks in enhancing vocabulary knowledge of students as well as significantly improving their ability to put it into practice.

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Notes
1 Intensive English instruction has been provided in private schools for decades, and generally starts at the level of kindergarten.
2 For these levels, English instruction is optional.
3 Quick Step 2 was published and suggested by the Turkish Ministry of Education.
4 The texts were chosen by the researchers and teacher together.

References


### Appendix A

**Sample words from the vocabulary checklist**

For each word below, select A (I do not know the word) or B (I know the word). If you select choice B, you are expected to write the meaning of the word in Turkish or in English and to use this word in an English sentence.

1. **Bicycle**  
   A (     ) B (     )  
   Meaning (L1/L2): .................................................................  
   Sentence: ........................................................................

2. **Cook**  
   A (     ) B (     )  
   Meaning (L1/L2): .................................................................  
   Sentence: ........................................................................

### Appendix B

**Scoring of the vocabulary checklist**  
(adapted from Paribakht & Wesche, 1997)

A student receives a score of 1 if she or he chooses category A. As for the self-report B, the student’s score depends on the accuracy of the response. To illustrate, incorrect translation of a word in self-report B will lead to a score of 2. A score of 3 reflects that correct translation has been given but the word has not been used in a sentence in self-report category B. A score of 4 is given if the word is translated correctly but used in a semantically and grammatically inappropriate sentence. A score of 5 is given if the word is translated correctly, used in a semantically appropriate but ungrammatical sentence. A score of 6 indicates the correct translation of a word and the use of the word in a semantically and grammatically correct sentence.
Sample A. Vocabulary item: **cook** (n.)

Student response: A (     ) B (X)

Word meaning: *kek*

Although the student reported that he or she knew the word, the wrong translation was given. Thus, this response received the score of 2: ‘The word is familiar but incorrect translation is given.’

Sample B. Vocabulary item: **sad** (adj.)

Student response: A (     ) B (X)

Word meaning: *mutsuz*

Sentence: (no sentence)

It is clear from the correct translation that the student knows the meaning of the word. However, he or she did not use the word in a sentence and, therefore, this response received the score of 3: ‘Correct translation is given but the word is not used in a sentence.’

**Appendix C**

Sample reading text

Read this article about a rich man’s dream house.

**A DREAM HOME**

Bill Gates is a computer millionaire. He has got a very modern house in the USA. His home has got 45 rooms and there are computers for all the rooms. There are computers for all the radios, TVs, and videos in the house. There are two living rooms in the house: a small one for Bill Gates and his family and a very large one with sofas and chairs for 150 people! There are 12 bathrooms and there is a very large kitchen with a fridge, a cooker, a table, and some chairs. Bill Gates and his family sometimes watch films in their private cinema – all the films are on computer – or they swim in their private swimming pool. They also have a garage for 20 cars.

Source: *Pacesetter Starter Student’s Book* (Strange & Hall, 2000)