Vocabulary learning strategies in the L2 classroom

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Abstract

The different aspects concerning second language vocabulary acquisition have already been the subject of a number of studies and articles. In addition, research on both vocabulary learning and vocabulary teaching are nowadays increasingly frequent. The aim of the present study is to discover how the typical Norwegian learner of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) manages different learning strategies in order to achieve effective vocabulary learning. This study was conducted in an EFL classroom with Norwegian students, the subjects being 24 intermediate EFL High School students. New vocabulary related to a particular subject was presented and the students tried to organize and acquire the new vocabulary. The diverse learning strategies they used were recorded through observation of classroom interaction, and by the use of a questionnaire. It was found that, in spite of each student’s personal preferences regarding learning strategies, it is essential for vocabulary acquisition that learners’ attention is drawn to the new word in its context or contexts several times.
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1. Introduction

1.1 Background

How do students build their Second Language (L2) vocabulary? As a teacher of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) I have often wondered about this issue. The basic assumption is that learners usually acquire words from exposure to written or spoken texts. My experience as an EFL teacher both in Spain and in Norway tells me that Norwegian students have a far more extensive vocabulary than Spanish students of the same age do. In Spain all films and television series are dubbed into Spanish, while in Norway people can watch films, television series and all kinds of programmes in the original language. In Spain one can listen to an equal number of songs in Spanish and English on the radio, while in Norway the radio waves are dominated by songs in English, and there are even many Norwegian music groups singing in English. As a result of this, the typical student of English in Norway is exposed to far more English in his or her daily life than their Spanish counterparts. Quite logically, more exposure to L2 would then result in an advantage to acquire vocabulary. Is there any research that supports this common-sense ‘hypothesis’? Further, is this really all it takes?

A study from 1985 on the incidental uptake of vocabulary in English as First Language (L1) suggested that the chance of any new word being acquired by a reader is about a one-in-ten chance, or lower (Nagy, Herman & Anderson, 1985, p. 248). If this is the case with native speakers, clearly L2 learners need much more exposure to new vocabulary than this, in order to acquire new words.

In 1997 Paul Meara asserted the need to find a new approach to analyze vocabulary acquisition. According to Meara, the typical method utilized to identify the acquisition of new words, through the use of multiple-choice recognition tests, was a method that, in spite of being partial to learners’ performance, yielded results which were not much better than results achieved by chance performance (Meara, 1997, p. 112). Meara then went on to suggest that the acquisition of a new word was “likely to occur only once in every 100 new word encounters” (Meara, 1997, p. 114).
Also according to Meara, research in this field is a bit like a gardener planting seeds in a plot in order to confirm that they will grow into flowers. A good crop of daisies would indeed confirm the ‘hypothesis’, but it is not exactly thrilling science, and it does not do much to help us understand the process of germination, or how this process is affected by various relevant environmental factors. (Meara, 1997, p. 113)

Personally, I have gradually become more and more interested in the process of germination, and even more in what the students themselves do to supplement the growth of their vocabulary, and this thesis is the result of such an interest.

1.2 Aim and Scope

The purpose of the study is to investigate what learning strategies the students themselves prefer to use to improve their learning of new vocabulary. This means that the main purpose of the research is to gain greater understanding of vocabulary acquisition from a L2 learner’s perspective.

Some existing studies on vocabulary acquisition suggest that learners build their vocabulary on demand, when they need more words to express what they want to say. My experience tells me that most students base their learning mainly on oral and/or written repetition of the words as a strategy for memorizing them. Then, what part, if any, do vocabulary tasks play in successfully acquiring new words? Furthermore, what type of vocabulary tasks are preferred by students as possible learning strategies? The study aims at identifying the vocabulary tasks that students prefer to work with, and then rank them to discover which ones students seem to think are the most useful in their vocabulary learning attempts.

1.3 Material

Twenty-four Norwegian 11th graders (aged 16) learning English as a second language are the subjects of the study. These Norwegian native speakers have studied English during a time period of about eight years. In general they can be considered to be intermediate level, though there may exist some variations in their level of proficiency, including a couple of lower-intermediate level students. The students come from different schools and none of them has been in the same class before.
During Elementary School, the teaching of English was conducted mainly through communicative tasks and oral interaction, but since they started Junior High School, Focus on Form began to be the main means of instruction.

Focus on Form is a term first coined by Michael H. Long in 1991, and further developed by him as well as other language researchers. Long proposed the term Focus on Form in order to designate a method of instruction in which the teacher pauses an otherwise communicative lesson in order to explain some concrete grammar feature that arises in a student’s utterance, as opposed to a more traditional and prescriptive method of grammar instruction which he denominated Focus on Forms. In the latter, language instruction is carried out by means of a lesson that has been prepared in advance, and that focuses on a particular grammar feature. This lesson usually includes a review of some specific grammar rules, followed by some grammar exercises in which the students rehearse the application of the aforesaid rules. A quick recapitulation of Long’s postulate is that there may be two main types of form-focused grammar teaching in L2 teaching: Focus on Form (directing attention spontaneously to grammar issues that arise in communication) and Focus on Forms (directing attention deliberately to certain grammar issues with the aid of a planned lesson).

In Norwegian schools, there has been a visible shift of methodology towards a generalized use of Focus on Form in classroom instruction during the last decades. There is an array of EFL coursebooks that are designed to promote language acquisition through the learning of socio-cultural content from the countries where the target language is spoken, and not through a grammar syllabus. Students learn about history, geography, literature, famous people of various nationalities, and festivals and holidays from around the English-speaking world. Then, in the course of otherwise meaning-focused classroom lessons, an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features takes place – initiated by either the teacher and/or one or more of the students – and usually triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production (Long & Robinson, 1998, p. 23).

Is it possible to use form-focused instruction, both Focus on Form and Focus on Forms, in order to promote, specifically, the acquisition of new vocabulary? The answer is affirmative, as we will see in section 2. Previous Research. The target items which the students in the present study learn consist of twenty unfamiliar words in L2 (English) and their Norwegian equivalents.
The words come mainly from a text in the students’ English textbook, and are thematically related to the same topic. Please refer to Appendix 1 for a list of these words.

1.4 Method

The present study’s time span is two weeks, with a total of ten lessons devoted to it. The students have five 45-minute lessons per week, organized in a 45-minute lesson and two 90 minute long lessons. Their teacher introduced the new vocabulary to the students in the first lesson (45 minutes), and then the students worked in order to consolidate these words with the aid of traditional Focus on Forms classroom exercises and the viewing of an audio-visual documentary film during the following four lessons (two 90 minute lessons on consecutive days). After this lesson, they agreed on the definitive list of target words to be acquired.

During the following week, the students practiced the new vocabulary in a 45-minute lesson with a game-based classroom activity called Kahoot, and then on lessons seven and eight they engaged in original sentence writing to consolidate the items.

The last 90-minute lesson was devoted to a test, in which the students were asked to write a text based on the topic “People who have made a difference”.

Lesson one (45 minutes): The first lesson involved noticing. The students were introduced to a text in their textbook. The text is quite lengthy, comprising six pages in their book. They listened to the CD version of the text, read by three different native speakers of English, with different accents. The school text is called “The Road to Freedom. Three Key Figures”, and is a five page text composed of a brief introduction, and three passages about Mahatma Gandhi, Martin Luther King Jr. and Nelson Mandela, respectively (a scanned copy of the text is attached in Appendix 2).

After this, their teacher read aloud and commented the list of new words accompanying the text. These words were read one by one, and students were asked to provide a Norwegian translation, which they could easily read from the glossaries in their textbook. In addition, the students raised their hands to ask about the meaning of other words in the text. The general meaning of the text was discussed by the class in a plenary session, and due attention was paid to sentences which proved especially difficult for the students. Some of these sentences were written on the board, along with a list of the words that proved to be new or difficult for students.
It was the students suggesting the words in the list. No Norwegian equivalents of the words were written on the board, only the English items.

Paul Nation, one of the world’s leading authorities on L2 vocabulary, points out that learners learn new language items through listening and reading activities where the main focus is on the content, but learning occurs best if learners are familiar with at least 95% (preferably 98%) of the words in the input (Nation, 2001, p. 390). This means that learners do not succeed in learning if there are many unknown words. The main purpose of the teaching in this first lesson was then to reduce to a minimum the possibility that students would experience the words as “unknown words” when confronted with them again later.

The students were encouraged to further review the new vocabulary at home, as they were told that there would be a written task based on the subject, and this specific vocabulary would thus be very useful. It has repeatedly been said that one of the psychological conditions that are most likely to lead to effective learning is the certainty that there will be a test. This is, for example, commented on by Nation (2001, p. 375), who underlines the appeal that such short-term tests have on students due to their strong washback effect. Indeed, achievement is easy to confirm, thus supporting further learning.

Lessons two and three (45 + 45 minutes on the same day): The purpose of the following two lessons in the study was to allow the students to work with some tasks. The tasks were two different types of tasks, for variety’s sake. First, the students performed content-oriented tasks that did not require special attention to the new words, only to the content of the text, and after that, they worked on some specific vocabulary tasks.

The main objective of the content-oriented tasks was, logically, to enhance the students’ general comprehension of the text content, but another objective was, again, to try to minimize the number of words in the text that could be perceived as “unknown”. This was achieved by making students read the text several times in order to find the answers, thus becoming so well acquainted with the text that all words in it sounded familiar. Moreover, these content-oriented tasks also served the purpose of exposing the students to the target words in their context several times, since “learning a word is a cumulative process involving a range of aspects of knowledge. Learners need many different kinds of meetings with words in order to learn them fully” (Nation, 2001, p. 4).
After this, as mentioned before, the students worked on some specific vocabulary tasks from the online resources related to their textbook. These are some interactive tasks that focus on general vocabulary in the selected text, “The Road to Freedom. Three Key Figures”. The vocabulary tasks were two crosswords, an exercise in which the students combined several English words with its definitions, and two exercises about synonyms. The last task for the students of this study was a fill-in the gap exercise in which the students were required to complete the sentences with the right word. To see the tasks, please consult Appendix 3.

All these tasks demanded a combination of repetition of the items with retrieval of the items’ meanings. Simultaneous presentation of a word and its translation is best for the first encounter with a word, but, in successive encounters, a delayed presentation of word and translation is the best (Nation, 2001, p. 79). This means that, ideally, students must be given the opportunity and enough time to try to recall the meaning of a word, since the effort involved in recalling the translation leads to an increased chance that the word will be remembered.

Additionally, this third 45-minute teaching lesson was specifically designed to discover whether the students thought that vocabulary tasks play any part in helping them successfully acquire new words. The exposure to several different types of tasks was devised in order to ask the students later what type of vocabulary task they preferred to work with as the most effective learning strategy.

Lessons four and five (90 minutes on the same day): This period was entirely devoted to watching a documentary film entitled “Men of Peace”. The documentary is divided in three chapters, in which we learn about the lives of Gandhi, Luther King Jr. and Mandela.

At the end of each chapter, the students had the opportunity to ask questions about details in the film that they did not understand, or about words and expressions that they did not know. The teacher noted down the words that were new to the students and they had asked about. The film was a fine complement to the theme of the lessons, introducing more vocabulary related to the theme, and thus allowing the students to hear in context both the target new words that had already been presented to them in the course of lessons 1-3, along with some other new words.

A new list of useful words related to the subject was written on the board. This new, definitive list of target vocabulary items consisted of the items from the list that had been
compiled during the first lesson, with the addition of the words that the students had enquired about during the documentary film. See Appendix 1.

Lesson six (45 minutes): During this short lesson, the students played an interactive game called Kahoot with the target vocabulary items (https://getkahoot.com/). Kahoot is, according to its developers, “a game-based classroom response system” in which technology is used for “blended learning”. It is based on the structure of a game show: There are questions that the students have to answer not only correctly, but also as quickly as possible, in order to obtain points and thus attain the highest score and outdo the performance of their fellow classmates. It is very useful for repeating vocabulary terms, which will help students to remember them, and, also, it is a very effective way of engaging students’ participation, mainly due to the thrill of competition.

Lessons seven and eight (90 minutes): In order to become more specifically acquainted with the target items, the students were asked to write their own sentences using the words contained in this list, while being reminded that the list of new or difficult words had been created by the students themselves. This was an attempt at creating a “need” in the students for using these words in conveying personal meaning, and as a way of rehearsing how they could manage to include the new words in sentences, since the following day they were going to have to write a longer text for which they would get a grade.

Lessons ninth and tenth (90 minutes): During the final ninth and tenth lessons in the study, the students wrote a text based on the topic “People who have made a difference”. They could choose between four different tasks related to the topic. They were allowed to use their textbook, as well as a dictionary, as technical aids. See Appendix 4 for the tasks in the written test.

1.4.1. Collecting data. The different methods employed to collect data in order to find answers to the research questions were the following:

(a) Watching classroom interaction, and both oral and written language production in the classroom. Several different ways of organizing new vocabulary for
acquisition employed by the students were observed. The students were inquired about the methods and strategies they used to try to achieve internalization of new words, while the teacher observed their work with the different vocabulary tasks. As described in section 1.4 Method, the tasks were both traditional content-oriented writing tasks (reading comprehension) found at the end of the chapter containing the target text in the students’ textbook, interactive vocabulary tasks from the online resources associated with their textbook, and a task in which the students had to make their own sentences using the target words.

(b) Accounts of the learning strategies students usually utilized, as well as of what the students did at home in order to complement the learning of the new items and overcome potential learning difficulties were collected through the use of a questionnaire (A copy of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix 5).

After the instruction carried out during these two weeks, and having completed all the tasks, the students were tested on the acquisition of the target items by a short written vocabulary test, a test that was both of receptive and productive nature (For the test, please see Appendix 6). As the purpose was only to test vocabulary, the target words were presented in isolation. This type of test is called a definition recall test. Its only purpose was to ascertain whether or not working with all these learning strategies had helped assimilate the vocabulary items.

1.5 Plan of study

The current study sets out to try to find out if the subjects of the study think that these learning strategies embodied in the different vocabulary tasks actually worked by helping them in the process of acquiring new words, and what method or methods these L2 learners chose as their preferred ones when focusing on acquiring vocabulary,

To achieve the above goal, this thesis will first review some of the existing previous research on L2 vocabulary acquisition relevant to the study, and then discuss in section 3 how the results of the present study relate to this theoretical background, accompanied by a recapitulation of the results collected in the study. In section 4, I will try to draw attention to some pedagogical implications of the results of the study in order to outline some conditions that would allow teachers to meet learner needs more accurately. Section 5 contains a summary and the conclusion.
2. Previous Research

2.1 Form-focused instruction applied to vocabulary learning

The theoretical background suggests that vocabulary teaching will undoubtedly benefit from form-focused instruction. Long’s theories on Focus on Form have become increasingly influential during the past years. He advocates practicing a primarily communicative language teaching style combined with Focus on Form, a term first mentioned in his 1991 paper called “Focus on Form: A design feature in language teaching methodology.” Since then, in many classrooms, the use of communicative language teaching alone has progressively been replaced by communicative language teaching supplemented with form-focused instruction.

Long’s new pedagogical approach is still based on input of meaningful content, as advised by previous research on the subject, only now due attention is paid to the fact that learners must also attend to form in order to achieve high levels of grammatical competence (Long, 1991, p. 47). This need had already been forecast by other authors, like, for example, Merrill Swain in 1988 (Swain, 1988, p. 68). Swain concluded that the content oriented language lesson, or at least part of it, needed to be devised to elicit longer, more complex, and coherent language in response from the learners. She observed that, otherwise, learners only focused on content, without noticing grammar (“form”) and their responses were too short and concrete, with minimal language complexity (Swain, 1988, p. 81).

Following Long’s postulate that instruction makes a difference in L2 acquisition when compared with naturalistic exposure, research on L2 acquisition proliferated, and in 2000 John M. Norris and Lourdes Ortega published a research synthesis and meta-analysis to summarize the findings from investigations into the effectiveness of L2 instruction that had been published between 1980 and 1998. In their synthesis, Norris and Ortega concluded, as stated in their abstract, “that focused L2 instruction results in large target-oriented gains, that explicit types of instruction are more effective than implicit types, and that Focus on Form and Focus on Forms interventions result in equivalent and large effects” (Norris & Ortega, 2000, p. 417). According to their results, we can be positive, then, that any type of focused instruction outperforms non- or minimally focused exposure to the L2 (Norris & Ortega, 2000, p. 463).
Norris and Ortega also found some evidence that Focus on Form methodology was more effective than Focus on Forms, although at the time of the analysis there were not enough studies on this particular matter for them to establish this postulate adequately (Norris & Ortega, 2000, p. 467). However, a study on learner uptake was conducted in 2001, the following year, providing clear support for Focus on Form as an instructional option. (Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001, p. 314). This study asserted that in communicative L2 lessons in which Focus on Form is the method of instruction, learner uptake was not only high, but also much more successful than even for immersion classrooms. Successful uptake means that a student has understood and can use a feature correctly. Although it does not indicate in itself that the feature has been acquired, uptake is firmly believed to contribute to acquisition (Ellis et al., 2001, p. 286-287). In their study, these authors recorded that the students were able to produce a target form correctly or manifest understanding of a feature in 54.8% of all Focus on Form episodes (Ellis et al., 2001, p. 303).

Focus on Form is also classified into two categories depending on the method instruction or teacher intervention: “preemptive” or “reactive”. Preemptive Focus on Form occurs when either the teacher or a learner dedicates explicit attention to a feature that is noticed at a particular moment in the lesson, and is not mediated by error. Some examples of this type of Focus on Form situations are when teachers and learners ask explicit questions like “How do you spell . . .?” “How do you translate…?” “Why is this verb form used here?” etc. Reactive Focus on Form occurs when a learner commits a mistake in an utterance and the teacher or another learner responds to this error, making the learner aware of the error and giving explicit correction, or recasting the sentence. (Ellis et al., 2001, p. 285).

A recast is a type of corrective feedback by which a teacher’s reaction to an ungrammatical form in a learner’s utterance is to repeat a grammatically correct version of the utterance. It is normally used by adults reacting to children’s speech during first language acquisition. Recasts should be accompanied by a remark on the error, lest learners interpret it as positive feedback. Teachers tend to use instinctively non-corrective repetition following well-formed learner utterances to reinforce the structure in those utterances by repeating them in the same manner that they use recasts following ill-formed learner utterances (Lyster, 1998, p.187), and this ambiguity can be confusing for learners. The findings in this study by Lyster revealed that “recasts resulted in the lowest rate of uptake—including the lowest rate of repair” (Lyster,
More importantly, he drew our attention to the fact that neither recasts nor explicit correction give the learner time to think about a well-formed alternative, because the teacher already provides correct forms. Our goal is to elicit peer- and self-repair, and, according to Lyster, the way to achieve this is to react to errors by using negotiation of form to incite students to produce, on their own, the correct form (Lyster, 1998, p. 206). This approach pushes learners to, first, notice their incorrect output, and, then, to think about how to modify it, so it becomes correct.

A similar conclusion was reached by Barcroft in a 2007 study with Anglophone learners of Spanish. This researcher discovered that providing six-second time-lags between vocabulary items on second presentation allowed students enough time to attempt to retrieve the target words, which accordingly aided their retention. Affording numerous opportunities for retrieval was also noticed to be of significance to attain successful retention. The immediate implication of these findings is that it is advisable “to provide learners with opportunities to attempt to generate new word forms on their own during different types of vocabulary learning activity” (Barcroft, 2007, p. 51).

Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen also noted that encouraging students to ask their own questions about form was the most effective approach to Focus on Form methodology (Ellis et al., 2001, p. 314). In the light of this approach, it is concluded that grammatical structures should mainly be dealt with as the students notice them and convey problems with or doubts about their use. This is a notion that fits well with Richard W. Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis (1990 and 1994). Noticing and paying attention is what allows speakers to become aware of a mismatch or gap between what they can produce and what they need to produce, as well as between what they produce and what proficient target language speakers produce (Schmidt, 2001, p. 6). I will return to Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis below, in subsection 2.2.

Since it has been established that vocabulary acquisition can be enhanced in a similar way, it is only logical to expect analogous benefits of Focus on Form on vocabulary learning. Drawing such a parallel, Batia Laufer and Nany Girsai (2008) conclude that intentionally focused attention may also be necessary for successful vocabulary learning. They claim that it is possible to draw learners’ attention to vocabulary items within communicative tasks because the new words encountered by the students are indispensable elements for the completion of the language task (Laufer & Girsai, 2008, p. 695). According to Laufer and Girsai, when students
find unfamiliar words and look them up in a dictionary, they work according to the principle of Focus on Form because the words attended to are needed for the completion of the task. On the other hand, when students work with non-communicative, non-authentic language tasks (matching words exercises or fill-in exercises) they use Focus on Forms because the unfamiliar words are treated as the objects of study and not as tools of language use (Laufer & Girsay, 2008, p. 695).

These authors also cite previous research on the incidental acquisition of new words, which showed that students who read a text and looked up unknown words in the dictionary had more successful vocabulary acquisition than students who read the text without a dictionary (Luppesku & Day, 1993, and Knight, 1994, both cited in Laufer & Girsay, 2008, p. 695). By using a dictionary to look up new words in a text or to find words they need in order to complete a language task, students must pay attention to these new words whose meaning is unknown to them, they must “notice” these new words. This is Richard W. Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis (1990 and 1994), to which I referred before.

2.2 Noticing as sufficient condition for intake

It is only common sense that in order to attain successful learning, learners must pay attention, intentionally, to the object of study, but Schmidt took this idea a step further and concluded that to learn a language subliminally is not possible, because there must exist noticing as “the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake” (Schmidt, 1990, p. 129). On the other hand, he concedes that incidental learning can be attained by focusing attention on a task and the particular language feature to be learned, but even so, paying attention is always helpful, and probably a condition “sine qua non” in order to acquire redundant grammatical features for adult learners (Schmidt, 1990, p. 149).

However, do students always notice all new words in a text? Most of them infer the meaning of a number of unknown words they encounter in a text from context, and therefore do not need to look up all the new words in a dictionary. Nation claims that, by far, the most important strategy that learners can use to cope with new vocabulary is guessing from context: “It is the most powerful way of dealing with unknown words” (Nation, 1990, p. 6 and also p.130). On the other side, we also know from research that, in order to be able to guess from context, a learner needs a basic vocabulary that will allow him or her to understand most of this
context. This might indicate that it is not especially beneficial for beginner-level to lower-intermediate level learners who do not possess a large vocabulary, as guessing from context “requires a great deal of prior training in basic vocabulary, word recognition, metacognition and subject matter and may be beyond the reach of many of our learners” (Huckin & Coady, 1999, p. 189-90).

Guessing from context is, nevertheless, generally encouraged by teachers, and seems to work well in aiding text comprehension. Yet, Schmidt draws on his own experience learning Portuguese to conclude that when language learners hear words and expressions in the target language and process them for meaning in order to understand them; it does not mean that learners actually notice the forms. The consequence of this lack of noticing is that learners fail to assimilate these forms and use them in their own utterances. Furthermore, he declares that learners will not acquire the new forms or vocabulary items properly until they finally do notice them (Schmidt, 1990, p. 141). In addition, it is hinted that in order to successfully fulfill a language learning task, the students must notice some concrete forms and commit them to memory, which, according to Schmidt, provides one of the basic arguments that “what is learned is what is noticed” (Schmidt, 1990, p. 143). He also quotes a report by Ericsson and Simon that supports the conclusion that the information that a student requires to complete a task is the information that is more likely to be remembered (Ericsson & Simon, 1984, p.118).

This need for noticing would also explain why motivated learners achieve more than unmotivated learners do, since motivation always leads to learners being more active, and noticing more. In a similar manner, evidence points at the fact that incidental learners do not do as well as intentional learners in existing controlled studies of vocabulary and spelling acquisition (Schmidt, 1994, p. 174). The main principle seems to be that, “while the intention to learn is not always crucial to learning, attention to the material to be learned is” (Schmidt, 1994, p. 176). Conscious processing is a necessary condition for language learning and it is as well facilitative for other aspects of learning (Schmidt, 1990, p. 131).

Since all this research seems to indicate that target language forms can only be acquired if they are noticed, in order to attain this, teachers must increase the salience of these target language forms or vocabulary items in the input they provide to learners, to make sure that learners notice them (Schmidt, 1994, p. 195). One of the ways in which the teacher can make the new words in the input noticeable or salient for the students, is to provide an association with the
corresponding L1 word, which means that a translation must always be provided. The teacher in
the present study had this in mind during the first lesson, when all the new words were read
aloud and their Norwegian equivalents were produced in lesson one. As mentioned earlier,
empirical evidence can be found for the effectiveness of this approach in grammar, and, since
vocabulary can be enhanced in the same way, we can expect a similar beneficial influence of
contrastive methods on vocabulary learning.

2.3 Rehearsing vocabulary using Focus on Forms

According to a study by Robinson (1995) cited in Laufer and Girsay (Laufer & Girsay,
2008, p. 697), noticing must entail not only detecting, but also “rehearsing the linguistic feature
in short-term memory before storing it in long-term memory”. To provide the students with
possibilities for rehearsing still within the boundaries of form-focused instruction, Long’s Focus
on Forms approach was employed during lessons two and three in the present study. This
approach, as it has already been noted, is typically defined as consisting of the traditional
teaching of grammatical structures according to their sequence in the syllabus.

An example of Focus on Forms directed towards vocabulary learning could be teacher
directed vocabulary practice in which the students get to practice the new words they encounter
by working on exercises the teacher has prepared beforehand. Examples of this type of exercises
would be getting two sets of words, one in English and one in Norwegian, and matching the L2
words with their L1 translations, or fill-in the gap exercises in which L2 sentences must be
completed with the appropriate L2 word(s). These exercises are considered non-communicative,
non-authentic language tasks in which the new vocabulary words are themselves the objects of
study, and are also practiced in isolation.

Again, it is important to remember that, according to Laufer and Girsai (2008), many
recent as well as older studies arrive to the same conclusion. The conclusion is that form-focused
instruction, both Focus on Form and Focus on Forms, has proven to be beneficial to vocabulary
learning. Additionally, “in studies of pedagogic intervention, gains in lexical knowledge are
typically found to be higher where there is some explicit focus on vocabulary post-reading”
Broady’s article was published in 2008 and in it, the author tried to capture the essence of studies being published at that time in the concrete area of vocabulary learning and teaching, as, Broady reasoned, they must evidently be part of wider theory building and testing that will affect the subject in the near future. What we see in present vocabulary research is a theory-building process based on empirical evidence collected from experience and classroom observation. This evidence is often supported by several other studies arriving at the same, or very similar, conclusions, which then become general theoretical statements. This approach to research is primarily inductive, and the use of inductive research methods is now considered one of the main pillars of qualitative research, to the detriment of hypothetical-deductive methods that were more used in the past.

According to this growing corpus of empirical evidence, trying to make the learners engage with new vocabulary items post-reading so that the items will be remembered can be done in several possible ways, preferably by making connections with existing knowledge, or using the target words in meaningful sentences.

Although the great variety of instructional techniques on vocabulary learning (dictionary use, negotiation of meaning in the input or output, writing original sentences, computerized exercises, etc.) has been widely examined in previous studies, it is also worth mentioning the studies by Luppesku and Day (1993) and Knight (1994). These authors studied the incidental acquisition of new words, that is, the acquisition of words without learners’ doing anything special to try to remember them.

The researchers compared students who looked up unknown words in a dictionary with students who did not, while reading the same text, and found out that the students who used a dictionary learnt more words than the students who did not. Knight goes so far as to state that both for the majority of students studying foreign languages and their teachers, learning vocabulary is the number one priority (Knight, 1994, p. 285).

The courses and textbooks for students at the beginners’ level in any language are built around vocabulary learning, yet at higher levels, when the pedagogical focus shifts from medium to message, and students start reading communicative or literary texts instead of basic language texts, this emphasis just disappears (Knight, 1994, p.285). Then, vocabulary-learning methods shift from intentional learning to incidental learning. When learning vocabulary is no longer a primary classroom activity, it also ceases to be something to be consistently tested. The reason
for this abandonment of active vocabulary teaching takes root in the axiom that vocabulary can be learned from context while reading, incidentally, in just the same way as children learn words in their mother tongue without needing any specific vocabulary instruction. Is this really so? The results of Knight’s study suggest that reading is undoubtedly a good way of increasing vocabulary, but still dictionary use should be encouraged as both an effective aid for text comprehension while reading for meaning, and as an efficient tool for increasing vocabulary acquisition. (Knight, 1994, p. 296).

Students who use a dictionary clearly learn more than those who do not use one, but, in addition, using a dictionary certainly bears even more benefits for students who do not possess much verbal ability and are at a disadvantage when simply guessing from context. (Knight, 1994, p.292-293). Dedicating some time to look up words in a dictionary is no doubt a time-consuming activity; however, it should be strongly advised that students invest some time and effort in building this particular skill, and then utilize it actively in language learning.

Ellis (1994) and Ellis and He (1999), separately, also found that input accompanied by explanations was beneficial to the learning of new words. Associating an image or a concept to a target L2 word accompanied by explicit processing of the meaning of the word prevents that it fades from memory (Ellis, 1994, p. 268).

In accordance with the ideas exposed above, the teacher in this study encouraged dictionary use while students were making sense of the main text in the study, but also during the resolution of the vocabulary tasks.

### 2.4 Peer collaboration

Another factor that should be taken into account when planning EFL lessons is the possibility for student peer collaboration. Allowing the students to work in small groups is a very favorable factor, which opens for collaborative student efforts and negotiation of meaning. This always accounts for better learning, and is normally regarded as something positive by the students, as well.

As guessing from context is only beneficial for EFL learners of intermediate to advanced level who know enough words to understand context, it is advisable that these student groups are mixed groups, where students of several levels of proficiency can cooperate. In this manner, the
ideal learning situation is achieved when learners’ attention is drawn to form in the context of ‘making meaning’.

Another positive effect is that students seem to appreciate that the result of a collaborative effort has no visible owner, and then all members in a group feel that they have contributed to making a good text, while none in particular feels that the possible mistakes are their personal fault. In his article, Broady gives account of a study in which “collaboration on a dictogloss task was significant in raising vocabulary test scores in comparison with individual learners thinking aloud but working on their own” (Broady, 2008, p. 260).

2.5 The lexical approach

In opposition to the preceding prevailing view that vocabulary teaching was a task deemed too vast, there has emerged a lexical approach to language teaching in the field of applied linguistics. In Nation’s first book (Teaching and Learning Vocabulary, 1990), he demonstrated that, with the aid of corpora, it is possible to identify a small number of high-frequency words (about 2000 words) that are suitable to the needs of L2 learners and therefore deserve explicit instruction.

Conversely, there is a large number of low-frequency words that can only be acquired at a later stage through extensive language exposure, for example by reading and the use of a strategy such as guessing from context. There are some studies, for example, Krashen (1989), who estimated that subjects picked up some 45 new words simply by reading a novel. In general, there is evidence that people who read for leisure, voluntarily, including learners who choose to read other literature than textbooks in the target language because they enjoy it, perform better on vocabulary tests (Krashen, 1989, p.441). In a similar manner, language learners who listen to stories also show better vocabulary development.

Krashen claims that we are teaching language the hard way, since “many vocabulary teaching methods are at best boring, and are at worst painful” (Krashen, 1989, p. 450). He recommends encouraging much free voluntary reading of interesting books or magazines, for pleasure, because “an hour of pleasure reading is far preferable to thirty minutes of drill” (Krashen, 1989, p. 454). However, he does not claim that vocabulary acquisition can only derive from reading. Vocabulary is acquired from comprehensible input, and he considers reading to be the best kind of comprehensible input.
Krashen also claims that students that focus deliberately on new vocabulary (and in some cases do additional skill-building exercises using the target words) do consistently better in vocabulary tests than incidental subjects, showing that Focus on Form applied to vocabulary learning will result in vocabulary acquisition (Krashen, 1989, p. 447-448, p. 454).

Nation’s second book, Learning Vocabulary in Another Language, which was published in 2001, incorporated an enormous amount of up-to-date research. In this book, Nation also recommended that vocabulary teaching was included when devising L2 curricula, including devoting time in the classroom to the teaching of learning strategies in order to help students expand their vocabulary. He claimed that the use of vocabulary learning strategies helped students achieve better results. On the other hand, he maintained that in order to develop fluency, learners have to read texts that contain little or no unknown vocabulary, because unknown words slow down the reading experience and disrupt flow, making it difficult for the reading to be pleasurable (Nation, 2001, p. 150).

Nation, too, considers the idea of developing language acquisition through pleasurable reading a very compelling idea, because readers can choose themselves what to read according to their own interests, something that increases motivation, but also because they can choose a reading material that suits their proficiency level, free from classroom constrains and independently from their classmates’ level of proficiency; a tailor-made solution.

Learning from context is, according to Nation, a cumulative process in which “meaning and knowledge of form are gradually enriched and strengthened” (Nation, 2001, p. 236). In the studies he quotes, native speakers learn an average of 15 % of the unknown words, but these unknown words account only for 3 % or less of the running words in the text. The fewer unknown words a reader meets, the higher the chance for them to be acquired by the reader (Nation, 2001, p. 237).

Nation also quotes results from Fraser (1999) that maintain that dictionary use makes an important contribution to vocabulary growth, providing almost doubled retention of the word (Nation, 2001, p. 239). Nation’s final conclusion is that learning, as stated earlier, is a cumulative process in which word encounters always build on previous encounters with the same word, even though these word encounters in isolation each provided very small amounts of learning (Nation, 2001, p. 240).
To sum up, the number of unknown words in a text cannot be more than 2-3% of the total words in the text. The more important the word is for text comprehension, the more effort the learner will put into guessing its meaning or consulting a dictionary to find out.

The number of times a learner finds a target word in a text or in related vocabulary tasks does count, but for the word to be remembered it also counts how close in time the word encounters happen. In addition, the more different the contexts in which a learner finds the target word, the more likely it is that the word will be acquired.

Another researcher who has written about incorporating vocabulary into the syllabus is O’Dell (1997). She asserts that a language course should always have a vocabulary component, and that the course should also provide learners with skills that will help them improve their own individual L2 learning. These skills consist, for example, of learning to use “dictionaries and other reference materials to their full potential”, “techniques for remembering and revising vocabulary”, training to “extend their receptive understanding of vocabulary by working on guessing meaning from context and from clues within the word or expression itself”, and giving the students “techniques for making exercises” (O’Dell, 1997, p. 275-276).

2.6 Making vocabulary lists

Writing down both the L2 word and its L1 translation in a notebook is not a popular method for students, but, it can, nevertheless, prove to be useful for some lower-intermediate level students, though one must make sure that the words are not misspelt. The McCrostie study of student vocabulary notebooks (2007) contains a number of findings which apply here and which are in general relevant for classroom teachers.

Noting down new vocabulary items in lists in their notebooks is deemed an efficient way for students to learn vocabulary. The lists usually contain translations of the words into L1, and maybe some extra information about pronunciation, or even an example of the word used in a sentence. Another reason for keeping vocabulary lists is the possibility to easily access the words related to a concrete theme, text, or chapter in their schoolbook. Many students intend to return to these lists later, in order to practice and memorize the words, and thus learn new, important vocabulary.

However, McCrostie found that students noting down words in their notebooks “favor certain parts of speech, have difficulty identifying high frequency words, and view all words they
do not know as equally important” (McCrostie, 2007, p. 246). Most students in the study stated that they chose words according to their perceived “usefulness”, however, when McCrostie analyzed these words, it was clear that many of them were not among the 3000 most frequent English words, and, therefore, not very useful. His conclusion is that students need explicit instructions as to what vocabulary items ought to be recorded. Somehow, it seems that the students themselves manage to perceive that the words they choose might not be the most relevant, as sometimes they ask for a confirmation that the words they have chosen are approved by their teacher, and sometimes they seek guidance as to which words they should include in the glossary. Perhaps not surprisingly, McCrostie found that 80% of all students preferred to be provided with word lists by their teacher. “Students who had to record their own words spent less time studying the words and felt that they did not learn as much as their counterparts who received word lists from teachers” (McCrostie, 2007, p. 253-254).

Finally, McCrostie also notes that, typically, a large percentage of example sentences written by students will contain serious errors. In his opinion, notebooks full of vocabulary lists can definitively be a valuable tool for vocabulary learning, but students seem to need guidance to use them properly.

2.7 Repetition as a technique for remembering words

Automated repetition of the words is usually a learning strategy many students use, although the majority of students seem to benefit more from written repetition. Teachers must remember that processing both verbal and visual information can be too difficult, and that especially the lower-intermediate level students tend to remember better the pronunciation of the word than its spelling, and thus can typically misspell words when writing them, though there is a resemblance to the word’s phonetics.

Regarding student attitudes and preferences towards vocabulary learning, Leutner and Plass devised in 1998 a Visualizer/Verbalizer Behavior Observation Scale as an alternative to conventional questionnaires. This Observation Scale was computer-based, and recorded students' preferences for visual or verbal learning material in an authentic learning situation. The scores collected by the Visualizer/Verbalizer Scale were found to be highly reliable. Specifically, the researchers analyzed the preferences of learners for visual and verbal information based on their
look-up behavior. Learners were classified as visualizers or verbalizers (Leutner & Plass, 1998, p. 552).

In an article by Chun and Payne called “What makes students click: working memory and look-up behavior” it is stated that visual learners are helped by graphic information, like, for example, remembering the graphical representation of a word in order to acquire the word. On the other hand, it is noted in the same article that learners with low spatial ability are not aided by the annotation of an unknown word. Similarly, low verbal-ability learners are said to benefit from looking up text translations more than high verbal-ability learners, but they do not learn vocabulary words better if they must process both verbal and visual information due to the resulting high cognitive load. The results of the Chun and Payne study indicated that visual learners were aided in L2 vocabulary acquisition by graphic information, and did not perform as well when they did not receive information in their preferred (visual) mode (Chun & Payne, 2004, p. 483). It can be objected that these measuring methods, particularly the Visualizer/Verbalizer Scale, do not take into consideration other learning styles, though, which introduces the need for further research and development in the subject.

Researchers who focus on vocabulary learning, like Nation and Gu (2007), have often described how there are students who prefer repeating aloud the new words they are to learn, while other students prefer to repeat them silently. Empirical results on this issue are relatively unanimous that repeating words aloud helps retention far better than silent repetition. There are two relevant studies that are often cited in connection with this issue: an early study by Seibert, carried out in 1927, and another more recent by Hill (1994). Both authors studied three conditions: studying aloud, studying aloud with written recall, and studying silently, and found that the first condition always produced better results than the other two. Hill considered the results a confirmation that adding the phonological dimension to the study of words has considerable impact on learning and improves learners' overall ability to learn new words, particularly on oral recall. Even when considering long-term results, having heard the pronunciation of the words helped students do significantly better in the oral recall test (Hill, 1994, p. 457-458).
2.8 Exposure to new words

Regarding the issue of how many exposures to a particular word are needed in order for the student to learn the word, very different research results have been obtained. Nation reviewed existing evidence and concluded that 5-16 exposures are required in order to learn a word from context (Nation, 1990, p. 43-44). It has been generally agreed upon that most learners need five to seven repetitions for the learning of a group of six words and their respective L1 translations, though results seem to vary according to other factors such as the salience of the word in context.

A 1998 study (Horst, Cobb & Meara), which featured low intermediate EFL learners reading a 109-page book over a ten-day period, obtained a 20 % pick-up rate and they also observed that words which appeared over eight times in text were more likely to be learned than words that were repeated less (Horst et al., 1998, p. 213 and p. 215).

This debate about what pedagogic intervention works best for vocabulary retention continues to generate research on the matter. As previously indicated, the number of opportunities for retrieval seems to be a condition of significant value in task design. Folse studied in 2006 “The Effect of Type of Written Exercise on L2 Vocabulary Retention”. In this study, a number of university intensive English program students practiced new vocabulary by using the target words in two of the most commonly used types of written vocabulary exercises: two different fill-in-the-blank exercises, and one original-sentence-writing exercise. The main aim of the study was to determine whether type of written exercise had a significant effect on L2 vocabulary retention (Folse, 2006, p. 278). He contrasted the impact on retention of these two different task types (fill-in-the-blank computer-assisted exercises versus original sentence writing), but, most interestingly, he also compared the effect of repetition within a task type (working with three fill-in-the-blank exercises versus working only on one). Tested with university intensive EFL students, the repeated task (three fill-in-the-blank exercises) resulted in the highest levels of vocabulary retention.

Results from the current study show that writing original sentences, one of the supposedly deeper processing activities that the computer could not facilitate, was only about half as effective as doing three written practice encounters with target items. Multiple encounters using fill-in-the-blank activities is a task that not only can be done extremely efficiently by the computer but also produces superior retention results. (Folse, 2006, p. 289).
Broady linked Folse’s results with the research by Rott’s (2007), who also identified a positive role for retrieval opportunities: repeated visual enhancement (i.e. repeated bolding of an item of vocabulary in a text) was not found to strengthen word encoding, but repeated glossing of an unknown word plus an opportunity to retrieve it in the L1 did. (Broady, 2008, p.260)

Traditionally, new vocabulary is presented organized in “semantic clusters”, in an attempt at facilitating vocabulary learning, but actually, there is no reason that supports this custom. In fact, psychological research would forecast that such arranging of similar items in sets deters rather than builds up learning. Tinkham (1997) looks at this matter in an attempt to discover how new vocabulary items ought to be arrayed so that they provide maximal learning. His findings strongly suggest that new words presented to learners in semantic clusters pose more difficulty to be remembered than semantically unrelated words (Tinkham, 1997, p.154). The results also provide ample evidence that “new L2 vocabulary items arranged in thematic clusters are more easily learnt than new L2 vocabulary items arranged in unassociated sets”, thus proving that thematic clustering is the best option as it facilitates new language vocabulary learning (Tinkham, 1997, p. 155 and p. 161). According to the information supplied by this comparative data, the target items that the subjects of the study in this thesis were asked to acquire belong to the category semantically unrelated words, arranged in a thematic cluster.

The empirical studies of Paribakht and Wesche (1999) and Zimmerman (1997), cited by Folse in his interesting study from 2006, showed that “L2 vocabulary retention is higher for students who complete written vocabulary activities after a reading task than for students who complete another reading assignment (with the same target vocabulary) after the reading task” (Folse, 2006, p. 275). As stated above, Folse disclosed that the fill-in-the-blank exercises resulted in words being absorbed much better, but, most importantly it also unveiled differences between the pick-up rates of the two different fill-in-the-blank exercises. The decisive success factor was the number of word retrievals, and not the depth of word processing, a fact that underlines the importance of number of word retrievals required in any given L2 vocabulary exercise” (Folse, 2006, p. 287 and p. 289).

Folse also mentions a study of Dutch EFL learners made by Hulstijn in 1998 which explored the question of whether writing 10 target words is more effective than just encountering them in a reading passage. Students were recorded to have retained more vocabulary after using the target words in original sentence writing (Folse, 2006, p. 276). Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) are
also cited by Folse. These two researchers found that when the students used the target words to create their own sentences, this resulted in better incidental vocabulary acquisition, as compared to just receiving comprehensible input about the target words (Folse, 2006, p. 276). Writing original language with the vocabulary resulted in better results remembering the target words because producing original output instead of just receiving input always shows some vocabulary gains, but, again, the number of word retrievals appears to be a decisive factor.

Similarly, a study by Laufer explored whether learners actually acquire vocabulary mostly through reading (as Krashen suggests). She compared reading alone with productive tasks (such as using glossaries, writing sentences, writing a composition, and sentence completion) in Israeli EFL classes. In all cases, the empirical evidence suggested (in relation to vocabulary) that a word’s meaning is more likely to be remembered in a “productive word-focused task” than simply through reading, even when the word is looked up in a dictionary (Laufer, 2003, p. 581).

Having this in mind, the vocabulary exercises that the students worked with in the present study were selected because they gave rise to providing occasions for as many word retrievals as possible, and this was also the reason for trying a new learning tool which would allegedly provide multiple occasions for vocabulary repetition and word retrieval: the interactive game Kahoot.

2.9 Blended learning and repetition

The use of Kahoot was recommended during a teachers’ workshop as an innovative way of combining the use of technology and learning within a fairly modern pedagogic concept called “blended learning”. Blended learning, also called hybrid learning, refers to a professedly ground-breaking method of learning which combines classroom and online education. Education professionals have begun to debate its efficacy, but “its very existence has challenged them to re-evaluate not just technology’s place in (and out of) the classroom, but also how to reach and teach students more effectively” (Te@chthought, 2013). Up to this date, little research has been carried out to back the advocacy of using blended learning methods in the classroom.

Kahoot has been developed in Norway, by the Department of Computer and Information Science at NTNU (Norwegian University of Science and Technology) in Trondheim, and its developers hoped to reach 20 million users by the end of the year 2014. They report gaining no less than 900 000 new users per week (Normannsen, 2014), and all without having spent a cent
in marketing or advertising. This interactive learning tool is utilized in more than 120 countries, but 80% of users live in the USA.

The four main developers, Wu, Wang, Børresen, and Tidemann, published a paper in 2011 after their participation in the third International Conference on Computer Supported Education. In this conference paper from their session, they gave an account of their achievements so far. At that time, the learning tool’s name was Lecture Quiz, and in their paper, the developers declared their intention to prove that the game concept was viable for educational purposes, as a way to make lectures more engaging and interactive. They claimed that today’s lecturers, in spite of taking advantage of technology, still use only slides and electronic notes, in what can be described as delivering traditional, one-way communication lectures:

In a typical lecture, the teacher will talk about a subject, and the students will listen and take notes. However, the exclusive use of such methods may not be ideally suited to today's students, particularly those in the generation born after 1982, or "Millennial students" (Wu et al., 2011, p. 1).

After testing their prototype learning-tool, Lecture Quiz, the developers found out that most of the students (53%) thought that it was easier to pay closer attention during the lecture because of the system. The developers also found that it had a positive effect on learning: over half part of the students in the test group agreed that they had learned more, and that they found the system inspiring and fun (over 90% answered that using the Lecture Quiz tool in lectures would make them more fun) (Wu et al., 2011, p. 8-9).

According to the previous results, we can assume that games can be used as educational tools, or as a part of a lecture, improving the effectiveness in learning a subject, but, is Kahoot a good educational game? Evidently, a good educational game should share some features with other enjoyable activities, but, in addition, the properties that characterize good educational games are said to be divided into three categories: challenge, fantasy and curiosity. Good screen design is shown to have an important impact on the motivation of users, as well (Wang, Øfsdahl & Mørch-Storstein, 2009, p. 2).
In *Kahoot* there is challenge, definitively. Each participant’s clear objective is not only to finish the game, but also to be the winner of the game. This means to achieve the highest score, after successive rounds with questions that must be correctly (and quickly!) answered. As players successfully complete several rounds with questions, their self-esteem is stimulated. “As with any challenge, mastering that challenge can give a self-esteem boost” (Wang, et al., 2009, p. 2).

The fantasy element is incorporated in the television game-show format, a format that makes it possible to gain appreciation and acceptance from fellow classmates by displaying one’s knowledge. “By adding multiplayer possibilities, the challenge is no longer just answering the questions, but to cooperate with or beat your opponents”, and it makes learning a more social experience (Wang et al., 2009, p. 7).

The third, and last, characteristic of a good educational game is its ability to provide an element of curiosity. *Kahoot* provides immediate feedback after each question and thus piques the students’ curiosity and interest within three areas. Firstly, they wonder which answer is the right one to each question, and if they managed to get it right. Secondly, they wonder how many participants managed to give the right answer, and how fast. Lastly, they are eager to discover who are the ones that reached the higher scores and made it to the top-ten in the leaderboard, both for that particular round, and for the whole game.

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1 Classroom observations

During lesson one, the teacher’s main goal was for the students to notice the new words introduced in a text in their textbook. The students’ English textbook provides a list of “new words” and their translations as a complement to the text. Actually, many of these words were recognized by the students, as they were not “new” to them. Additionally, the meaning of quite a few of the words in the list was correctly guessed by the group due to context.

As stated before in the background section, guessing words from context is a powerful learning strategy to cope with new words. The importance of context in vocabulary learning has been pointed out by a number of linguists, like, for example, Nagy, in 1997: “Contexts provide considerable input from which language users clearly pick up huge amounts of vocabulary knowledge, apart from any explicit vocabulary instruction they may receive” (Nagy, 1997, p. 64).
What seemed evident from student behavior is that as long as they managed to understand the meaning of the word from the context, they did not consider the word to be interesting, and they did not pay any special attention to it. Again, we must remember the observations of Nation regarding this particular detail: if learners do not notice a word because they understand the meaning, they will fail to assimilate the word, and therefore will not use it in their own language production.

On the other hand, the students asked about the meaning of other words from the text that were new to them and were not included in the glossaries in the textbook. All of the words from the glossaries that were truly new, as well as all of the words that the students did not know and were not in the glossaries were written on the board. The criterion to write a word on the board was, consequently, that this was a word the students did not manage to recognize at all.

As a means of enhancing learning, the students were encouraged to write down both the English word and its Norwegian translation in their notebooks. Only the lower-intermediate level students chose to do so. The majority of the students wrote down only some of these words, and a few of them did not write down any words at all. This attitude was later explained by the students’ answers to the questionnaire: A few students stated that they normally only wrote down words they felt were important and necessary, while others said that they would no doubt remember some of these words when they saw them again, and thus did not need to write them down.

It was later observed that a couple of the students had misspelt some of the words they wrote down, which supports McCrostie’s (2007) findings on vocabulary notebooks containing a large percentage of serious errors. Inasmuch as the reason for noting down new words is to enhance noticing, it can be argued that misspelling the words that are noted down accounts for not paying enough attention to the items, and therefore, we can say that noticing has not been achieved.

From the learners’ perspective, it looks like they did not think that dictionary use or writing words down in their notebooks would help them remember the words any better. As said before, the teacher encouraged dictionary use, only to be met with mild resistance on this matter. The students clearly preferred to ask the teacher, or other students, for the meaning of a word, and avoided looking the word up in the dictionary. When asked about the reason for this behavior, they justified it by saying that it was faster and, in this way, they got a more concrete
answer “because dictionaries provide too many options”. They argued that sometimes it was
difficult to select the right entry, and then they could not be completely sure that they had found
the term that they were searching for in that context.

During lessons two and three, the students worked with tasks that aimed at the
consolidation of the new vocabulary in order to ensure that it was retained. At first, the students’
attention was drawn exclusively to the content of the text. To complete the content-oriented
tasks, the students were allowed to work in small groups, which permitted them to negotiate how
to compose and build the sentences in their answers. The value of collaborative student efforts
was proclaimed by Swain and Lapkin in 1998. These researchers claim that dialogue between
students during the resolution of a task can be seen as an enactment of mental processes that
generate L2 learning, like trying to figure out alternatives (hypothesis generation), assessing the
usefulness of the alternatives (hypothesis testing), and applying rules or extending knowledge to

Dialogue and student collaboration facilitate cognitive processes by which students apply
their individual knowledge to solve a shared linguistic problem. Swain and Lapkin’s study
“provides empirical data to suggest that collaborative dialogue is a useful concept for
value of encouraging or requiring students to work through, or negotiate, ‘real or perceived gaps
in communication’ is three-fold: it promotes learners’ comprehension of L2 input, their
production of modified output, and their attention to L2 form” (Pica, 1994b, p. 499).

Some researchers have proposed that there must be a distinction between “negotiation for
meaning” and “negotiation for form”. Ellis et al. discovered in their research that during student
collaboration there were more than two times as many episodes involving negotiation of form, as
negotiation of meaning. However, uptake was more likely to occur in episodes involving
negotiation of meaning. “There is a 95 % chance of between 8.9 % and 25.1 % more uptake
moves occurring in episodes involving negotiation of meaning” (Ellis et al., 2001, p. 305).

In the present study, the students seemed to be not only interested in negotiating the
meaning of the sentences, but they also paid attention to form. Form was corrected when the
students, themselves, signaled that they required feedback. Lyster noted in a 1998 study that the
teachers who had participated in it showed a preference for correcting grammatical errors by
using recasting, in spite of the fact that recasts were not usually followed by repairs: “only about
one-third of the grammatical repairs followed recasts, while almost two-thirds were peer- and (mainly) self-repairs following the negotiation of form” (Lyster, 1998, p. 207). Lyster argues that recasts may be less successful at drawing learners’ attention to their non-target output, and, consequently, recommends using negotiation of form as corrective feedback because it pushes learners to modify their output themselves. Accordingly, when the students of the present study did not reach an agreement, or were unsure about the produced form being correct, or when they were uncertain about some language feature and they actively sought teacher feedback, the teacher reacted to errors by using negotiation of form to prompt students to produce, on their own, the correct form.

Swain (1998) also dwells on the need for students to reflect about the relationship between language form and content in a consciously manner. She means that it is essential for learning that students focus their attention on particular form-functional relationships (Swain, 1998, p. 73). As the ideal learning situation has been said to be when learners’ attention is drawn to form “in the context of ‘making meaning’”, we can then conclude that these 11th graders were in an ideal learning situation.

In these groups of students negotiating meaning, there were very few that consulted dictionaries, and when they did so, they used online dictionaries, not printed books. The students mostly use a digital dictionary called iFinger, which is recommended by the high school IT department, and which can be installed for free by all students attending this school. It seems that the well-known statement “A dictionary is amongst the first things a foreign language student purchases” from 1980 by Baxter, which still prevailed in the 90s, as repeated by Luppescu and Day in 1993, has now become old-fashioned. Besides, the majority of students are aware that dictionaries can be misleading; all of them have had some prior experience in which they looked up a word in the dictionary and chose the wrong explanation among several possible ones. This confirms the claim by Nation and Gu (2007, book is unavailable) that the students who need the dictionary most are usually weaker students who do not know how to use it properly and therefore “cannot use it to their advantage”.

After this, the students worked on some vocabulary tasks that focused on vocabulary from the text (two crosswords, a matching exercise, two exercises about synonyms, and a fill-in the gap exercise). To see these exercises, please refer to Appendix 3.
The importance of information-gap tasks for L2 vocabulary acquisition has been highlighted by de la Fuente. “By making the processing of word meaning obligatory, these tasks promote attention to form and meaning” (de la Fuente, 2006, p. 287).

It was especially interesting to observe how students worked with these tasks, as this is directly linked to the research questions. Would these activities help students acquire more new words? Which activity would turn out to be the students’ favorite? In my experience, these types of exercises are usually very popular with Junior High School students, yet within this group of 11th graders the interactive exercises did not arouse much interest. The students worked on them individually. None of them showed any excitement or enjoyment, they just worked routinely on the tasks, and did not voice any preference at all.

During the fourth and fifth lessons the students watched a documentary film in which the new words and some other new words appeared, and this allowed the teacher to create a more complete list of new words that was approved by all students. The students were encouraged to note down any words that puzzled them or concrete moments in the documentary film in which they did not understand what was said. The students had the opportunity to inquire about these after watching each of the three chapters in which the documentary film is divided.

In lesson six, a short 45 minute lesson, the students played with the blended learning tool Kahoot. The students answered questions by choosing one alternative from several possible alternatives, as in a multiple-choice vocabulary test, which limited the range of possible responses. It turned out to be very engaging. After tentatively trying this in the classroom, as yet another way of exposing students to the new words that they were trying to acquire, the results could not be better: the students loved it. They requested to play repeatedly, to see if they could remember the right answer, and when they all were sure to answer all the questions correctly, they still wanted to play one more time in order to be the fastest participant in answering and reaching the highest score, to beat their classmates. Kahoot delivered its promise of “creating a social, fun and game-like environment” in the classroom. The students, spontaneously, proposed playing the same game with the same words on several other days, too, after the completion of the present lesson plan. This researcher found it really surprising that students wanted to do the same task again and again, and did not seem to get tired of it, nor of the “new English words” that were not new at all, especially after a few rounds of Kahoot.
The key factor to success seems to be *Kahoot’s* ability to motivate students. The developers’ evaluation concludes that the high motivation stems from the competitive aspect and relevance of the game to the students (Wang et al., 2009, p. 7). The social element of the game provides a context where a player receives a great deal of information from his opponents, because they help each other. Students are generous to give feedback to fellow players, authentic and immediate, about the correct answer if one of them complains about not knowing it. After all, providing the right answer is not as important as providing it faster than the others.

Yet more immediate feedback is received after all participants have answered, because the program discloses the correct answer, and how many participants answered each one of the alternatives. The input from the different players affects the game of one another. “We believe that introducing collaboration or competition between players in educational games gives the players a richer learning experience where the player not only learns from the game but also through other players interacting” (Wang et al., 2009, p. 11).

In lessons seven and eight, the students noticed again the words on the board, and were then requested to write their own sentences using them. For a high number of students in the group, this type of task was fairly time consuming. Still, the main challenge was that it also required a high involvement load, while providing very little satisfaction with the results. These features turned the task into a source of no little frustration for many students. Classroom observation during the realization of the present study supports what Folse (2006) states:

> Writing original sentences involves a tremendous amount of student time in looking up the meaning of the word in a dictionary, deciding if the meaning makes sense, deciding if the word can be used in a particular way in English, coming up with a good sentence with an appropriate collocation, and then deciding if the syntax of the created sentence is correct. (Folse, 2006, p. 288).

In addition, some of the students complained about their lack of fantasy to create new sentences, while the “new sentences” of other students closely resembled the sentences in the original text, only shorter. Being able to create new sentences which do not resemble the ones in the departure text in the textbook is quite challenging, a finding that strengthens the ‘pushed output’ hypothesis and the importance of linking new knowledge with the learner’s existing knowledge, so that the students must strike a balance between “negotiation for meaning” and “negotiation for form”.
According to the students’ comments, this activity was far from a favorite while they worked on it, and, yet, it was listed as a favorite activity for 25% of them in the questionnaire, as we will see in section 3.2.

The graded writing task which the students set about to accomplish during lessons nine and ten was an individual examination exercise in which they all put their hearts and souls, and that was quite successful, with the resulting grade point average being a B. We can determine that completing a task that might be rewarded with a good grade constituted an enormous incentive for the students, and had little to do with how much the students enjoyed the task itself.

3.1.1 Summary of main findings through classroom observation. Classroom observation showed that students manage to recognize a large amount of words from context, but they usually deem these words "unimportant", so we can then conclude that there is no noticing and, therefore, no assimilation of these new words. In addition, students are generally reluctant to write down new words in their notebooks, partly because they fail to evaluate with accuracy the real importance of these words, and partly because they mistake their recognition of the words with assimilation. Students believe that they have already incorporated these words into their vocabulary just because they understand the meaning of the words in that particular context, or because they have been provided with a translation. We can extract further prove of this failure to notice new words properly because of the lack of interest in writing the words down, a carelessness that resulted in making spelling errors for some of them.

The dictionary, which has proven to be a tool of extremely high value for vocabulary learning, is not appreciated by students. They prefer to consult their teacher or their fellow students, something that is faster and provides them with the right definition for the word in that context at once, at no risk of picking up the wrong entry. On the other side, this is also a sign that they value collaboration and group work, and that they participate actively in negotiation of meaning, as much as they seek negotiation of form.

Neither vocabulary exercises, nor producing their own sentences with the inclusion of target words in them seem to be very appealing, but, in spite of this, sentence creation appears to be particularly valued as a learning strategy by ¼ of the students in this group. The most popular activity for vocabulary rehearsing turned out to be Kahoot, and this blended learning resource no doubt owes its popularity to multiple reasons: its modernity, the immediate feedback students receive, as well as its value as a social activity and as a competitive game.
3.2 The questionnaire

The students in the study were asked to think for some minutes about what they usually do when they want to learn new words (their vocabulary learning strategies), and then answer the questions in a questionnaire. Please see Appendix 5 for the questionnaire.

Of a total of twenty-four students in this study, twenty-two students (91.6 %) stated that they immediately noticed the new words in a text when the text was read in the classroom. This confirms Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis (1990, 1994, 2001), in which he claims that consciously noticing forms in the input is the first step towards word acquisition. It is also an interesting statement, after classroom observation showing that, in practice, students usually ignore the words that they can understand from context. We must then assume that the new words they notice in a text are the words that they do not understand at all.

Going deeper into the concept of noticing, twenty-three of twenty-four students (95.8 %) affirmed that it was easier to remember a new word after knowing what the word meant. Then in questions 6 and 7 they were asked about two conditions that may aid word retention. Seventeen students (70.8 %) said that consulting a dictionary or asking their teacher the meaning of the word helped them remember it afterwards, whereas only sixteen (66.6 %) agreed that it was easier to remember a word if the teacher had written it on the board in the classroom. It seems that over half of the students benefit from the teacher drawing extra attention to a word by writing it on the board, but even more students said they remembered it by actively seeking to find out its meaning themselves. This is consistent with the research results presented in the section of this thesis about previous research: when students ask their own questions, or are given enough time to think and produce output on their own based on gaps in their knowledge they themselves notice, is when there is more effective learning.

As already noted, only some students, the lower-intermediate level ones, wrote both the English word and the Norwegian translation of all the words in their notebooks, while most students chose to write down only some of these words, and a few of them did not write down any words at all. The reasons why students did not write down all the words of the list vary slightly. Many students stated a number of reasons, which were versions of the idea that they perceived these words as easy, and therefore not worthwhile writing down (question 16 in the
questionnaire), while one student claimed that it would take too much time to note down both target word and L1 translation. She added that taking the time to write down the words was distracting, and hindered her from attending to what was being said in the classroom.

On the other hand, when asked in question 17 why they had chosen to write down those particular words they had individually chosen, the students’ answers were very diverse, and rather contradictory. For some of them, the most powerful reason for noting down words in their notebooks was considering the word “complicated”, therefore a word seldom found and more difficult to remember, while for others the reason was, on the contrary, that they could recognize the word as “useful” and frequently used, in which case it was considered to be “important”.

In question 11 the students were asked if they knew that some English words are more used than others and that they are therefore considered to be more “important” than others. Twenty-one students (87.5 %) said that they were fully aware that some words are more frequent, and therefore more important than others, while only three students (12.5 %) stated that they were not aware of the distinction. However, it still appears that many students, even if they are advanced-intermediate level, seem to have difficulty selecting words on their own and determining the frequency or usefulness of words. This corroborates the findings in the McCrostie study of student vocabulary notebooks that students tend to write down nouns and verbs above other certain parts of speech, are not able to identify high frequency words, and consider all unknown words equally important (McCrostie, 2007, p. 246). Based on the importance of adequate input in an artificial learning context such as the classroom, the immediate consequence is that we as teachers must make sure that the students learn useful words, at the proper level such as the words included in Nation’s list of 2000 high-frequency words.

On the other hand, McCrostie found that 80% of all students preferred to be provided with word lists by their teacher, while in this study only two students (8.3 %) said in question 4 that they thought it was more important to learn the words in a list provided by their teacher.

Nine students (37.5 %) expressed in question 10 the opinion that working with vocabulary tasks was the most useful alternative in vocabulary acquisition, being thus the most voted for option.

The specific learning strategies mentioned in question 10 in the questionnaire were voted as follows: six students answered that translating L2 sentences into L1 was very useful (25 %),
five students (20.8 %) said that they thought negotiation of meaning in general was beneficial, and the least voted alternative was using the dictionary with only four students selecting it (16.6 %).

TABLE 1

*What learning strategy do you think is most useful for remembering new words?*

![Graph showing the most useful strategies for remembering new words.]

In question 8 the students were asked if they thought that working with vocabulary exercises in general helped them to remember words better. Twenty students (83.3 %) confirmed that working with vocabulary exercises was useful for them.

In question 9 the students were asked to arrange the different exercises (match exercises, fill-in-the-blank exercises, crosswords, *Kahoot*, and translation of sentences from L2 into L1) from most useful to least useful. Please see table 2 at the end of this section for a summary of the results.

Match-exercises were liked by three students (12.5 %) and disliked by two (8.3 %). According to Laufer and Girsai (2008), the learning of words is more successful when the tasks for students combine three elements: “need”, “search”, and “evaluation”. “Need” implies that the word is perceived by the student as vitally important for task completion. “Search” is the attempt to find the meaning of an unknown L2 word by finding the translation in a dictionary or trying to infer the meaning from context. “Evaluation” implies the student’s decision about the word being
appropriate to its context. Three of the presented types of tasks fulfil these requirements, but perhaps more so the fill-in-the-blank task. As already mentioned, Folse (2006) found that the repeated fill-in-the-blank task resulted in the highest levels of vocabulary retention, however, the students of this study did not seem to particularly like nor dislike fill-in-the-blank exercises, as only three students (12.5 %) marked it as their preferred strategy for learning vocabulary, and none chose it as their least preferred strategy.

*Kahoot* was selected as a favorite classroom activity in the questionnaire, and all students unanimously believed it to be the activity that provided the most effective vocabulary learning. It is considered to be the most useful vocabulary learning tool by ten students (41.6 %) and not useful by only two (8.3 %). After discussing these finds with some fellow teachers at the school, we came to the conclusion that any web-enhanced instruction is usually most welcome among students, and even more so when there is something completely new, something they have never tried before. The students’ competitive spirit undoubtedly also plays a large part in the popularity that the activity arises. The surge of immediate satisfaction that achievement provides, together with the possibility to get noticeably better and improve their performance within a short period of time, is a great driving force and supplies a bonus that encourages students to keep trying in order to get better.

Crosswords ended up as being the alternative which the fewest students considered to be a useful vocabulary learning strategy: Only two students (8.3 %) chose it as preferred, and fourteen chose it as least preferred (58.3 %). An explanation for these results could be that this type of task presents the target words in isolation and does not require a high involvement load on the part of the student, nor provides occasion for using the new words in a meaningful context. A high involvement load is important because it is said to favor the “depth of processing” concept as first proposed by Craik and Lockhart (1972, p. 675-676). This concept has been used to suggest that the deeper the learner’s cognitive engagement with a new vocabulary item through, for example, making a range of connections with existing knowledge or using the item in some meaningful way, the greater the likelihood that the item will be retained. These “deeper” strategies then form effective links between new knowledge and the learner’s existing knowledge sometimes called “scripts and schemas” (Cook, 1997, p. 87). Cook explained how schemas are used by speakers of a language to help them to process what they read and hear effectively, and hinted at their possible role in language teaching.
The translation task, on the contrary, was quite popular, as six students named it their preferred type of task and preferred vocabulary-learning strategy (25 %). Translation tasks incorporate the elements of “need”, “search” and “evaluation”, as there could be more than one valid translation for a sentence. Learners are required to make several decisions in the process of creating their final product. Translation into L2 is a manifestation of pushed output. In order to translate, the learner is required to produce language. In addition, translation tasks are a type of deeper processing activity. In spite of Folse’s findings that deeper processing activities were only about half as effective as numerous practice encounters with target items (Folse, 2006, p. 289), translation tasks seem to be a type of task that elicits learner’s engagement. Fortunately, Laufer and Girsai conclude in their article that translation should be at least as effective as other pushed output tasks for learning vocabulary: “translation is a task with a high involvement load, it can be assumed that it will be effective in vocabulary learning” (Laufer & Girsai, 2008, p. 699). Students in the present study also think that translation is a very good strategy to acquire vocabulary, and they consider it to be the next best strategy.

During the sixth lesson in the study, the students were also asked to write their own sentences using the new words. This has proven to be an effective way of practicing the words through repetition, but, in addition, the students’ effort to produce their own sentences, known as generation, is also a means of achieving internalization. ‘Laufer and Girsay (2008, p.697) propose, “when learners produce language and stretch their linguistic resources in the process, they improve their language production and their language development”. Laufer and Girsay mention the “pushed output” hypothesis from Swain (1985), and Swain and Lapkin (1995), as an explanation for this phenomenon (Laufer & Girsay, 2008, p. 697-698). Additionally, they cite Ellis and He (1999) and De la Fuente (2002) for empirical evidence that output tasks are more effective than input tasks for learning new words (Laufer & Girsay, 2008, p. 698). Empirical evidence suggests, “a word’s meaning is more likely to be remembered in a ‘productive word-focused task’ than simply through reading, even when the word is looked up in a dictionary” (Laufer, 2003, p. 581). Twenty students (83.3 %) answered in question 14 that it was easier to try to memorize the new words at home after they had worked with them at school, which substantiates this claim.
A secondary aim of the study in this thesis was to find out whether students based their learning on automated repetition of the words as a strategy for memorizing new words, not necessarily translating or explaining them, and question 12 tried to discover if the students preferred oral or written repetition. The audio-lingual approach (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 44-63) put great emphasis on the importance of speaking, and used oral drills to learn words and expressions. My experience is that most students seem to need to write down the words to be able to memorize them, for them oral repetition is not enough.

Sixteen students in this study answered that the combination of reading/writing down the words was more helpful for them than listening/repeating. They represent 66.6% of the group. Writing down the words helps quite naturally the visual learners, while other students, whom we could place in the “verbalizer”-category proposed by Leutner and Plass (1998), are not aided by it. For them, vocabulary learning is essentially repeating words, to memorize them. Eight students (33.3 %) in this study answered that this is the more useful method for them. It has been claimed that, for some students, particularly the low-ability students, the effort to process both verbal and visual information about unknown words may result in high cognitive load (Plass, Chun, Mayer & Leutner, 2003, p.225). This was also reported by the lower-intermediate level students in the study who thought that it was too difficult to remember both the pronunciation of the word and its spelling.

Regarding the issue of how many exposures to a particular word are needed in order for the student to learn the word, very different research results have been obtained. As mentioned earlier, figures vary from the loose figure of 5-16 exposures given by Nation (Nation, 1990, p. 43-44), or the 5-7 repetitions quoted by Tinkham (Tinkham, 1993, p. ), to the eight times or more recommended by Horst et al. in 1998 (Horst et al., 1998, p. 213). Again, Kahoot seems to be an excellent tool for achieving learning, as words are repeated in several occasions, and the students are then widely exposed to them, increasing the chances for achieving a higher pick-up rate.

3.2.1 Summary of main findings compiled with the questionnaire. Table 2 is a summary of the results collected by the questionnaire about the students’ preferred type of task. According to these results, we appreciate that students seem to value activities that provide them with occasions for repetition of the target words, and especially in a challenging and fun way like Kahoot does. It confirms what my experience said about most students basing their learning
mainly on oral and/or written repetition of the words as a strategy for memorizing them, and it also confirms the fact that more exposure to the words leads to their acquisition.

The results also show that students value working with productive exercises that lead to the creation of meaningful output, especially the ones that allow students to incorporate words that they feel they have a need for, in order to be able to express what they want to say. This type of exercises, like original sentence writing or sentence translation, are challenging tasks, since they require a high cognitive load, and, in addition, the students need to concentrate both in negotiation of form and negotiation of meaning. Nevertheless, they are perceived as successful learning strategies.

The results also prove that vocabulary learning is a cumulative process involving different aspects of knowledge, and that learners need to meet words in many different settings in order to pay due attention to them and recognize the words’ importance and value for constructing one’s own utterances.

### TABLE 2

*Types of exercise preferred by the students*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of exercise</th>
<th>No. of students who prefer it the most</th>
<th>No. of students who put it at least preferred exercise type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Match-exercises</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fill-in-the-gap exercises</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Kahoot</em></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crosswords</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation L2 to L1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.3 Conversations with students

Some of the information gathered by classroom observation and some results of the questionnaire were dealt with in informal conversations, which the teacher carried out with students in an effort to gain a deeper understanding of what classroom activities, and tasks the students favor as the learning strategies that work best when they are set on acquiring vocabulary.
Students who during the first lesson had written down only some of the new words in their notebooks reported that they preferred to write down verbs and nouns, which corroborates McCrostie’s finding in 2007 that students favor certain parts of speech (McCrostie, 2007, p. 246). Laufer also comments on this particular issue: “It is sometimes argued that certain grammatical categories are more difficult to learn than others. Nouns seem to be the easiest; adverbs—the most difficult; verbs and adjectives—somewhere in between” (Laufer, 1990, p.298).

Students agreed that vocabulary exercises contributed to make L2 new words more salient by drawing special attention to them, and they believed this might result in better learning, but they informed that sometimes these repetitive exercises became quite boring and did not serve this purpose anymore, so that this type of exercises was not especially valued among learners. This could be one reason for the unexpected success of the game-like Kahoot. Indeed, its novelty and freshness are very appealing, and the competition part of the game is bound to engage keen students who want to show off their skills and how quickly they are in answering.

Repetition of the new foreign words in either their written or oral forms was reported as a strategy which helped learners make the new word familiar. The concept of “familiarity” seems to be a key factor. Naturally, it is easier to remember L2 words that resemble words in one’s mother tongue, and learners who speak other languages seem to have an advantage since they can also take into use their knowledge of these other languages. Students were well aware that the more words you know, the easier it is to learn new words. Anyway, many learners reported their need to associate a new word to another word that they already knew in order to remember the new one, as a vocabulary learning strategy. Another way of making a word “familiar” to the student could be to associate it to another known word or words, for example some L1 words that resemble the target item in their phonological realization, even though there is no semantic connection. It is advantageous to make learners aware of similarities. Other methods are the use of mnemonic techniques, or repeating words aloud, or even singing, as the latter is generally said to help better than silent repetition.

There are comprehensive reviews on the effectiveness of such mnemonic techniques in foreign language vocabulary learning (e.g., Nation, 1982). In these reviews, the keyword method is superior to almost all other methods tested (e.g., rote repetition, semantic methods, or placing
Learning to use mnemonic keyword techniques is fairly uncomplicated and quickly done, and this method appears to give good results for immediate recall, but repetition is still said to be superior for long-term results. However, mnemonic techniques are devised for remembering L1-L2 word pairs, and vocabulary acquisition is more than simply learning a collection of word pairs, since many words have multiple meanings and multiple nuances in their meanings.

On the issue of repetition as a vocabulary learning strategy, empirical results are relatively unanimous in that repeating words aloud helps retention far better than silent repetition. As mentioned in chapter 2 when dealing with previous research, Seibert (1927), and more recently Hill (1994) found that studying aloud always produced better results than studying silently. The students also reported that repeating words aloud, or even singing them, was more useful for them to remember these new words, and consequently they quite liked this method.

The task for the students in which they produced their own sentences incorporating the target words is, according to research, a very positive activity in order to incorporate new vocabulary. According to the “pushed output” hypothesis from Swain (1985) writing original language with the new vocabulary items would be likely to produce better vocabulary results since students are forced to produce output instead of just receiving input. Another study mentioned in previous research that supports this view is the one carried out by Hulstijn in 1998. Despite the encouraging results in the studies mentioned, the students in the present study all thought that this was one of the most difficult tasks for them. In this type of task, the students reported focusing mostly on the meaning of the sentences and using the new word in an appropriate context, and often this resulted in somewhat awkward grammar, in their own words: “sentences that did not sound good”. As a result of its inherent difficulty accompanied by results that were not too satisfactory, but at the same time considered by students to provoke learning, this kind of activity was both one of the most appreciated (second-best liked, after Kahoot) and one of the less favorably valued by the students (after crosswords, which received the worst evaluation).

3.4 Assessment of the students’ vocabulary acquisition with a test
After completing all the tasks, including the written essay, the students were tested a week later on the acquisition of the target items by means of a written test which was both of a receptive
and a productive nature (see Appendix 6). The reason to choose this type of test is that tests that are only receptive tend to be easier, and a balanced test difficulty was desirable. According to Melka (Melka, 1997, p. 92) “several estimates of receptive and productive vocabularies conclude that receptive vocabulary is double that of productive vocabulary”. We can use a concept that has been mentioned before to explain this difference: the concept of familiarity. It is easier for a student to recognize a word when he or she sees it and then recalls its meaning, than to produce a L2 word when given the L1 equivalent. It seems that the word must be completely assimilated in order to be produced by the student, and this would then be a more accurate way of testing true language acquisition.

As the purpose was only to test vocabulary, the target words were presented in isolation, in what is called a “definition recall test”. Some scholars argue that these tests can be highly reliable and efficient measures of learner competence. Yet another reason to assess learners’ vocabulary acquisition through the use of a vocabulary test is that it gives immediate feedback to learners on their vocabulary learning skills, and only this aspect of language acquisition. This type of test allows many learners to feel quite satisfied about their results, which of course, has a positive influence on the learners’ further motivation in acquiring more vocabulary. Learners also believe that “their subsequent learning will be easier because they will then face less unknown material” (Folse, 2006, p.276).

The answers to question 18 in the questionnaire show there was over 83 % of the students who thought that their vocabulary learning strategies were successful (a total of 20 students out of 24). Only two students reported they were usually not happy about their results in tests, and two students did not answer that question. It is actually the only question in the questionnaire that some of the students chose not to answer.

It is interesting to compare this number with the actual percentage of students that did well in the vocabulary test: 88 % of the students passed the test with a mark of 3 or higher, 74 % of all students had a good score in the test (4 or higher), and actually 63 % had a very good score (5 or higher). These results show that the vocabulary learning strategies used by the students worked rather well, at least in the short term. Unfortunately, these results do not throw any light as to which learning strategies the students prefer, they only bear witness to the fact that whatever strategies they use, they do work, and the students have, to a great extent, successfully learned the target words of the vocabulary.
In the test there were 20 words, each one awarded 1 point if spelt correctly. The grades distribution being as shown in table 3.

**TABLE 3**

*Grades distribution*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19 - 20</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 - 18</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 14</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 - 10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - 6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 - 3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 4**

*Distribution of students’ results on vocabulary test*

![Graph showing distribution of students' results on vocabulary test]
4. Pedagogical Implications

EFL learners are well aware of the limitations that lack of vocabulary knowledge entail for their ability to understand or to express themselves correctly in English. Research points out how important vocabulary is for L2 learners in all of the different language learning skills: Reading, speaking, listening, and writing. Folse cites Schmitt (2000) asserting that “L2 students need approximately 2,000 words to maintain conversations, 3,000 word families to read authentic texts, and as many as 10,000 words to comprehend challenging academic texts” (Folse, 2006, p. 273). It is only natural that learners consider vocabulary acquisition quite important. Teachers, curriculum developers, and textbook and EFL material authors must be able to recognize this wish of the students in order to respond adequately with teaching materials suited for teaching vocabulary. All the more so, since everything points at the explicit teaching of vocabulary resulting in better retention than incidental learning from reading and guessing from context.

I will now use the findings in this study to recommend instructional tasks and classroom activities that enhance vocabulary acquisition for L2 learners, according to what the students themselves prefer. Maybe those who have assumed that students retain new vocabulary better by writing their own original sentences, as well as those who think that repeating correct model-sentences is the right thing to do, might want to reconsider their approaches.

According to Hulstijn and Laufer’s involvement index (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001, p. 550) fill-in-the-blank exercises induce less involvement than writing original sentences, as they are rated as high need (2), medium search (1), and medium evaluation (1), for a score of 4, while sentence-writing exercises are high need (2), medium search (1), and high evaluation (2), for a score of 5. Thus, traditionally, exercises involving learner-generated context have been considered to be more useful in vocabulary learning than fill-in-the-blank exercises, but as it has been demonstrated in this study, a higher involvement cognitive load does not necessarily imply that the learner will gain better retention of the target items. Folse, quite originally, argues that “a more important factor in the efficacy of an exercise type is multiple retrievals of the target word” (Folse, 2006, p.287). In his study, “the mean score for students who did three completion exercises (4.78) was double that for students who wrote original sentences (2.39) and more than double that for those who did one completion exercise (2.18)” (Folse, 2006, p. 287). The results of Folse’s study indicate that the value of vocabulary exercises lies in that they require encountering the target words several times.
Doing multiple target word retrievals in an exercise, no matter how superficial the exercise may seem, is a stronger and more facilitative factor in L2 vocabulary learning than the purported deeper processing or involvement load that writing original sentences with new L2 vocabulary may offer (Folse, 2006, p. 287).

As students seem to have a definite idea as to which type of exercises they like best and enjoy repeating them, and repeating the target words is the key for them to acquire vocabulary, the results of the study strongly indicate that teachers should consider investing time in the classroom for activities that involve new technologies and blended learning.

Comprehension of a text containing new words can logically be enhanced by explaining the difficult words in the text, but beyond providing definitions, the teacher should present the students with multiple exposures to the word in context. This allows “deep processing of information about the words” (Stahl, 1986, cited by Nagy, 1997, p.73). Quantity seems to be the key element, above other considerations. Memorizing is triggered by revision and repetition. Kachroo (1962, cited in Nation, 1990, p. 43) found that if words were repeated 7 or more times in a textbook the students learnt them, while “words featured only once or twice in the book were not learnt”. As textbooks usually do not present new words repeatedly, introducing them a few times in different contexts is the method through which we as teachers should make sure that the students find the words at least the recommended amount of times needed for acquisition.

5. Summary and Conclusion

Acquiring a large and varied vocabulary is essential for communicative competence. The main aim of the present study was to discover how learners of English as a L2 best managed to achieve effective vocabulary learning, following their own preferences. The results of the study were determined by the circumstances under which the study took place, and by the nature and limitations of the participants in the study, but it is my hope that some of the results can be extrapolated to similar learning situations.

The results of this study have been discussed accompanied by several key concepts such as the ‘noticing’ hypothesis, ‘pushed output’, ‘task-induced involvement load’, the influence that L1 exerts on the acquisition of L2 vocabulary, and the Focus on Form perspective applied to vocabulary acquisition.
It turns out that the primary goal for the students should be to notice the new words, and then find them several times, in different contexts, the more, the better. The present study corroborates that vocabulary exercises in general help students to remember words better, mainly because they provide the numerous opportunities for word retrieval and repetition. It is therefore recommended to dedicate some time to classroom activities whose purpose is the repetition of vocabulary items, and especially two essentially different types of activities. On the one side, pushed output exercises, a suitable means of providing the opportunity to use the words meaningfully that requires concentration, and, therefore, a high load cognitive engagement. On the other side, playful and ludic activities that not only promote learning, but are also enjoyable for the students, as these type of activities are the preferred option by them. Still, the key words for consolidation of the target items are repetition and variation of the type of task.

Students are in general aware that some words are more frequent and therefore more important than others, but they are also unable to decide which. Letting students select the target words on their own is not recommended. The teacher must make sure that the students learn useful words, at the proper level, and the use of lists of high-frequency words can prove to be extremely useful for this purpose. It is also useful to remember that students have a tendency to concentrate on learning verbs and nouns, which are the easiest grammatical categories, and accordingly what students deem ‘important’ words, while adverbs—the most difficult words to learn; and adjectives are very often forgotten. Teachers should introduce a balanced selection of words containing all grammatical categories.

This study concluded as well that it is easier to remember a word if the student feels a need to understand it, and actively seeks a translation or an explanation of its meaning. The main factor remains that attention is drawn to the word in its context or contexts several times. At least five to seven exposures to a particular word are needed in order for the student to learn it.

Assessing learners’ vocabulary acquisition with a vocabulary test is always a good idea, as immediate feedback to learners has a positive influence on their motivation. Most learners are satisfied with the results of their learning and they feel successful, plus a very high percentage attains a good score. However, it may be wise to remember that these are results in the short term, and that sustained follow-up is always essential for long-term results.

The most important finding of this study is that even better than acquiring vocabulary, is for the students to acquire the skills that will help them develop further vocabulary acquisition.
Since students may have diverse learning styles or simply different ways they like to study, the ultimate practical recommendation for improving classroom teaching with regard to teaching vocabulary is that teachers may want to use different teaching methods to accommodate different learners’ needs, and to avoid tedious repetition. The best teaching plan may be to introduce students to a variety of learning strategies and techniques and let them decide for themselves which ones they prefer. At the same time, the focus must be placed on repetition, since what seems to be really important for good vocabulary acquisition is that learners are allowed to encounter the new words a number of times, and not just once or twice.
References


Appendices

Appendix 1

List of the new words:

Segregation
  Prejudice
  Retaliate
  Rigid
  Cowardice
  Dictate
  Election
  Negotiation
  Resentment
  Persistence
  Claim
  Emancipation
  Stubborn
  Equal
  Pursuit of independence
  Funeral pyre
  Passive resistance
  Amendment
  Assassination
  To fast / To fast to death
Points of departure

In the news reports from around the world we often hear the terms “human rights” (menneskerettigheter/menneskerettet) and “civil rights” (borgerrettigheter/borgerrettet). But what do they really mean? According to the dictionary, civil rights are those rights that you are entitled to as a citizen of a particular country. Human rights are those to which all human beings are entitled.

Sit in pairs/small groups and discuss the following questions:
1. What are the most important civil rights you have as a Norwegian citizen?
2. Name five things that you regard as basic human rights.

The Road to Freedom – Three Key Figures

The struggle for civil rights and against racism has been one of the most important movements of the 20th century. In this movement three figures stand out: Mahatma Gandhi, Martin Luther King Jr. and Nelson Mandela. They are from three different continents and very different social backgrounds, but they have a lot in common.

Mahatma Gandhi

Mahatma Gandhi has been called “the father of India” and led the country’s struggle for independence from British rule. Drawing on Hindu traditions Gandhi preached a philosophy of non-violence, and his methods of protest – boycotts, civil disobedience and non-cooperation – have become models for many other civil rights movements around the world. Gandhi was shot dead by a Hindu radical in 1948. He lived to see the end of British rule, but to his great sorrow, he also saw his country divided into an Islamic Pakistan and a predominantly Hindu India.

Between 1893 and 1915 Gandhi lived in South Africa, working as a lawyer. Here he experienced racism firsthand, and many of the ideas that shaped his later political career were born during his South African period. In this extract from his autobiography he tells of an experience he had early in his stay, on a train journey from Durban to Pretoria:
On the seventh or eighth day after my arrival, I left Durban. A first class seat was booked for me. It was usual there to pay five shillings extra, if one needed a bedding. Abdulla Sheth insisted that I should book one bedding but, out of obstinacy and pride and with a view to saving five shillings, I declined. Abdulla Sheth warned me. ‘Look, now,’ said he, ‘this is a different country from India. Thank God, we have enough and to spare. Please do not stint yourself in anything that you may need.’

I thanked him and asked him not to be anxious.

The train reached Maritzburg, the capital of Natal, at about 9 p.m. Beddings used to be provided at this station. A railway servant came and asked me if I wanted one. ‘No,’ said I, ‘I have one with me.’ He went away. But a passenger came next, and looked me up and down. He saw that I was a ‘coloured’ man. This disturbed him. Out he went and came in again with one or two officials. They all kept quiet, then another official came to me and said, ‘Come along, you must go to the van compartment.’

‘But I have a first class ticket,’ said I.

‘That doesn’t matter,’ rejoined the other. ‘I tell you, you must go to the van compartment.’
'I tell you, I was permitted to travel in this compartment at Durban, and I insist on going on in it.'

'No, you won't,' said the official. 'You must leave this compartment, or else I shall have to call a police constable to push you out.'

'Yes, you may. I refuse to get out voluntarily.'

The constable came. He took me by the hand and pushed me out. My luggage was also taken out. I refused to go to the other compartment and the train steamed away. I went and sat in the waiting room, keeping my hand-bag with me, and leaving the other luggage where it was. The railway authorities had taken charge of it.

It was winter, and winter in the higher regions of South Africa is severely cold. Maritzburg being at a high altitude, the cold was extremely bitter. My overcoat was in my luggage, but I did not dare to ask for it lest I should be insulted again, so I sat and shivered. There was no light in the room. A passenger came in at about midnight and possibly wanted to talk to me. But I was in no mood to talk.

I began to think of my duty. Should I fight for my rights or go back to India, or should I go on to Pretoria without minding the insults, and return to India after finishing the case? It would be cowardice to run back to India without fulfilling my obligation. The hardship to which I was subjected was superficial – only a symptom of the deep disease of colour prejudice. I should try, if possible, to root out the disease and suffer hardships in the process. Redress for wrongs I should seek only to the extent that would be necessary for the removal of the colour prejudice.

**Martin Luther King Jr.**

Martin Luther King was a Baptist minister who became the leading figure in the struggle against racial segregation and for civil rights in America in the ‘50s and ‘60s. He was a great admirer of Gandhi and, even in the face of brutal opposition, always argued for non-violent protest. King was a gifted public speaker and his “I Have a Dream” speech has become one of the most-quoted speeches ever made. He was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1964. He was assassinated in 1968 by a racist.

King grew up in the 1930s in Atlanta, Georgia. His was a close-knit, religious family, and he describes his childhood as happy. But the American South at this time was very much a segregated society. Blacks were not allowed to attend the same schools, or sit in the same areas of restaurants, waiting rooms etc. as whites. In this extract he describes his first experience of racism:
I always had a resentment towards the system of segregation and felt that it was a grave injustice. I remember a trip to a downtown shoe store with Father when I was still small. We had sat down in the first empty seats at the front of the store. A young white clerk came up and murmured politely:

“I’ll be happy to wait on you if you’ll just move to those seats in the rear.”

Dad immediately retorted, “There’s nothing wrong with these seats. We’re quite comfortable here.”

“Sorry,” said the clerk, “but you’ll have to move.”

“We’ll either buy shoes sitting here,” my father retorted, “or we won’t buy shoes at all.”

Whereupon he took me by the hand and walked out of the store. This was the first time I had seen Dad so furious. That experience revealed to me at a very early age that my father had not adjusted to the system, and he played a great part in shaping my conscience. I still remember walking down the street beside him as he muttered, “I don’t care how long I have to live with this system, I will never accept it.”

And he never has. I remember riding with him another day when he accidentally drove past a stop sign. A policeman pulled up to the car and said:

“All right, boy, pull over and let me see your license.”

My father instantly retorted: “Let me make it clear to you that you aren’t talking to a boy. If you persist in referring to me as a boy, I will be forced to act as if I don’t hear a word you are saying.”

The policeman was so shocked in hearing a Negro talk to him so forthrightly that he didn’t quite know how to respond. He nervously wrote the ticket and left the scene as quickly as possible.

“The angriest I have ever been”

There was a pretty strict system of segregation in Atlanta. For a long, long time I could not go swimming, until there was a Negro YMCA. A Negro child in Atlanta could not go to any public park. I could not go to the so-called white schools. In many of the stores downtown, I couldn’t go to a lunch counter to buy a hamburger or a cup of coffee. I could not attend any of the theaters. There were one or two Negro theaters, but they didn’t get any of the main pictures. If they did get them, they got them two or three years later.

When I was about eight years old, I was in one of the downtown stores of Atlanta and all of a sudden someone slapped me, and the only thing I heard was somebody saying, “You are that nigger that stepped on my foot.”
And it turned out to be a white lady. Of course I didn’t retaliate at any point; I wouldn’t dare retaliate when a white person was involved. I think some of it was part of my native structure – that is, that I have never been one to hit back. I finally told my mother what had happened, and she was very upset about it. But the lady who slapped me had gone, and my mother and I left the store almost immediately.

I remember another experience I used to have in Atlanta. I went to high school on the other side of town – to the Booker T. Washington High School. I had to get the bus in what was known as the Fourth Ward and ride over to the West Side. In those days, rigid patterns of segregation existed on the buses, so that Negroes had to sit in the back of the buses. Whites were seated in the front, and often if whites didn’t get on the buses, those seats were still reserved for whites only, so Negroes had to stand over empty seats. I would end up having to go to the back of that bus with my body, but every time I got on that bus I left my mind up on the front seat. And I said to myself, “One of these days, I’m going to put my body up there where my mind is.”

Nelson Mandela

Nelson Mandela grew up in a village in the Transkei in South Africa. A promising student, he trained as a lawyer and became a leading figure in the African National Congress (ANC), a movement fighting against his country’s apartheid regime. Although he was an admirer of both Gandhi and King, Mandela saw non-violence as a useful method rather than an inviolable principle. He became the leader of the ANC’s military wing. Imprisoned in 1963 he remained in jail for 27 years. However, his importance as leader of the fight against apartheid only grew, and when he was released from jail in 1990, after negotiations with the apartheid regime, it took only three years before he was elected President of South Africa in the first free elections ever held in the country. He was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize (together with F.W. de Klerk, leader of the last apartheid government) in 1993.

In the following extract from Mandela's autobiography The Road to Freedom, he tells of his first post as a lawyer at the firm of Witkin, Sidelsky and Eidelman in Johannesburg:

I met most of the firm’s staff on my first day in the office, including the one other African employee, Gaur Radebe, with whom I shared an office. Ten years my senior, Gaur was a clerk, interpreter and messenger.
He was a short, stocky, muscular man, fluent in English, Sotho and Zulu, and expressing himself in all of them with precision, humour and confidence. He had strong opinions and even stronger arguments to back them up and was a well-known figure in black Johannesburg.

That first morning at the firm, a pleasant young white secretary, Miss Lieberman, took me aside and said, “Nelson, we have no colour bar here at the law firm.” She explained that at midmorning, the tea-man arrived in the front parlour with tea on a tray and a number of cups. “In honour of your arrival, we have purchased two new cups for you and Gaur,” she said.

“The secretaries take cups of tea to the principals but you and Gaur will take your own tea, just as we do. I will call you when the tea comes, and then you can take your tea in the new cups.” She added that I should convey this message to Gaur. I was grateful for her ministrations, but I knew that the ‘two new cups’ she was so careful to mention were evidence of the colour bar that she said did not exist. The secretaries might share tea with two Africans, but not the cups with which to drink it.

When I told Gaur what Miss Lieberman had said, I noticed his expression change as he listened, just as you can see a mischievous idea enter the head of a child. “Nelson,” he said, “at tea-time, don’t worry about anything. Just do as I do.” At 11 o’clock, Miss Lieberman informed us that tea had arrived. In front of the secretaries and some of the other members of the firm, Gaur went over to the tea tray and ostentatiously ignored the two new cups, selecting instead one of the old ones, and proceeded to put in generous portions of sugar, milk and then tea. He stirred his cup slowly, and then stood there drinking it in a very self-satisfied way. The secretaries stared at Gaur and then Gaur nodded to me, as if to say, “It is your turn, Nelson.”

For a moment I was in a quandary. I neither wanted to offend the secretaries nor alienate my new colleague, so I settled on what seemed to me the most prudent course of action: I declined to have any tea at all. I said I was not thirsty. I was then just twenty-three years old, and just finding my feet as a man, as a resident of Johannesburg and as an employee of a white firm, and I saw the middle path as the best and most reasonable one. Thereafter, at tea-time, I would go to the small kitchen in the office and take my tea there in solitude.

The secretaries were not always so thoughtful. Some time later, when I was more experienced at the firm, I was dictating some information to a white secretary when a white client whom she knew came into the office. She was embarrassed, and to demonstrate that she was not taking dictation from an African, she took a sixpence from her purse and said stiffly, “Nelson, please go out and get me some shampoo from the chemist.” I left the room and got her shampoo.
Appendix 3

Crossword

Keyword (down): the name of the prisoner who became President.

1. to say something under your breath
2. the name of South Africa's segregation policy
3. the adjective of "anxiety" (angst)
4. "Aripasse seg"
5. "forom" 
6. to hit back
7. Am.E. "baggage" Br. E. "............."

Crossword

Here are the definitions of some English words. What words are they describing?

1. To state that something is true, even though it hasn’t been proven.
2. A talk about a particular subject.
3. A group of people who make the rules and important decisions.
4. A particular way of thinking about a subject.
5. A ruler who has complete power in a country.

Activities

- 4 Research (p. 234)
- Crossword
- Sort into parts of speech
- Choose the right noun
- Join up the synonyms
- Find professions!
- Crossword
- Vocabulary - match up synonyms
- AIDS in South Africa
Appendix 4

The following tasks are based on the topic: “People who have made a difference”.

Write a comprehensive and thorough answer to either 2A, 2B, 2C or 2D

2A

How would you like to make a positive difference in the future – either in your working or private life? Write a text about how you can make a positive difference for other people.

Your text should include:

- an introduction of the kind of difference you would like to make
- reasons for your choice
- your thoughts about how you will go about making a difference
- the effects you hope this will have
- reflections on your personal views about making a difference
- a conclusion

Feel free to add your own points.

Give your text a suitable title.

2B

Write a text comparing the lives and achievements of two people from English-speaking countries who you think have made an important difference in society.

Your text should include:

- an introduction
- some background information about the two people, their achievements and why you chose them
- a comparison of how and why they made a difference
- a discussion about why you think their achievements are or were important
- a conclusion

Feel free to add your own points.

Give your text a suitable title.
2C

Literature and films sometimes make people think about social issues and may influence their opinions and attitudes. This is also a way of making a difference. Write an article about a film or piece of literature that you have studied as part of your English course this year which you think could have this kind of effect.

Your article should include:

- an introduction
- a description of the context of the film or literary text you have chosen
- an explanation of the issue raised by the text or film
- a discussion of the influence the film or text could have on its audience
- a conclusion

Feel free to add your own points.

Give your article a suitable title.

2D

Write a short story based on Oprah Winfrey’s statement that “one small thoughtful gesture [action] can make someone else’s day”.

Your short story must:

- be clearly set in an English-speaking country and show knowledge of that country
- involve a small, everyday action
- show good understanding of the examination topic
- show aspects of the short story genre
- include some dialogue

Give your short story a suitable title.
Appendix 5

QUESTIONNAIRE: Vocabulary learning strategies

Vi leste en tekst på skolen der det var mange ord som var nye for mange av dere. Dere fikk beskjed om at disse ordene var viktige, og det var ord man kunne bruke senere i anledning skrivedag / skriftlig innlevering. Vennligst tenk på hvordan du lærer deg nye engelske ord.

1) I gjennomsnitt, hvor mye trenger du å øve på nye ord for å lære dem?
   □ Jeg må konsentrere meg hardt, og øve mye for å kunne huske ordene etterpå.
   □ Jeg trenger bare å se på ordene et par ganger for å huske dem.
   □ Jeg øver mye, men det er vanskelig å huske nye ord.

2) Når vi leser en tekst på skolen, legger du merke til de nye ordene i teksten?
   □ Ja   □ Nei

3) Når du ser et nytt ord i en tekst,
   □ tror du at det ordet er viktig for å forstå teksten og ser opp i ordboka med en gang, eller spør læreren hva det betyr?
   □ eller prøver du å gjette hva ordet betyr ut i fra konteksten?

4) Synes du at det er viktigere å lære
   □ alle de nye ordene du finner når du leser en tekst
   □ noen av de nye ordene du finner når du leser en tekst, etter som hvor viktige de ser ut til å være for å forstå teksten
   □ de ordene du får i en liste fra læreren

5) Er det lettere å huske nye ord når du vet hva de betyr?
   □ Ja   □ Nei
6) Er det lettere å huske nye ord hvis du har bladd dem opp i ordboka eller du spurte læreren hva de betyr?
   □ Ja □ Nei

7) Er det lettere å huske nye ord når læreren har skrevet dem på tavla i timen?
   □ Ja □ Nei

8) Synes du at å jobbe med oppgaver som crosswords, fill-in-the-gap, Kahoot osv. er nyttig når du skal øve nye ord?
   □ Ja □ Nei

9) Vennligst rangér disse oppgaver etter hvor nyttige du synes de er:
   ___ match-oppgaver hvor man tegner en strek mellom de engelske ordene og deres norske oversettelser,
   ___ fill-in the gap oppgaver hvor du skriver det engelske ordet som mangler i en setning,
   ___ crosswords,
   ___ Kahoot,
   ___ oversette setninger fra engelsk til norsk.

10) Hvilken av disse 4 alternativer synes du er mest nyttig for å huske nye ord?
    ___ å bruke ordboka
    ___ å snakke med medelevene om hva ordet kan bety
    ___ å øve med “vocabulary exercises” som de nevnt i forrige spørsmål
    ___ å oversette setninger fra engelsk til norsk

11) Er du klar over at det er ord som brukes oftere på engelsk, og de er derfor viktigere enn andre?
    □ Ja □ Nei
12) Hva synes du hjelper deg mer når du skal lære deg nye ord?
   ___ å lese/skrive de nye ordene mange ganger
   ___ å lytte/gjenta de nye ordene mange ganger

13) Bruker du web-siden til læreboka di for å jobbe med oppgaver og øve nye ord når du er hjemme?
    □ Ja     □ Nei

14) Er det lettere å lære seg nye ord når du har jobbet med dem i forskjellige oppgaver på skolen?
    □ Ja     □ Nei

15) Når du leser en tekst med nye ord,
    □ pleier du å skrive både det engelske ord og den norske oversettelse av alle ordene i skriveboka di?
    □ eller pleier du å skrive bare noen av disse ord-parene?

16) Hvis ikke du skriver ned alle ordene, hvorfor det?

17) Hvorfor velger du noen ord og ikke andre?

    □ Ja     □ Nei
Appendix 6

Test - Gloseprøve

Name: ______________________________________________________

1) Oversett disse ordene til engelsk (10 poeng)
   Forhandling
   Segregasjon
   Forordne
   Å sulte seg
   Valg
   Stiv
   Jevnstilt, likeverdig
   Sta
   Jakten for uavhengighet
   Passiv motstand

2) Oversett disse glosene til norsk (10 poeng)
   Assassination
   Prejudice
   Cowardice
   Persistence
   Emancipation
   Amendment
   Retaliate
   Resentment
   Claim
   Funeral pyre

Total: ____/20 poeng
Acknowledgments: Thank you to Jason Love, stand-up comedian and cartoonist, for the free use of his cartoon used on the front page of this essay. © Jason Love. www.jasonlove.com