EAP TEACHERS' COGNITIONS AND PRACTICES IN TEACHING LEXIS IN TWO
TURKISH PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES: AN EXPLORATORY QUALITATIVE STUDY

Thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

at the University of Leicester

by

Sukru Nural

School of Education

University of Leicester

2012

ABSTRACT

A large body of empirical research has suggested that lexis is a major concern for learners and teachers in the language classroom context. A wide recognition of the crucial role of lexis in language learning and teaching culminated in sets of principles proposed by some vocabulary researchers (Barcroft, 2002; Laufer, 2005a; Meara, 2005; Nation, 2005a; Sökmen, 1997; Zimmerman, 2008). However, it is important to acknowledge that teachers know more about the constraints and demands of their own contexts than decontextualised expert principles can allow for. In the present study, the underlying reasons why teachers teach lexis in the way they do are examined. Particularly, the main thrust of the study is to explore the relationship between two EAP teachers' cognitions and practices of lexis teaching in preparatory schools of two private universities in Turkey. The data generation instruments used in the study include classroom observations, field notes, stimulated recall, and semi-structured follow-up interviews. The findings of the study suggest that although the teachers have students with similar profiles and characteristics they seem to have different tendencies towards provision of lexical knowledge. Apart from the factors underpinning the difference in their tendencies, the relationship between teachers' cognitions and practices of lexis teaching were also identified with specific reference to the determinants that have a role to play in the correspondence between their beliefs and actual classroom behaviour. With its implications for teacher education and teacher cognition research, this case study also complements classroom-based research into form-focused instruction in general and lexis instruction in particular.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DEDICATION

To my truly altruistic parents...

WORDS OF WISDOM

"A word is a microcosm of human consciousness".
Lev Vygotsky

"The limits of my language are the limits of my mind. All I know is what I have words for".
Ludwig Wittgenstein

"Words, English words, are full of echoes, memories, associations. They have been out and about, on people's lips, in their houses, on the streets, in the fields, for so many centuries".
Virginia Woolf

"Words are our identity; when we change the words and when we replace them with other words we think they are synonymous, we do not simply meet our communication needs. In fact, following such replacement, the subtleties and associations of these words evaporate, too".

Ahmet Turan Alkan

"Through words we believe, through words we rebel, through words we love, through words we compromise, through words we get angry, through words we gain strength, it is the words we all need the most. Perhaps that is why, God brought us words from the heavens. It is not money, gold or silver, but words...".

Anonymous

DECLARATION

I declare that the present thesis is my own study which has not been previously submitted to other institutions for any other degree or professional qualification.

<div align="right">Sukru Nural</div>

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF EPISODES

ABBREVIATIONS

CK: Content knowledge

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

ELT: English language teaching

FFI: Form-focused instruction

FonF: Focus on form

FonL: Focus-on-lexis

FonFs: Focus on forms

L1: First Language

L2: Second/Foreign Language

LM: Language management

LRE: Language-related episode

LTC: Language teacher cognition

N=: Number of participants

NS: Native Speaker

NNS: Non-Native Speaker

PCK: Pedagogical content knowledge

SLTE: Second language teacher education

SRI: Stimulated recall interview

TLA: Teacher Language Awareness

TRANSCRIPT CONVENTIONS USED IN EPISODES

T: teacher

S: Student

Ss: students, several students at once or the whole class

StD: different student

(((xxx))): inaudible

[   ]: blackboard

_____**:** Turkish word (underlined)

"X": initial of individual student's name

((*italic text*)): description of non-verbal activity

bold: target lexical item

italics: emphasis

1 INTRODUCTION

In the 1970s, Richards (1976:88) pointed out that "vocabulary has for some time been one area of the syllabus where the link between approach, method and technique has been neglected". Meara (1980) also lamented the neglect of vocabulary and the treatment of lexis as a 'step child' (i.e. secondary consideration) in the field of English language teaching (ELT). In recent years, however, there has been a renewed interest in lexis across the world. Broady (2008:259) contended that vocabulary is no longer 'a Cinderella topic', given its widespread coverage in research journals and major concern in language pedagogy. In a recent editorial about trends in language teaching research, Ellis (2013:141) referred to Stapleton's (2013) analysis which indicates that vocabulary has received increasing attention. As an important curricular area in language pedagogy, lexis has emerged an issue in research on teacher language awareness (TLA) (Andrews and McNeill, 2005), form-focused instruction (Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis, 2004), and classroom interaction (Dobinson, 2001).

The present study merges two areas of investigation both of which are characterised by complexity: one is language teacher cognition and the other is lexis teaching. Regarding the former, it has been recognised that the language teaching profession "involves a number of complex systems including language teacher cognitions, student cognitions, language itself, and educational systems in which the national and international contexts play crucial roles" (Feryok, 2010:277). Particularly, what deserves special attention is the influence of teachers' mental lives or 'the hidden side of teaching' on their instructional decisions (Freeman, 2002:1). Likewise, lexical knowledge, too, is considered to be a multifaceted and complex phenomenon which has a range of dimensions (Nation, 2001). Besides, lexis can be regarded as the most personal or individual dimension of language learning and teaching as it is largely contingent on learners' and teachers' mental dictionary. The present inquiry therefore sets out to expand the scope of a language teacher cognition theoretical framework suggesting the need to include EAP teachers' cognitions and pedagogical practices of lexis teaching. Further justifications are provided in the subsequent sections.

1.1 Rationale for the research

The rationale for undertaking the present research project is three-fold: 1. Personal and professional, 2. Educational, and. 3. Intellectual. I will touch upon the three aspects in turn. My primary motivation for choosing the topic under investigation is personal interest. I became interested in lexis both as a language learner of English and Spanish and as an English teacher. As a high-school student and language learner, I witnessed one of my English teachers saying "Look it up in your dictionary!" when my fellow classmates asked the meaning of unknown lexis. My previous teachers' distinct approaches to lexical instruction made me wonder what underlay their pedagogical preferences. The underlying assumption of such behaviour is that the teachers did not perceive themselves as providers of lexical information or as "dictionary". On the other hand, one of my English teachers used to challenge me by asking about the difference in meaning between lexical items (e.g. "*sentenced to*" and "*sentence*"). This personal experience triggered the question as to whether their attitudes would cause discouragement in some learners or arouse a sense of curiosity in others.

Some incidents in my school were, directly or indirectly, influenced by lexis-related events. For example, my experience as a sophomore taught me the importance of words. Despite having similar responses to the exam questions, our scores differed to a large extent. I then realised that the course tutors in the English Literature department were more concerned with how we wrote or expressed ideas than what we wrote. Their warnings in the very beginning of their feedback on the exams where we are assigned to write a commentary on a theme or character in a novel were mostly concerned with language use. This led me to work on the niceties of language in general and its lexical system in particular (e.g. synforms or form similarity between words, pairs, or groups of words in terms of sound, script or morphology; Laufer, 2005a). This endeavour culminated in a published book entitled *Selected Words* for Turkish learners preparing for both language examinations. During my post-graduate study in the University of Leeds, where I audited the sessions delivered by Prof. Simon Borg, I decided to embark on my PhD research project which brings together the areas of language teacher cognition and lexis teaching.

Regarding the intellectual purpose for conducting the present research, exploring experienced teachers' cognitions and practices would be an important learning opportunity that could make me aware of my own philosophy of language teaching as well as my own weaknesses. This could also help enhance my understanding of language pedagogy. Nevertheless, this did not lead me as a researcher to take a particular teaching approach as the most 'effective' means for lexical instruction or to adopt a judgmental stance towards the participating teachers' conceptions of language teaching and preferred practices. The tendency to search for effective teaching methods seems to underestimate the influence of teachers' knowledge and beliefs and their understanding of their contexts and practices on their planning and decision-making. Further, conceptualising 'teacher effectiveness' in a predetermined fashion would undermine the interpretive-exploratory paradigm on which the present study rests. I will now illustrate how my rationale for research has also been substantiated by the current literature by referring to the issues concerning lexis teaching.

1.2   Significance of the present study

Beliefs are important determinants in the employment of new educational activities. It is suggested that "any innovation in classroom practice – from the adoption of a new technique or textbook to the implementation of a new curriculum- has to be accommodated within the teachers' own framework of teaching principles" (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver and Thwaite, 2001:472). It is difficult to implement curriculum and innovation in educational institutions with no awareness of the beliefs held by the agents who deliver the curriculum. Therefore, teachers' personal beliefs need to be investigated prior to introducing curriculum innovations so that those developments are implemented in accordance with such beliefs. Research into language teachers' thinking explains the mental foundations that underlie their professional behaviour and practices, engendering their reflexive engagement with practices devoted to professional development (Borg, 2003ab, 2006; Peacock, 2001).

It is a basic premise of this study that exploring teachers' beliefs about their classroom practices would provide insight into lexis teaching pedagogy. Moreover, in-depth investigation of teachers' practices may lead to a broader understanding of the relationship

between teachers' personal theories or beliefs and their actual classroom practices. Teachers' practical understanding of teaching can, according to Breen *et al.* (2001),

> complement observational studies by enabling research to go beyond description towards the understanding and explanation of teacher action [and] contribute frameworks for language pedagogy emerging directly from classroom work that would generate grounded alternatives to 'accepted wisdom' of language methodology emanating from certain academic traditions or institutions or from writers of textbooks at some distance from actual contexts of teaching (Breen *et al.*, 2001:471-472).

The present study is timely given that the topic is of contemporary interest for practising teachers, applied linguists, materials writers and that there has been a proliferation of publications (Barcroft, 2002; Laufer, 2005a; Meara, 2005; Nation, 2005a; Sökmen, 1997; Zimmerman, 2008) on vocabulary teaching principles *for* teachers as opposed to the principles *of* teachers. Now that both lexical research and teacher cognition inquiry have come to prominence, a greater understanding can emerge from the perceptions of the practising EAP teachers themselves in a relatively underexplored context like Turkey.

Insight into the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices can help teacher educators to identify their professional development needs. As Phipps (2009) states, deeper understanding of the link between teacher education, teacher beliefs and classroom practice may enable teacher educators to make sense of the factors which assist and obstruct teacher learning and to pave the way for a more effective language teacher education. As Ellis, Loewen and Basturkmen (2006:135) advocate, "[t]he study of teachers' beliefs and practices adds to our understanding of how the conditions for successful second language acquisition can be accomplished in the classroom". In order to inform second language teacher education (SLTE), it is of prime importance that we understand to what extent the teachers' personal theories coincide with or diverge from those of experts. I contend that teachers' personal theories can expand the scope of expert theories by revealing the complex realities and dynamism of the language classrooms and by documenting the processes of lexis teaching.

1.3   English for Academic Purposes and the Turkish private university context

English for academic purposes (EAP) is defined as "teaching English with the aim of assisting learners' study or research in that language" (Hyland, 2006:1). EAP has the potential to inform teaching practices in other areas of ELT with its needs driven, contextualised approach. As McDonough (2005:57) suggests, EAP is at the cutting edge of a lot of innovations in language teaching: needs analysis, genre approaches, critical pedagogy, have really been sharpened in EAP and are crossing over to ELT. Flowerdew and Peacock (2001 quoted in Hamp-Lyons, 2011:89) highlight the fact that

> teaching and learning of EAP is a challenging task for students, teachers and curriculum designers. EAP is an eclectic and pragmatic discipline: a wide range of linguistic, applied linguistic and educational topics can be considered from the perspective of EAP, or drawing methodologically to inform EAP. These include classroom language, teaching methodology, teacher education etc (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001:8).

EAP teachers have access to word lists such as the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000) and the University Word List (Xue and Nation, 1984). Even if wordlists are devised to select *what* words need to be taught in EAP contexts, it does not guide teachers concerning *how* to treat those words in a real classroom context. As Coxhead (2008) points out,

> one of the challenges of the AWL is that it was released solely as a list of individual words and their families, with no indication of the context and patterning in which these words occurred. As a result, learners and teachers often focus merely on the recognition of individual AWL words alone, without considering wider and vital aspects of knowing a word including learning and using common collocations and phrases containing these words (Coxhead, 2008:152).

The fact that EAP teachers are provided with academic word lists and principles of lexis teaching proposed by experts does not necessarily mean that they have no concerns about them at all. They have their own principles according to which they make their decisions. As far as vocabulary teaching is concerned, Folse's (2010) recent empirical evidence also suggests that it is the teachers who seem to play a major role in making decisions with regard to dealing with lexis teaching rather than other curriculum factors such as syllabus, coursebook, examinations, or the type of the course. In classrooms of five different types of courses including communication skills, composition, grammar, reading, TOEFL

preparation, Folse found that a much more important factor than the course appeared to be the EAP instructor who either promoted or ignored the learning and teaching of vocabulary. No matter by whom queries about or explanations of lexical items are initiated, it is the teachers who ultimately decide whether, when, why, and how lexical items should be taught during instruction. It should be acknowledged, however, that teachers' in-class decisions are directed to some extent by learners. Some decisions are made jointly rather than solely by the teacher. Teacher responsiveness to learners' interest in lexis requires a comprehensive account of how lexis teaching is perceived and implemented by them.

In the last couple of years, there has been an increase in the number of private universities across Turkey. While the figure was 94 state and 45 private universities in 2009 (OSYM, 2009), there are 103 state universities and 65 private universities across Turkey, according to the current statistics of the Institution of Higher Education (YOK, 2012). This suggests a competition amongst Turkish private universities when it comes to providing English language education. They offer scholarships to high-achieving students depending on their scores in the university entrance examinations. There is a tendency on the part of students to study at private university in preference to well-established public universities due to financial benefits such as stipends plus free accommodation. Another attractive aspect of private universities is the fact that they use English as a medium of instruction.

By and large, Turkish learners of English perceive the learning of languages as highly important. It is worth noting that students' profiles are quite diverse since they have varying language learning experience as a result of their schooling in different types of public and private high schools. Students and their parents have high expectations of the English language education at all levels of education ranging from primary schools to high schools to universities. As Dogancay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe (2005) explain,

> Public schools are classified as standard, vocational, and Anatolian. Standard high schools and vocational schools have no preparatory English but approximately eight periods a week of instruction in English. Anatolian high schools […] are very similar to private high schools in having a year of preparatory English and in using English as a medium of instruction (Dogancay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe, 2005:255).

6

All undergraduates are required to take an English language exam prepared by the university. To be exempt from one-year preparatory course prior to their actual undergraduate studies, students need to take international exams like IELTS (minimum score 6). Students who pass this exam begin their undergraduate programs while those who do not meet the standards of English language proficiency enrol on a preparatory course. The program delivered in private English-medium universities in Turkey has different levels such as Basic English, Intermediate English and Upper-Intermediate English. The program is based on an integrated skills approach as opposed to an approach to language teaching where listening/reading and writing/speaking were taught separately.

The teachers in preparatory schools or Schools of Languages are usually referred to as 'instructors'. In these schools, there are both native and non-native instructors, most of whom hold CELTA or DELTA (Certificate/Diploma in ELT to adults). Non-native instructors are graduates of ELT departments and some of them are English Language and Literature majors. Working in a university setting in Turkey is seen as a more privileged job compared to working in primary and secondary schools.

1.4   Aims of the study

Linking two bodies of research, that is language teacher cognition and lexis instruction, the primary aim of this exploratory and interpretative study is to offer an emic (i.e. insider) perspective on the manner in which EAP teachers' belief systems guide their approach to lexis teaching. This study could provide invaluable insights into the processes of second language (L2) teaching, highlighting and foregrounding the psychological dimensions of lexical instruction or the teachers' mental lives underpinning their everyday lexis teaching practices. The present study aims to portray teachers' perceptions of and assumptions about the teaching of lexis. The factors that contribute to the formation and enactment of their beliefs are also considered crucial. Following a case-study design, it provides an in-depth analysis of teachers' beliefs and observed practices in relation to lexis teaching examined through qualitative research instruments: stimulated recall interviews, semi-structured interviews, classroom observation and field notes. The major aims of the study can be summarised as follows:

- To expand the knowledge base of L2 lexis instruction and teacher cognition by identifying EAP teachers' beliefs about lexical instruction.

- To explore the dynamic relationships that exist between L2 teachers' cognitions and actual pedagogical practices by examining the extent to which their personal theories or beliefs correspond to their actual classroom practices.

1.5   Research Questions

The central question in the present research project asks how EAP teachers approach lexis in their particular contexts and the psychological underpinnings of their instructional practices. This study examines two experienced Turkish university EAP teachers' beliefs about and practices of lexis teaching by addressing the following research questions:

1. What cognitions do the EAP teachers at the preparatory schools of private universities in Turkey hold about L2 lexis teaching?

   a.   What are the similarities and differences in the teachers' cognitions about lexis teaching?

2. How do they approach lexis teaching in their classrooms?

   a.   What actual lexis teaching practices do the teachers implement?
   b.   What are the distinguishing characteristics of their practices in relation to lexis teaching?

3. What is the relationship between their cognitions and practices in lexis teaching?

   a.   To what extent do their lexis teaching beliefs correspond to their practices?
   b.   What tensions do the teachers perceive in relation to lexis teaching?

4. What contextual factors appear to impinge on the teachers' cognitions and practices of treating lexical items?

1.6   Overview of the thesis

This thesis has been divided into six chapters in total. Chapter 1 comprises the Introduction and Chapter 2 is a Literature Review with three sub-sections regarding lexical instruction, language teacher cognition, and teacher cognitions about the teaching of lexis, respectively. The latter sub-section is comprehensive in that it is an amalgamation of the research literature on both teacher cognition and teaching lexis. Chapter 3 discusses methodological issues of research design, data collection and data analysis. Findings and Analysis takes place in Chapter 4 where both analysis of individual cases and cross-case analysis are made. Chapter 5 concentrates on the Discussion of the findings by mostly making references to previous research. Chapter 6 is the Conclusion chapter which provides implications for a number of pedagogical, methodological and research issues as well as the most significant insights that the present research has to offer considering the limitations of the present study and future avenues of investigation.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

The research questions stated above suggest the need for a literature review with three themes including lexis instruction, language teacher cognition and language teacher cognition with specific reference to lexis teaching. In this chapter, I will review a selected set of studies on the basis of a number of substantive themes. The review starts with research on the teaching of lexis, followed by teachers' cognitions in general and proceeds with specific curricular domains alongside sub-activities in these domains and finally ends with those studies which have an exclusive FonL (focus on lexis). A common feature of the reviewed studies is the fact that their findings are somehow, directly or indirectly, related to lexis and that virtually all of them adopt a teacher cognition perspective to the issues under investigation. The methodological approaches of these studies will be discussed where appropriate. It is also worth noting that more details are given about some of the most recent studies not necessarily because they focus primarily on lexis teaching, but because they have relevance to the focus of the present research.

2.1 LEXIS and LEXIS TEACHING

2.1.1 Lexical knowledge

The term 'lexis' refers to "all the words in a language, the entire vocabulary of a language" (Barcroft, Sunderman and Schmitt, 2011:573). In the present study, however, 'lexis' or 'lexical item' is used to correspond to both individual-word items (e.g. *give*) and multi-word items (e.g. *give up*). The criterion for inclusion of lexical items is that they should belong to the category of content words (i.e. adjective, adverb, noun, and verb) rather than that of function or grammatical words (e.g. preposition, conjunction, and quantifier). For example, when talking about bread, 'a loaf of' is regarded as a lexical item, while 'a lot of' is considered to be a grammatical item. It should be noted that 'vocabulary' and 'word' are also used interchangeably when referring to the relevant studies given that they have focused predominantly on the meaning of individual words (see Meara, 2002; Read, 2004; Schmitt, 2008; Watts, 1995). Most vocabulary research to date has not taken account of the

ubiquitous nature of formulaic language (see Martinez and Schmitt, 2012; Simpson-Vlach and Ellis, 2010). It is important to note that unlike most prior research, the present study looks at not only individual items but also multi-word items in the teaching observed.

Lexical knowledge is defined by Jiang (2000:65) as "the knowledge or information a L2 learner remembers about the form, meaning, grammatical usage, and sociolinguistic use of a word that is stored in a general memory system, rather than integrated into the lexical entry of a word". Drawing on vocabulary researchers (Nation, 2001; Richards, 1976), Laufer (2006a:154) referred to lexical knowledge "as the sum of interrelated 'sub-knowledges' – knowledge of a word's pronunciation [spoken form] and spelling [written form], morphological knowledge, knowledge of word meaning, collocational and grammatical knowledge, connotative and associational knowledge, and the knowledge of social or other constraints to be observed in the use of the word". Morris and Cobb (2004) contend that the most important part of language is the vocabulary, because the important words in a subject area stand for the most important concepts and ideas in that subject. Lexical knowledge is a reliable predictor of learners' proficiency in L2 (Meara, 1996) and it intersects with skills areas, including writing (Engber, 1995), listening (Chang and Read, 2006), speaking (Joe, 1998) and reading (Cobb, 2008), the latter particularly being mostly associated with vocabulary. There is evidence to suggest a relationship between reading comprehension and lexical knowledge, implying that vocabulary instruction has facilitative effects on reading comprehension (Laufer, 2003; Staehr, 2009). A study by Klingner and Vaughn (2004) suggests that vocabulary is critical not only for reading but for all foreign language skills, academic performance and related background knowledge, highlighting the role of a vocabulary to perform well in academic environments. This indicates a need to understand various dimensions of classroom-based lexical instruction.

In the present study, "teaching lexis" refers to instruction designed to develop students' understanding [and use] of the semantic, pragmatic, morphological, phonological or orthographical aspects of the English lexis, both individual and multi-word items (see Lewis, 1997ab; Nation, 2001). Teachers need to consider which particular aspects of lexical items require more attention. Those aspects include *form*: spoken/written forms,

word parts (morphology); *meaning*: form and meaning, concept and referents, associations; *use*: grammatical functions, collocations, constraints on use (Nation, 2001:27; see Table 1).

Table 1: Aspects of lexical knowledge (Nation, 2001:27)

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

The sub-components or content of lexical items such as meaning, spelling and pronunciation have been investigated extensively by applied linguists (Leeser, 2004; Poole, 2005ab; Williams, 2001). Amongst these aspects, it is the lexical meaning which mostly draws the attention of students and teachers. This also applies to the studies conducted in French as L2 immersion classes which seek to ensure the comprehension of subject matter (e.g. Lyster, 2002; Musumeci, 1996; Sanaoui, 1996).

2.1.2   The issues surrounding lexis learning and teaching

Learning lexis is a life-long and on-going endeavour for native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS) both in quantitative and qualitative terms. As Schmitt (2007:839) put it, "even native speakers continue to learn new words throughout their lifetimes".

Foreign language learners need sufficient vocabulary to read academic texts effectively, while at the same time reading is a necessary component of acquiring a sufficient vocabulary (Laufer, 2003; Mukoroli, 2011). This situation is described by Pinker (1989) as the "learnability paradox", that is, you learn words by meeting them in natural contexts, but to make sense of the contexts you need knowledge of words. This is particularly the case with EAP learners who need to be able to deal with the lexis in their content input once they commence their respective subject areas in their first year at university education. It seems that lexis poses a great deal of challenge for language learners, particularly for EAP students (see e.g. Cobb and Horst, 2001; Corson, 1997; Evans and Green, 2007; Folse, 2010; Zhou, 2009). Coxhead and Nation (2001) reiterated that knowing academic vocabulary is a high priority goal for learners who wish to undertake an academic study in English. Zhou's (2009) study focused on 45 EAP learners' language improvement-related needs in their writing in a Canadian pre-university programme. These learners expressed the view that they need to acquire more advanced formal words and expressions (particularly phrases and idioms) and enlarge vocabulary related to future professions and current learning in EAP and discipline-specific courses. Zhou found that learners were particularly concerned about word choice, general academic vocabulary used across academic fields and academic vocabulary used within particular disciplines. With regard to word choice, they acknowledged that they lacked confidence in selecting words to use in a certain context and that they had difficulty in recognising and correcting their lexical errors without assistance from their tutors.

Throughout the literature, a sense of negativity is reflected in the description associated with the issue of learning lexis. In both general ELT and the EAP literature, it is described as a "hurdle" (Ma and Kelly, 2009), "formidable task" (Schmitt, 2007), "lexical challenge" (Singleton, 1999), "lexical plight" (Laufer, 1997b), "lexical barrier" (Corson, 1995:180), "Herculean and Sisyphean task"[1] (Kelly, 1991), "lexical ignorance" (Kelly, 1990) and "lexical gap" (Knight, 1994). In his examination of the learning and use of academic vocabulary, Corson (1997:671) wrote that "the Graeco-Latin vocabulary of English which

---

1. Unachievable and the ill-fated facing an endless task, condemned to eternally roll up the side of a mountain a rock that hurtles down the slope as soon as the summit is reached.

dominates the language's academic vocabulary, offers various levels of potential difficulty for students from some cultural, linguistic and social background". The reason for such lexical difficulty is that Graeco-Latin words in English are usually abstract, low in imagery, low in frequency, and semantically opaque (not transparent). These words also have a very low frequency of use in most people's everyday discourse (Corson, 1997; Coxhead, 2008). When these features combine in words, they interfere with word use and with word learning. These characteristics of academic lexis seem to elucidate why the learning and teaching of lexis has often been associated with negative connotations.

It is interesting to note that not only students but also teachers perceive lexis as one of the serious difficulties in language instruction. Almost all of the assumptions made in the literature are concerned with the negative representation of teachers' vocabulary teaching (e.g. Brown, 2011; Evans and Morrison, 2011; Folse, 2010; Oxford and Scarcella, 1994, 2002; Read, 2004; Schmitt and Zimmerman, 2002; Singleton, 1997; Zimmerman, 1997). Some point to the neglect of lexical pedagogy in language teacher education (see e.g. Coxhead and Byrd, 2007; Zhang, 2008; Zimmerman, 2005). The challenge of lexical instruction that faces language teachers is that language learners also have varying levels of knowledge of lexical items, especially those of an academic nature; differences can be attributed to their proficiency level and to the variation in the knowledge of each individual learner. Having limited time for direct instruction in classrooms, for example, also poses dilemmas in making pedagogical decisions as to whether to concentrate more on developing vocabulary or promoting intensive reading. The present study seeks to provide empirical evidence to explore this lexis instruction-related decision process within the context of the actual language classrooms.

Although it is outside the scope of the present study to investigate the relationship between the teachers' personal theories about lexis instruction and students' learning outcomes, it is necessary to mention a particular research study that provides considerable insight into the nature of instructed lexis learning. Dobinson's (2001) study seeks to examine whether teachers' directing explicit attention to lexis leads to better student learning of vocabulary, specifically the link between the amount of explicit vocabulary focus in a given class and

how many and which words were actually learned by the ESL students. Dobinson reached the conclusion that vocabulary learning opportunities are unpredictably available because lexical items that are not targetted by the teacher may also be learned by the students. Another study pointing to the idiosyncratic nature of lexis learning and teaching was conducted by Block (1994) who identified some variations in teachers', students' and researchers' perceptions about what constitutes a FonL in a classroom environment. Teachers and students may assign dissimilar purposes to instructional activities, among which vocabulary is one. In his one-day observation of an ESL class for postgraduate students in Spain, Block (1994:475) found that the researcher and only 3 learners (out of 12) recognised a vocabulary review prior to watching a news broadcast as a classroom activity though it lasted nearly a quarter of an hour. The possible reason of the exclusion of the vocabulary activity (non-activity or unnoticed activity) in most of the participating students' and the teacher's accounts could be that they perceived the pre-teaching of lexis as an integral part of a major activity, the news viewing (see section 2.3.2 for Woods' (1997) discussion of the hierarchical relationship of classroom events).

It is both difficult and impracticable to pre-specify what constitutes effective language teaching relying simply on the positive effects of specific vocabulary instruction techniques and classroom activities identified in classroom-oriented SLA research. As Schmitt (2008:354) argues, "there will never be one 'best' teaching methodology" because of the factors including time pressure and cognitive overload which have an effect on vocabulary learning. After all,

> any single method of vocabulary learning will not address all of the word knowledge aspects that are required for full vocabulary use. We can explicitly address some aspects, like meaning and grammatical characteristics, but aspects like collocation, register, and frequency are only ever likely to be mastered through extensive exposure to the target word in many different contexts (Schmitt, 2007:833).

One of the issues that have been covered in ELT research is the role and effectiveness of elaboration in vocabulary acquisition. Research informed by the 'involvement load hypothesis' reported on the effects of elaboration and task types on vocabulary learning (Hulstijn and Laufer 2001; Laufer and Hulstijn, 2001; Keating, 2008; Kim, 2008; Laufer

and Rozovski-Roitblat, 2011). In an attempt to identify tasks that provide the best opportunity for learners to elaborate on new words, Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) propose that there are three factors in task involvement load: the learners' *need* to achieve to do something with the word, a requirement that they *search* for information on the meaning or form of the word, and *evaluation* of how the information obtained applied to the particular use of the word in question (i.e. comparison or combination of the target word with other words in given or original contexts). The more active processing and association is involved, the more likely it is that a word is retained in the lexicon. Tasks with higher degrees of need, search, and evaluation induce higher involvement load (i.e. more elaborate processing) and therefore are more effective for word learning than tasks that induce lower involvement load. Hulstijn and Laufer found that tasks incorporating two or three of the factors led to better retention of the target vocabulary than those with only one factor. Similarly, Laufer and Rozovski-Roitblat (2011:5) postulate that if learners attend to "the word's pronunciation, orthography, grammatical category, meaning and semantic relations to other words, they are likely to retain the word (i.e. the link between at least one representation of the word's form and at least one of its meanings)". According to Schmitt (2008:354), "the meta-principle of maximising sustained engagement[2] with the lexical items which need to be learned appears to underlie all effective vocabulary learning".

The 'involvement load hypothesis', however, has been challenged by Barcroft (2002; 2003; 2004; 2006; 2007). His experimental studies with adult learners of Spanish seem to disconfirm what is postulated by the involvement load hypothesis. The main point that Barcroft make is that semantic elaboration, which refers to a situation in which the focus is on the meaning aspect of a lexical item, exerts inhibitory effects on learning lexical forms. In other words, attention to meaning may lead to poorer recall of formal features such as the spelling or pronunciation of lexical items (Barcroft, 2002). For example, a categorisation task where students are asked to consider whether a lexical item falls into a particular category could be regarded as semantic elaboration. This contrasts with structural elaboration in which students deal with the number of letters or syllables of a given lexical

---

2. Svalberg (2009:245) points out that the terms 'engagement' and 'involvement' both imply some level of *alertness* on the part of the engaged or involved individual' (emphasis mine).

item. It should be noted that the results of the experiments apply to those lexical items which are unfamiliar to participants, that is, the negative influence of semantic elaboration does not hold true for those items with which learners are already familiar. Barcroft's findings lend support to VanPatten's (2004) contention that learners prioritise meaning over form when performing a communicative activity given that they have difficulty in simultaneously attending to meaning and form. The reverse is also true. When students are asked to pay attention to the spelling of a particular word when doing a cross-word puzzle, for example, they are less likely to allocate their attention to the meaning of the word in question. The characteristics of form and meaning in the approaches to the teaching of lexis will be elucidated in the next section.

2.1.3 Approaches to form-focused instruction

There are two main types of 'form-focused instruction' (henceforth FFI): focus on form (FonF) and focus on forms (FonFs) (Laufer, 2006; Laufer and Girsai, 2008). The former pedagogical approach is defined as "drawing students' attention to linguistic elements during a communicative activity" (Long, 1991:5). Learners' attention can be drawn to lexical items within the context of a communicative task in which these items play a crucial role in task completion. It should be noted that not all tasks are identical in terms of their degree of communicativeness and neither are they purely contextualised or decontextualised. In a FonF approach, classroom participants function as language users who treat language as a 'tool' for communication or task completion (Laufer, 2006:150). Within a communicative task environment, FonF attends to lexical items without which a communicative language task cannot be completed.

The FonFs approach, however, involves "teaching discrete linguistic elements in separate lessons in a sequence determined by syllabus writers" (Laufer, 2006:150). In this particular approach, learners' attention can be directed at lexical items in activities such as gap filling in which a sentence is completed with the most appropriate lexical item. During the activity types of this nature, a lexical item is treated in its own right, that is, it does not necessarily serve a communicative function. Teaching lexis in its own right, that is treating lexis as a

learning objective rather than a by-product, may be based on recognition of the meaning-making potential of words (Thornbury, 2002). It should be noted, however, that lexis teaching does not necessarily have a subsidiary or instrumental role in promoting language skills as it can also take the form of instruction independent of other classroom events. In a FonFs approach, teachers and learners treat language as the 'object' of study (Laufer, 2006:150). The lexical items to be learnt are decontextualised and become the object of study rather than tools for communication. Teaching and practising discrete lexical items in non-communicative, non-authentic language tasks is the norm. In sum, the distinction between the two forms of instruction is a matter of means and ends. In FonF, lexis is treated as a means to an end, that is, something that facilitates the completion of a meaning-focused activity while it functions as an end in itself in FonFs. That lexis is also taught in integration with other major skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening in the curriculum is particularly relevant to EAP teachers, who are expected to promote learners' lexical knowledge alongside a range of academic skills including presentation, discussion and so forth.

One of the integral components of communicative or meaning-focused classrooms is FFI which is variously defined by different researchers. Long (1991:146), for example, views FFI as bringing language items[3] to learners' attention "as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication". The definition of FFI has been extended by Ellis (2001:2) to cover "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form". This suggests that FFI could arise incidentally but it can also be planned in advance; teaching is more elaborated when pre-planned than when it arises without prior planning. There are two major types of FFI: isolated and integrated FFI. Isolated FFI is described by Spada and Lightbown (2008:186) as "giving attention to form that occurs independently of communicative practices in a program with primarily communicative orientation". The focus of any type of FFI is primarily on conveying meaning, but FonFs is a type of instruction with elaborated emphasis on language items which are not connected to

---

3. Language items often refer to grammatical items in the FFI literature.

contextualised language and communicative practice. On the other hand, integrated FFI refers to raising attention to form that takes place during a meaning-based communicative activity. This is similar to Ellis' (2001) conceptualisation of the notion of FFI in terms of temporal aspects. That is, FFI can be reactive (i.e. when teachers respond to students' queries or errors) or pre-emptive (i.e. when teachers and students examine form even though no mistakes or errors have been identified). Although one aspect of time is specified (i.e. when a FonF occurs), the length, which is another dimension of time, is not explicitly mentioned in the current accounts of FFI. The point is that the duration of isolated FFI is often longer because teachers present a number of language items one after another. The duration of integrated FFI, however, may be shorter when teachers do not treat items in an elaborated manner but prioritise task completion instead.

The term 'form' has been associated exclusively with 'grammar' although it is used more generally to refer to any aspect of linguistic form —phonological, graphological, lexical or grammatical (Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen, 2002:419). There is an obvious potential for including lexis in the FonF movement and that more attention to lexis should supplement the predominantly grammatical FonF that is the current norm (Haastrup and Henriksen, 2001). Laufer (2005b, 2006) ascribed such scant attention to vocabulary in the field of FFI to the belief in the 'default' hypothesis' which rests upon the assumption that vocabulary development can be enhanced simply by exposure to written and spoken input without the need for explicit FonF. However, applying the terms FonF and FonFs to researching lexis teaching, which are traditionally associated with grammar instruction, is not straightforward.

It should be noted that 'form' is only one type of lexical knowledge. Teachers' explaining the informal or formal 'use' of a lexical item to address students' errors during a discussion activity cannot be simply labeled as 'form'. This is because it differs from those instances in which teachers emphasise the form-related aspects of a lexical item such as its spelling and pronunciation as well as grammatical patterns.

One cannot rule out the possibility that grammatical form and lexical meaning may be merged in teachers' explanation of certain lexical items. While a teacher introduces the lexical item *contraception,* the prefix *contra-* may trigger other words in students' minds as they associate the target word (e.g. *contraception*), with the words they already half-know (e.g. *contradiction*). Subsequent teachers' explanations may turn out to be related not only to the difference between two words in terms of meaning but also to the similar form shared by both words. In the FFI literature (Basturkmen *et al.*, 2004) vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation are treated independently as separate components. For the purposes of the present study, however, these components will be grouped together under the umbrella term 'lexis'. If the pronunciation of a content word becomes is mentioned or discussed, then it is regarded as a lexical episode. At first glance, it may appear that the category FonL narrows the scope of the FonF phenomenon. Considering the multifaceted nature of lexis as a linguistic focus with its orthographical and phonological dimensions, however, this may not be actually the case. These sub-dimensions, analysed separately in previous observational research, will however be examined in relation to lexis rather than in their own right. To this effect, Nation's (2001) framework in Table 1 above, which maps out what is involved in learning lexical items, is useful in establishing the relationship that exists between form, meaning and use of lexis.

According to Ellis *et al.* (2002), FonF includes pre-emptive attention to form through student or teacher queries or initiations about form. In their investigation of the teacher's role in focusing on form during communicative language lessons, Ellis *et al.* offer an expanded view of the term 'form', which is by no means limited to grammar and suggest that FonF can be directed at any aspect of language - pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, or discourse. In many cases, attention to form involves consideration of meaning (function) that a particular form conveys (Ellis *et al.*, 2002).

Ellis *et al.* (2006:136) characterise FonF episodes as including brief 'time-outs' from the effort to communicate because the classroom participants "switch backwards and forwards from treating language as a tool for communication and functioning as language users to

treating it as an object and functioning as teachers and learners". Since the primary focus of Ellis *et al.*'s study is on the instances which take place during meaning-oriented activities, they felt the need to exclude from their data set any lessons involving practice of preselected linguistic form. Such elimination is not the case with the present study which aims to present a wider picture of teachers' personal theories about lexical instruction in a private university-based EAP programme. To this end, the present study looks at intensive instruction which involves lengthy practice in the use of lexical items in a single lesson and extensive instruction which involves brief incidental attention to a large number of lexical items within a single lesson.

Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) looked at another dimension of FFI which is pre-emptive FonF. They aimed to investigate the amount of pre-emptive FonF as opposed to reactive FonF (e.g. corrective feedback), as revealed through occasions when either the teacher or a student chose to make a specific form the topic of discourse during meaning-focused activities. Ellis *et al.* suggest that it is necessary to have a detailed descriptive account of how pre-emptive FonF is accomplished prior to examining the effects of incidental FonF. Ellis *et al.* found that pre-emptive FonF episodes take place as often as reactive FonF episodes. More than half the student-initiated and teacher-initiated pre-emptive focus-on-form episodes dealt with vocabulary.

The issue as to whether the teacher pre-empted or student pre-empted FonL are better recalled has been explored by some researchers. For example, both Dobinson (2001) and Slimani (1991) found that some new words which received little or no attention at all in the classroom interaction still became salient for some individuals. These findings point to the individual and idiosyncratic nature of learning vocabulary. However, Dobinson differred from Slimani in terms of the role of the initiator of the FonL in recall. While Slimani's study found that learners benefited as much from their peers' rare instance of topicalisation as from their teacher's topicalisation, Dobinson's study revealed that greater initiation of vocabulary focus did not result in greater recall of new vocabulary. This suggests that student-initiated queries (or requests to teacher) do not automatically result in better learning outcomes in terms of students' recall and retention. The preponderance of teacher-

initiated focus-on-lexis episodes need not be evaluated in a negative light because it may generate more students' output despite teacher's initiation. Likewise, student-initiated queries and comments about lexis may not necessarily result in a substantial amount of input produced by students. The types of verbal interactions of classroom members need to be differentiated because a student-initiated episode may well be teacher-dominated, and similarly a teacher-initiated could be student-dominated.

The lexical information provided by the teacher in incidental lexical instruction is prompted by the immediate and unpredictable needs of the learners who try to accomplish a task (Sanaoui, 1996). This is distinct from the planned lexical instruction environment which revolves around the teacher's lesson plan, predetermined to present specific lexical items in a linear fashion. The scope of the present study is wider than that of the studies mentioned above in that it includes both planned and incidental FonL.

2.1.4 Types and processes of lexis instruction

With regard to the types of lexis instruction in a university-based academic English course, File and Adams (2010) attempted to create two reading treatments. In isolated treatment, participants were taught words separately prior to reading an article, and in integrated treatment the vocabulary instruction was combined with reading the text. Their statistical analysis revealed that isolated instruction was found to have led to higher immediate rates of recall, though retention rates of vocabulary knowledge were similar for isolated and integrated instruction. The primary difference between the two ways of treating lexical items is related to timing as well as to the degree of relevance of lexical items to the reading passage. In isolated instruction, teachers teach a lexical item in its broader context by focusing on its secondary (connotational) senses and providing numerous example sentences to promote students' depth of knowledge focusing on many different aspects of knowing a word including spelling, multiple meanings, and constraints on use.

Horst, Collins and Cardoso (2009) explored the degree to which three ESL teachers' practices accord with the principles that inform effective vocabulary learning including cognitive effort, frequency, active use and systematic review. In intensive primary

classrooms in Canada, they observed that students were provided with opportunities to use lexical items actively. With regard to the instructional techniques, those teachers used a wide range of techniques to explain meaning, one of the most commonly used being short explanatory contexts (45%). Other teaching techniques identified in their study included realia and actions (16%), translations (11%), pictures (8%), extended and often personal examples (8%), antonyms (7%) and other (5%). Horst *et al.* identified active use and cognitive effort as characteristics of abundant opportunities which the students were provided with to be able to use lexical items in sentences. On the other hand, they found that the teachers gave uneven attention to low frequency lexical items and they had no principled approach to systematic review.

Vocabulary instruction within the context of FFI has also been investigated from teachers' point of view. Based on their in-service teacher education workshop in a private university preparatory school in Turkey, Dikilitas and Akcali (2011) carried out a small-scale study at tertiary level to investigate 23 EAP instructors' perspectives on integrated and isolated vocabulary instruction within the context of reading classes. They found that 8 teachers expressed a preference for integrated instruction, 5 teachers were in favour of isolated instruction and 10 were sympathetic to both types of instruction. Some teachers cited the level of students as a determining factor in their preference for either types of vocabulary instruction. They also expressed their concerns about the number of words to be taught and the perceived difficulty level of the lexical items to be presented in a reading lesson. Yet, Dikilitas and Akcali provided no observational evidence as to the role of the teachers' thinking behind their instructional decisions about isolated and integrated vocabulary instruction. The teachers' perspective might, however, be of use in elucidating the dynamics of the process of conducting these types of instruction. This is similar to the results of Spada and Lightbown (2008) which suggest that teachers and students value both integrated and isolated FFI.

Within the context of grammar teaching, Burgess and Etherington (2002) report that the majority of EAP teachers and students expressed preferences for both integrated FFI and isolated FFI. Neither group had a strong preference for one over the other, indicating that

isolated and integrated instruction are complementary in the sense that they serve different purposes. However, there is no evidence as to whether teachers' and students' views on grammar instruction apply to lexis instruction.

In an intensive EAP course, Folse (2010:145) found that 72% and 28% of vocabulary focus instances were initiated by teacher and students respectively. That is, there was a substantial amount of teacher-initiated episodes compared to student-initiated ones. Folse (2010) attributed students' unwillingness to instigate discussions about lexical items to individual personality differences and their preference for teacher-fronted instruction. Explicit vocabulary focus (EVF) is operationalised as a learner's encounter with a word or rehearsal for a word. Folse's observation is that there was no strong correlation between the type of the course and the number of EVFs. For instance, the reading course, which is usually associated with vocabulary development, had the lowest number of teacher-initiated EVFs. However, Folse's study suffers from the absence of teachers' verbal commentary that could have accompanied the observational data. As a result, Folse (2010:152) speculated on a teacher's behaviour noting that: "In my opinion, even if the week's lessons had not included the word roots, I think this instructor [teacher of TOEFL Preparation Course] would have focused a great deal on vocabulary anyway". If Folse had incorporated the teachers' verbal accounts about their classroom actions into his research design, he could have substantiated his conjectures. The present study addresses the pressing need for accompanying observations of teachers' classroom actions with their own account of how they make sense of what they do.

As is the case with Folse's study reviewed above, vocabulary instruction in the classroom has been investigated as a case in itself in some studies. For example, Liang (2006) Sanaoui (1996), Tang and Nesi (2003) investigated teaching vocabulary in the primary classroom in Taiwan, processes of vocabulary instruction in 10 French as a L2 classrooms, and teaching vocabulary in two Chinese classrooms, respectively. Unlike these empirical studies whose primary focus is on the phenomenon of vocabulary teaching in a particular type of language class, the focal point of the present research is the teachers themselves whose characteristics may impact on their practice. Although these studies used classroom

observation as one of the data collection instruments in their study, they lack teachers' accounts that complement the observational data. The present study therefore prioritises the teachers' subjective interpretations of their lexis teaching practices. The goal of this study is to document the process of lexis teaching practices as it takes place in actual EAP classrooms taught by two teachers.

In some studies (e.g. Fortune, 2005; Leeser, 2004), discussion of lexis falls under the category of 'language-related episode' (LRE) which encompasses linguistic focus including vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation, a term that bears strong resemblance to Ellis *et al.*'s (2002:419) FonF episode, a unit of analysis which encompasses orthographical, phonological, vocabulary (semantic) and grammatical aspects of linguistic forms. LRE is defined as "any part of a dialogue where the students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or correct themselves or others" (Swain and Lapkin, 1998:326). The difference is that studies on LREs focus on learner interactions (e.g. Bell, 2011; Leeser 2004; Nassaji, 2010; Williams, 1999) while studies on FonF tend to focus on the teacher, or teacher-student exchanges. FonF refers mainly to a choice the teacher makes whereas LRE describes what happens and how learning takes place. Lexical LREs are used in some studies (Fortune, 2005; Fortune and Thorp, 2001), and are limited to the meaning of lexical items. A higher percentage of lexical LREs are found across teacher-student (Folse, 2010) and student-student interactions (Fortune and Thorp, 2001; Leeser 2004, Williams, 1999). It is surprising that lexis has commanded relatively little attention from teacher cognition researchers despite the fact that lexis is a major concern for students and teachers.

Other terms used throughout the literature include lexically-based episodes (Poole, 2005a: writing), explicit vocabulary focus (Folse, 2010: reading, communication skills, grammar, composition), lexical focus-on-form (Tian and Macaro, 2012) and vocabulary instruction episode (Niu and Andrews, 2012). The latter term, for example, is used by Niu and Andrews to refer to "the classroom discourse from the point where the attention to vocabulary starts to the point where it ends due to a change in topic" (p.139). In the present study, I use the term 'FonL episode' to emphasise that several lexical items can be focused

on during one episode. Further explanations are to be provided in the Methodology chapter where I explain the criteria for the selection of relevant episodes. It is worth noting that most of the studies discussed above concentrate on incidental FonF. The present study, however, is not limited to a specific type so that it can offer a more comprehensive perspective on the EAP teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the instruction of lexis in two different university settings.

2.1.5   Summary

As reviewed above, research findings indicate that lexis constitutes a major concern for both language learners of all levels ranging from elementary or advanced level, and experienced and less experienced teachers (e.g. Basturkmen *et al*., 2004; Ellis *et al*., 2001; Farrokhi, Ansarin and Mohammadnia., 2008; Gholami and Farrokhi, 2008; Nassaji, 2010; Poole, 2005ab; Williams, 2001). Despite lexis being the topic of much current debate in the L2 literature, the paucity of research on teacher cognition in relation to lexis teaching needs to be addressed. A body of empirical research that sheds light on the links between experienced EAP teachers' personal beliefs and classroom practice of lexical instruction has yet to develop. Although vocabulary acquisition has been extensively researched, teachers' perspective on vocabulary learning and teaching has not been awarded much attention. This can be explained by the challenge and complexity of studying classroom language teaching as it is actually lived and experienced by its protagonists.

The present study is an attempt to provide insight into the role of the cognitions which teachers draw on in their instructional decisions relating to lexis teaching across skills areas, not just related to reading comprehension or to integrated and isolated types of vocabulary instruction. This study aims to provide a more nuanced analysis of frequency of occurrences of planned and unplanned episodes initiated by student and teacher, both pre-emptively (in the form of response or query) and reactively (in the form of error treatment). This study will not be confined to investigating lexical instruction in the context of a particular language skill; nor will it concentrate on a vocabulary-only class. By tracing the relationship between EAP teachers' lexis-related instructional cognitions and their practices, the present study is an attempt to fill this niche in the literature.

2.2   LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION

In this section, I will review the area of language teacher cognition, an inclusive and enveloping term which refers to teachers' beliefs, knowledge, assumptions, theories, and attitudes about their classroom practices (Borg, 1999). Teacher cognition, both language teachers' and content teachers' mental lives, has received increased attention in the ELT literature since the 1990s. In the area of SLTE, there has been a recent surge in interest in language teacher cognition (LTC). Compared to other fields of education, this is perhaps a belated awareness of the importance of teacher thinking in ELT, where the role of the language teacher is undeniably crucial. I will first provide some background information before discussing the relationship between language teacher cognition and practice.

2.2.1   Background to language teacher cognition and its terminology

Expanding the knowledge-base of teachers in SLTE has been of prime interest to applied linguists and teacher educators (see Akbari and Tajik, 2009; Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Gatbonton, 1999, 2008; Johnston and Goettsch, 2000; Mullock, 2006). Studies of second language teachers' cognitive processes began in the 1990s (Borg, 2006) and language teacher cognition has become a "feeder-field" of SLTE (Wright, 2010:259). Research on LTC has two strands. The first strand pertains to the general or non-subject specific facets of decision making such as lesson planning and language learning and teaching beliefs. The other strand focuses on specific dimensions of L2 teaching. These strands in tandem provide evidence for the paradigm shift in L2 teacher education from the attempt to identify 'effective' teaching behaviours to investigating the unobservable aspects of teaching from the perspective of informants (see Borg, 2006; Fang, 1996; Kagan, 1990). As Erdogan (2005:231) points out, "one should not be looking for a new knowledge base" for SLTE, but, rather, deeper insights into diverse ways in which teachers interpret the profession of language teaching and how they access this knowledge base in their instructional environment. This resonates with the distinction made between knowledge *for* teachers and knowledge *of* teachers (Fenstermacher, 1994). The latter refers to teachers' own repertoire of knowledge that they build up over years whereas the former corresponds to knowledge produced by professionals and academics. "The practice of language teacher

education has focused more on what teachers needed to know … than on what they actually knew, how this knowledge shaped what they did" (Freeman and Johnson, 1998:398). Research on teacher cognition places an emphasis on the interaction between teachers' personal experience and pedagogical knowledge, "rather than seeking to produce knowledge for teachers to use" (Andon and Eckerth, 2009:289). The present inquiry attempts to explore teachers' respective experiences, knowledge, values and beliefs with respect to a curricular domain (the teaching of lexis), as will be detailed in section 2.3.

Teachers' cognitions do not always only reflect their own personal voice, but there may be some occasions in which they intersect with public discourse. They are associated, in one way or another, with the principles of particular teaching approaches or particular professional communities. From time to time, they may not take into consideration the appropriateness of their practices for their learners' needs. For example, in her research on experienced and novice teachers teaching intermediate-level ESL classes in adult education colleges in Canada, Gatbonton (2008) points out that even some experienced teachers tended to interpret what they do in relation to vocabulary teaching based on their perceptions of what makes a classroom activity 'skilful' rather than 'useful'. The former is associated with the teachers' quality while the latter with students' learning. To put it differently, they attributed superiority to certain instructional techniques because they are favoured by communicative language teaching, irrespective of whether they served their purposes. Gatbonton further reported that they regarded explaining the meaning of words on the board as less 'skilful' compared to eliciting lexical items on the board and having students guess word meanings from context. Other studies about conceptions of good teaching include Andrews and McNeill (2005), Erdogan (2005) and Zhang (2008).

A diverse range of concepts (e.g. belief, knowledge, personal theories, principles and assumptions) have been used in the area of teacher cognition. Borg (2006:35) points out that "identical terms have been defined in different ways and different terms have been used to describe similar concepts". Such diversity has resulted in language teacher cognition research being fragmented and disjointed. Borg calls for a more coherent theoretical framework in order for this strand of research to form a knowledge base for

second language teachers as he argues that a more unified framework would "minimise the disconnected accumulation of isolated pieces of research which may not contribute to a broader understanding of the phenomena under study" (Borg, 2006:284). The issue for Woods (2009), however, seems to be the difference between the variety of concepts and terms. Woods argues that researchers' adopting dissimilar terminology does not mean that they refer to different conceptual phenomena or vice versa. It may be that researchers' using identical terms does not guarantee that they empirically apply these terms in the same way to their studies. Woods's concern is different from that of Borg since the former suggests that instead of terminological proliferation, further attention needs to be paid to "...explicating the relationships among the concepts – the relationship of beliefs to knowledge, of experience to verbal learning, and of both of these to action and practice ..." (Woods, 2009:513).

One of the central arguments in the inquiry of teacher cognition concerns whether it is possible to distinguish between beliefs and knowledge. Some researchers (Clark and Peterson, 1986; Fenstermacher, 1994; Wenden, 1999) claim inseparable linkages between beliefs and knowledge. This hierarchical relationship implies that knowledge is superordinate to beliefs, presumably on the grounds that beliefs are characterised as unsubstantiated knowledge. The effect of beliefs is expressed by the metaphor 'filter' through which teachers' words and actions are processed and interpreted (Johnson, 1999:30; Richards, 1998:67). Theoretically appealing as these distinctions may be, such a dichotomous view has been subjected to challenge. Woods (1996) deconstructed the distinction between beliefs and knowledge and proposed the term BAK (beliefs, assumptions and knowledge) which refers to points on a continuum on which teacher beliefs are expressed with varying degrees of certainty, strength or commitment.

> *Beliefs* refer to an acceptance of a proposition for which there is no conventional knowledge, one that is not demonstrable, and for which there is accepted disagreement.
>
> *Knowledge* refers to conventionally accepted facts.
>
> *Assumption* refers to temporary acceptance of 'facts' (state, process, relationship)…that we may know in a large context are not true, but which we will take as being true for the purpose of carrying out an activity. (Woods, 1996:195)

Similarly, Busch (2010:320) used the term 'belief' in his study to refer to "any views held by the participants about the nature of second language learning and teaching". Busch emphasised that distinguishing beliefs from opinions, assumptions and knowledge was not much of a concern to him. The underlying premise in the above definitions is that teacher beliefs are interrelated and the degree to which teachers are committed to beliefs varies, suggesting that teachers prioritise different beliefs at different times. This continuum of core and peripheral beliefs suggests that the former has a stronger effect on teachers' instructional decisions than the latter (Green, 1971). Core beliefs are characterised by a higher level of permanency whereas peripheral beliefs act as alternative means of realising the core beliefs, but may sometimes be abandoned on occasions where other options are available to teachers to serve their purpose (Phipps and Borg, 2009). Just as beliefs are assumed to be interlinked to one another, it is likely that there is a set of beliefs associated with a given issue.

For the purposes of the present study, the definition of teacher cognition will be extended to cover teachers' statements of personal theories, knowledge, assumptions, preferences and priorities that play a role to varying degrees in planning, managing and implementing their instructional practices with a specific focus on the teaching of lexis. Throughout the thesis, I prefer to use 'cognition', 'beliefs' and 'personal theories' interchangeably. Self-perceptions and perceptions about students are considered to be some of the dimension of teacher cognitions. It becomes indispensable to unify the terms and adopt a broader term like 'cognition' since, in Verloop, Driel and Meijer's (2001:446) words, "in the mind of the teacher, components of knowledge, beliefs, concepts, and intuitions are inextricably intertwined".

Research on teacher cognition can be considered a reaction against process-product research which assumes a causal or linear relationship between teachers' behaviours and students' learning outcomes. Process-product research seems to underestimate the role of teachers' mental processes, experiences, and perspectives by reducing teaching to quantifiable discrete behaviours (Freeman, 2002). However, teaching can no longer be viewed only in terms of conditioned behaviours but rather as thoughtful behaviour; and

teachers are not "mechanical implementers of external prescriptions, but [as] active decision-makers" (Borg, 2009:2). This has been supported by others, all of whom have focused broadly on all the components of the curriculum and the teachers' role therein (e.g. Breen *et al.*, 2001; Wette, 2011; Woods, 1996). In other words, the cognitive and psychological underpinnings of teachers' practices are as important as their classroom practices. These dimensions serve as the background to much of teachers' decision making and actions. Teachers develop a personal approach to language teaching based on their beliefs and theories about their role, the nature of teaching, and structure of the lesson (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). The point is that teachers do not necessarily follow the supposed teachings of methodological trends because they are constantly making independent decisions and are accommodating their contextual realities in specific teaching situations (Mangubha, Marland, Dashwood and Son, 2004).

A model of classroom teaching outlined in Dunkin and Biddle (1974) is helpful in understanding classroom teaching as an activity as it distinguishes four sets of variables: presage variables, context variables, process variables and product variables (see Table 2).

Table 2: Variables in the model of classroom teaching

Presage variables	teachers' formative experiences and their individual characteristics [teachers' beliefs about language, teaching and learning*]
Context variables	Pupil formative experiences, pupil properties, school and community contexts, and classroom contexts including teaching materials.
Process variables	Actual teaching and learning behaviours that take place inside the 'black box' of the classroom.
Product variables	Immediate pupil growth and long-term pupil effects.
*: Ellis (2011:7) included this component in presage variable.	

The present study seeks to cover the shaded areas ['presage variables', 'context variables', and 'process variables'], but not 'product variables'. The variables provide a framework for adopting an ecological perspective on the investigation of language classrooms that involves no predetermined instructional or methodological intervention by the researcher

(see Tudor, 2001, 2003). Tudor (2003) argued that differences between a technological perspective and an ecological perspective need to be distinguished. The former is based on the assumption that there exists a direct and linear link between how language is taught and what is learnt as a result of a given method. The latter perspective, on the other hand, is opposed to a supposed linearity between the dynamics underlying the process of language learning and teaching. The ecological perspective appreciates the complexity in teachers' pedagogical decision making, about which Tudor (2003) wrote:

> [it] involves exploring language teaching and learning within the totality of the lives of the various participants involved, and not as one sub-part of their lives which can be examined in isolation. The teacher's reality is thus an ecological one which is shaped by the attitudes and expectations of students, of parents, of school administrators, of materials writers and many others including each teacher as an individual in his or her own right. [Such a perspective] … opens the door to a better understanding of the uniqueness of each teaching situation and, thereby, to the development of an approach to teaching which is locally relevant and meaningful by virtue of it being rooted in *local realities* (Tudor, 2003:4)

Local realities refer to "what language learning and teaching mean to local participants in the full context of their lives, within but also beyond the classroom" (Tudor, 2003:10). This view acknowledges the particular contribution which the teacher as an individual makes to the process of teaching as well as to the making of classroom realities (Tudor, 2001). This is resonant with Goodson's (1992 cited in Richards, 1994) point that teachers do not separate their lives from their actions in the classroom, and it is their life experiences and educational biographies which help make them what they are, both personally and professionally.

2.2.2   Relationship between teachers' cognitions and practices

It seems difficult to understand "language pedagogies on the basis of teachers' accounts of how they work without reflecting with them upon *actual instances* of practice" (Breen *et al.*, 2001:498) (emphasis in original). The correspondence between teachers' cognitions and practices is, however, not always straightforward. It is not realistic to expect teachers' beliefs and practices to be always congruent with one another due to possible reasons and constraints such as curriculum and syllabus requirements, coursebooks, examinations,

students, colleagues, or other social expectations. Since these factors are mostly outside the control of teachers, they may not put their beliefs into practice. Other factors cited in the literature include teachers' own experience as both language learners and teachers, teachers' personality factors, research-based evidence, and principles deriving from a particular methodological approach (Richards and Lockhart, 1994). The dynamics operating at the micro level are associated with immediate antecedent and planned classroom events such as the teachers' plan for the lesson, students' queries, responses and errors. As Richards (2010) put it

> From the perspective of teacher cognition, teaching is not simply the application of knowledge and of learned skills. It is viewed as a much more complex cognitively-driven process affected by the classroom context, the teacher's general and specific instructional goals, the teacher's beliefs and values, the learners' motivations and reactions to the lesson, and the teacher's management of critical moments during a lesson (Richards, 2010:108).

Perhaps given the interrelated and multi-layered nature of belief systems, researchers (e.g. Basturkmen *et al.,* 2004) do not attempt to determine *whether* teachers' practices represent their beliefs; instead, they investigate the *extent* to which teachers' beliefs are reflected in their practices. At this point, it is therefore important to distinguish between 'espoused theories' and 'theories-in-use' (Argyis and Schön, 1974 cited in Basturkmen *et al*. 2004:268). The term 'theories-in-use' refers to teachers' personal practical theories which guide teachers' instructional practices in situ. Espoused theories represent teachers' beliefs loaded with theoretical or received knowledge. Teachers' personal theories or beliefs can be inferred from what teachers say, intend to do, and actually do (Pajares, 1992). They are mostly related to the way things should ideally be rather than the way things actually are. Some empirical studies (e.g. Basturkmen *et al*., 2004; Phipps and Borg, 2009) conclude that there may be occasions when teachers do not teach in accordance with their stated beliefs.

Borg's (2009:3) contention that "beliefs influence practices but practices can also lead to changes in beliefs" points to bi-directional rather than unidirectional interaction between teachers' personal theories and teaching experience. Such dialectical and reciprocal relationship suggests that teachers' beliefs inform and are informed by their classroom

practices. There may be some dissonance and incongruence in this relationship. It is worth noting that within the framework of language teacher cognition research, tensions are conceptualised as "divergences among different forces or elements in the teacher's understanding of the school context, the subject matter, or the students" (Freeman, 1993:488; see Phipps & Borg (2009) and Mak (2011), both of whom adopted the same definition). It is important to note that the term tension is by no means an either-or phenomenon but it is a matter of continuum, namely there are different degrees of consistency or inconsistency within a language teachers' set of personal theories, practices and perhaps more importantly the school environment where they operationalise these theories. Tensions could be between the teachers' cognition within itself (internal consistency). According to Woods (1996), these conflictual and incoherent elements within belief systems attest to the dynamic and evolving nature of the teachers' beliefs, assumptions and knowledge over time. Alternatively mismatches could occur between the teachers' cognitions and classroom behaviours. Borg (2006) conceptualised tensions as the perceived gap between ideal-oriented cognitions vs. reality-oriented cognitions. Table 3 below lists the factors that may give rise to tensions between beliefs and practices.

Table 3: Reasons for tensions

Reasons for tensions	Studies
Situational constraints	Borg, 2003ab; Fang, 1996; Lee, 2009
Change process	Richardson *et al.*, 1991
Multiple beliefs systems	Graden, 1996
Data collection/analysis and lack of shared understanding of the terms	Speer, 2005
Theoretical knowledge	Mak, 2011; Mangubhai *et al.*, 2004; Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999; Woods and Çakır, 2011
Unquestioned/unconscious routines	Phipps, 2009; Woods, 1996

In developing instructional practices that are compatible with their intentions, tensions are likely to obstruct teachers' abilities and exert an influence on their self-perceptions. Speer's (2005) points to obstacles in identifying teachers' tensions given that beliefs may be attributed to the teacher by the researcher and that they are continually changing. It may also be the case that inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and practices is attributed by

researchers who do not share the same understanding of the concepts under investigation (Speer, 2005). This might also be due to a lack of shared understanding between the researcher and the participants.

There could be other dynamics of the language classroom which prevent teachers from realising their instructional goals. Having examined teachers' lesson plans and instructional materials, Basturkmen *et al*. (2004) found that the links between espoused beliefs and incidental behaviours were weaker than the links between espoused beliefs and planned behaviours. It needs to be recognised, however, that when what a teacher is observed to do seems to be out of step with what she claims in an interview account, these contradictory elements cannot be simply disregarded as evidence of false and inauthentic accounts. Rather, they are worth examining more closely.

The tensions between beliefs and practices are usually determined by the frequency with which a particular belief is manifested in classroom practice. If a certain practice is not observed at all or observed only rarely in the teachers' pedagogical instruction it is referred to as 'tension' or 'inconsistency'. Thus, limited hours of observation may not allow for reliable identification of teachers' consistencies and inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and practices. The study by Niu and Andrews (2012) is a case in point. The absence of illustrative episodes in the above-cited study gives the impression that the researchers simply relied on the teachers' reported rather than observed practices. Inadequate contextualisation runs the risk of doing injustice to the complexity of the link between teacher cognitions and practices.

Barcelos (2003) identifies three approaches to the investigation of beliefs: the normative approach, the metacognitive approach, and the contextual approach. The normative approach sees beliefs as quite stable "preconceived notions, myths, or misconceptions" (p.11). The nature of beliefs is also described as functional, dysfunctional or detrimental beliefs in studies (see Peacock, 2001).These beliefs are investigated through the use of questionnaires in which some propositional statements are judged by respondents. The metacognitive approach (Wenden, 1999) is similar to the first approach in that they both

regarded beliefs as fixed and stable mental traits. In the metacognitive approach, self-report and semi-structured interviews are often used in order to explore learners' and teachers' beliefs. The contextual approach, finally, suggests that beliefs should be considered "part of the culture of learning and representations of language learning in a given society" (Barcelos, 2003:6). In this approach, beliefs are construed as dynamic and situated understandings that are interrelated with individuals' experiences and educational and institutional contexts. The present study adopts this third approach as it allows for investigating the complexity of teacher cognition and language classrooms using classroom observations and stimulated recall interviews.

2.2.3   Language teacher cognition research in Turkey

Borg's (2003) review of research on language teacher cognition shows that between 1976 and 2002, 64 studies were published in the area of language teacher cognition. Borg (2006:281) notes that a number of studies undertaken so far are related to pre-service teachers' cognitions about generic and domain-specific topics. The majority of these studies focus primarily on more general processes such as knowledge growth and change or planning and decision making rather than examining teacher belief in relation to a specific curricular area. That said, this does not necessarily mean that no reports, academic studies or theses appeared in local journals or elsewhere (conferences and seminars).

According to Borg (2006:281), substantive dimensions (what is being studied) can be further broken down into its constituent parts: generic or domain-specific. The former encompasses an interest in the nature and processes of teacher cognition irrespective of the curricular areas involved (e.g. planning, interactive decision-making and other instructional concerns), while the latter aims to understand cognitions in relation to specific curricular areas (e.g. grammar, writing, reading and sub-activities in each domain). As illustrated in Figure 1, both generic and domain-specific processes can be divided into particular areas. The quadrant to which the present study contributes is marked in italics (i.e. *lexis teaching*).

Generic processes

(e.g. planning, interactive decision making, instructional concerns)

Pre-service teachers ──────────────┼────────────── **In-service teachers**

Lexis teaching

Domain-specific processes

(e.g. grammar, reading , writing and sub-activities in each domain)
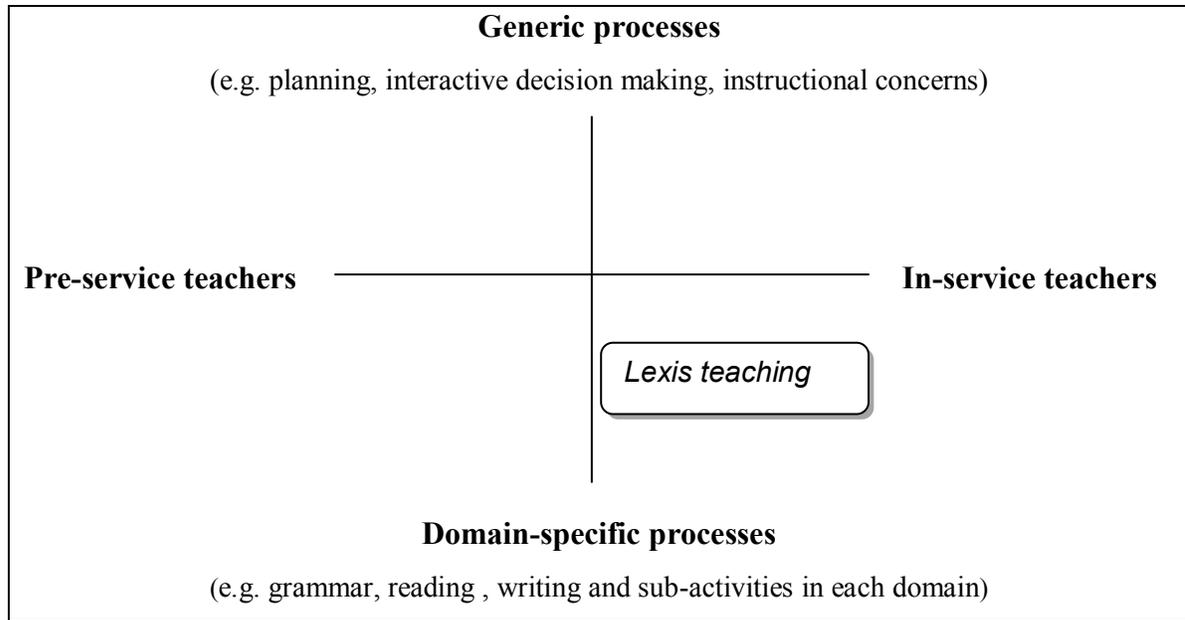
Figure 1: Substantive elements in language teacher cognition research (After Borg, 2006:282)

Teacher cognition research in relation to specific curricular areas is lacking in different educational settings in Turkey, particularly in EAP contexts. In his review, Borg (2003a) reported only two studies by Sendan and Roberts (1998) and Tercanlioglu (2001), both of which were conducted with prospective teachers. Having looked at a bibliography of teacher cognition maintained by Borg and last updated on 10 June 2012, I noticed that there were 13 studies in Turkey. Although there seemed to be a moderate increase in the number of empirical studies compared to the previous years (2003-2011), the informants involved in these studies were not diverse but homogenous. For example, 6 studies focused predominantly on pre-service teachers (e.g. Basyurt Tüzel and Akcan, 2009; Kömür, 2010; Phipps and Borg, 2009; Seferoğlu *et al*., 2009; Sendan and Roberts, 1998; Tercanlioglu, 2001), while 4 studies were concerned with in-service teachers (e.g. Cabaroglu and Yurdaisik, 2008; Clachar, 2000; Kirkgöz, 2008; Woods and Çakır, 2011). Studies such as Akyel (1997); Vanci Osam and Balbay (2004) and Atay (2004) explored not only experienced and but also novice teachers. Mathews-Aydinli and Elaziz's (2010) study seemed to stand out from all the other comparative studies about pre-service and in-service teachers' thinking and about NS and NNS teachers in that it investigated both students' and teachers' attitudes, not just the latter alone. Despite the different scope of these studies all

of which are based in Turkey, their commonality lies in the fact that virtually all of them took place in secondary schools, the exception being Phipps and Borg (2009) whose participants were EAP teachers working at an English-medium university in Turkey.

In a recent review of research on foreign language teaching and learning in Turkey, Alptekin and Tatar (2011) reported on a number of studies undertaken in the period of 2005-2009. The themes of these studies are included in Table 4 below. The importance of this particular review is the fact that it included the periods not covered by Borg (2003a). They examined various issues including the prospective teachers' values, their perceptions about English as a Lingua Franca, attitudes towards collaborative and student-centred learning, improvement of reflection and the role of portfolios in professional development. Three pieces of research (Arioğul, 2007; Önalan, 2005; Saraç, 2007) investigated in-service teachers' cognitions about grammar teaching, the place of culture in ELT and the role of prior language learning experience in teachers' practical knowledge, respectively.

Table 4: Themes of the language teacher cognition studies covered in Borg's (2012) bibliography and Alptekin and Tatar's (2011) review

- decision-making skills of experienced teachers and student teachers of English
- teachers' instructional thoughts and actions in general
- teachers' implementation of curriculum innovation
- use of interactive whiteboards in EFL classrooms
- teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices
- instructors' views about and approaches to reading instruction and reading strategies
- attitudes towards particular approaches
- the role of culture in ELT
- development of student teachers' personal theories *(pre-service)*
- teachers' ways of thinking via metaphors *(pre-service)*
- the teachers' views on student-centred learning (*pre-service*) *
- English as a Lingua Franca (*pre-service*) *
- portfolios (*pre-service*) *
- reflection (*pre-service*) *

*: The last four themes with asterisks are reviewed in Alptekin and Tatar (2011).

The majority of the above studies concentrated on pre-service, as opposed to in-service teachers, despite slight variations in their focus. Alptekin and Tatar's (2011) review highlights a limited expansion of research foci in the investigation of in-service teachers'

cognitions. The in-service teachers' perceptions of the role of culture in ELT appeared to be the only topic that was different in scope from those in Borg's (2003) review. As far as pre-service teachers are concerned, however, the expansion is considerable in that there is an emergence of novel topics such as the teachers' views on student-centred learning, English as a lingua franca, portfolios and reflection, none of which were the focus of the two Turkish studies in Borg's review. There seems to be an increase in the number of studies concerned with the development of prospective teachers' beliefs and their change compared to their experienced counterparts.

2.2.4   Summary

In this section, the nature of language teacher cognition and the scope of teacher cognition research has been discussed at length. Several themes emerged from the above-reviewed research on language teacher cognition. Firstly, the main argument put forward is that merely teachers' classroom behaviour and instructional actions without referring to what underpin them may not reflect the complexity of language classrooms. Secondly, the multifaceted nature of teacher cognition has been reflected in the diversity of terms and concepts used in the research literature on language teacher cognition. The fact that teacher cognition is characterised as unique, contextual and situated in the classroom should not be underestimated. Thirdly, another important insight gained from the studies is that being aware of the influence of teachers' cognition on language pedagogy is crucial to understanding the role of teacher education in general and that of the interaction between teachers and teacher educators. Finally, although lexis pedagogy has been investigated in secondary and high schools in Turkey, it remains underrepresented in Turkish university settings. The interaction between the teachers' cognitions and practices can better be understood by exploring both mental and behavioural dimensions of lexis teaching, as mentioned previously.

The subsequent section is concerned with the studies which have relevance to the substantive focus of the current study, namely the teaching of lexis from the teachers' perspective.

2.3   LEXIS IN TEACHER COGNITION RESEARCH

The past two decades have seen a substantial number of studies regarding both teachers' general pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices and specific pedagogical fields of inquiry like grammar teaching. Grammar teaching has been the 'trail blazer' or leader area which opened up a new line of research; it is an area where most of the LTC studies have been conducted. Even so, lexis is raised as a concern in teachers' accounts about grammar instruction (e.g. Barnard and Scampton, 2008; Borg, 2001; Johnston and Goettsch, 2000). It therefore merits a meticulous investigation of the teaching of lexis as a curricular component.

In this section, I will concentrate on lexis as an emergent component in L2 teachers' knowledge base and the teaching of lexis in research on both generic and domain-specific processes of language teaching.

2.3.1   Lexis as a part of 'language management' in L2 teachers' knowledge base

Lexis emerged as one of the components of 'language management'– defined by Gatbonton (2008:164) as "handling the language the students were exposed to and the language they produced". The term 'language management' (LM) appeared in empirical studies pertaining to ESL teachers' pedagogical knowledge base conducted by Gatbonton (1999), Mullock (2006) and Akbari and Tajik (2009) in different educational contexts, namely Canada, Australia and Iran, respectively. The latter two studies are replications of Gatbonton's study which utilised both verbal recall interviews and statistical tests. They all adopt the term 'pedagogical knowledge' which refers to teachers' accumulated knowledge about the teaching act and its goals, procedures, and strategies that serve as a basis for their classroom behaviour and activities. They also take the term 'LM' to mean reported pedagogical thought units concerned with the language students were exposed to, and the language they produced (i.e. vocabulary and grammar). That is, it is concerned with the teachers' provision of language-related input and students' output. Having both qualitative and quantitative elements, these studies are based on the premise that examining teachers' thought processes can reveal the knowledge underlying their personal theories of teaching and instructional practices.

Out of six domains of pedagogical knowledge including LM, factoring in student contributions, determining the contents of teaching, facilitating the instructional flow, building rapport, and monitoring student progress, Gatbonton (1999) found that the most frequently reported domain was LM. Mullock (2006) also found that the most frequent category of pedagogical knowledge referred to by almost all teachers 3 out of 4 teachers was LM (29%), followed by the category of knowledge of students, defined as "accumulated knowledge about students' personalities, abilities, needs, attitudes and reactions, backgrounds, and individual learning styles" (Gatbonton, 1999:43). Compared to Gatbonton's study where variables (e.g. learner purpose, learner proficiency levels, textbook, teacher experience, and institutional context) were tightly controlled, Mullock did not hold constant several variables such as different language proficiency level, wider skill focus (i.e. reading, listening, speaking). Nevertheless, the latter followed the same data collection instrument (stimulated recall) and coding procedures.

Akbari and Tajik's (2009) study examined whether the patterns of domains of accessing pedagogical knowledge found in Gatbonton's (1999) and Mullock's (2006) study would be replicated in the Iranian EFL context. They identified the category of LM as the most frequently recalled category with its sub-categories: eliciting possible answers, explaining vocabulary, writing up answers on board, eliciting vocabulary/grammar, conducting classroom activity and correcting vocabulary/grammar errors, noting student difficulty with finding correct language, and pushing specific language (vocabulary/grammar). Similar to Gatbonton (1999) and Mullock (2006), Akbari and Tajik (2009) also found similar patterns in the treatment of lexis, as evidenced in the teachers' LM. Lexis was one of the top priorities of the teachers in both intact classes (Mullock, 2006) and classes formed for research purposes (Gatbonton, 1999). However, as the teachers in the classes designed for the purposes of research were provided with the tasks to be carried out in their classes, Mullock (2006) cast doubts on its ecological validity and complained that the materials utilised in Gatbonton's study overemphasised specific language items and particular major skills of speaking and listening. Mullock attributed the differences in her own study to the fact that Gatbonton's classes were specially formed for the purposes of research. The

course books were pre-publication stage books which the teachers used for the first time in that project.

On the other hand, what Gatbonton and Mullock had in common is that they both identified similar patterns of treating lexis such as explaining, illustrating and providing&eliciting vocabulary; pushing students to use specific vocabulary; correcting vocabulary and recycling vocabulary. Although all of these features belong to vocabulary pedagogy as a whole, they are almost treated in a somewhat discrete fashion. In the case of a participating teacher, for example, Mullock (2006) reported that 'push specific language' (Vocabulary 8%) was the most frequently reported thought unit for this particular teacher. A common weakness shared by the studies reviewed above is that they tend to identify pedagogically-oriented thought units which may inaccurately represent teachers' thinking processes. Categorising the simultaneous nature of teachers' reported thoughts into countable thought units and into neat and tidy categories with the percentages, they may generate, is to a certain extent reductionist. It needs to be noted that "language teacher cognitions or belief systems are irreducibly dynamic and contextualised" (Feryok, 2010:273). This is due partly to "the interwoven nature of conscious and unconscious knowledge and constant fluctuations in attention and what 'level' one is focused on at any moment" (Woods and Çakır, 2011:385) and partly because that teachers draw on different components of the knowledge base simultaneously (Johnston and Goettsch, 2000:463).

It seems difficult to arrive at firm conclusions with self-reported data due to the fact that they are divorced from instructional actions which illustrate the manner in which teachers explain words and that they provided no information about the dimensions of those instances such as how and why those instances were initiated by students and teachers. In order to provide a holistic account of teachers' cognitions and practices of lexis teaching, the present study goes beyond the frequency with which these pedagogical thought units occur and provides observational evidence.

2.3.2   Lexis in teacher cognition research on generic processes

Lexis is a theme interspersed with different facets of language teaching in studies investigating teachers' point of view generally (e.g. Block, 1994; Tsang, 2004; Woods, 1996), teachers' beliefs and practices about reading (e.g. Johnson, 1992; Kuzborska, 2011; Macalister, 2010; Richardson, 1996), incidental FonF (e.g. Basturkmen *et al.*, 2004), TLA (e.g. Andrews, 2007a; Luk and Wong, 2010) and classroom interaction (e.g. Li and Walsh, 2011; Walsh, 2003; 2006). Lexis has surfaced as a sub-theme in language teacher research on generic processes such as planning, interactive decision-making and instructional concerns. With regards to the latter, there are some contrary findings in the literature with regard to novice and experienced teachers' major concerns in formal instruction. For example, novice teachers in Gatbonton's (2008) study are more concerned with student behaviour and reactions to them rather than with pedagogical procedures and learning outcomes, while experienced teachers are more concerned with language-related issues.

On the other hand, there seems to be no major difference between experienced teachers and novice counterparts in terms of their degree of sensitivity to these issues. Tsang's (2004:171) case study aimed to investigate the role of pre-service non-native ESL teachers' personal practical knowledge (teaching maxims or rational principles for professional behaviour, or initial conceptualizations of the content) in their interactive decisions they took their classroom teaching. Tsang concerned herself with the way in which teachers come to modify their classroom decisions and practices. When it comes to decisions about vocabulary teaching, for example, one teacher thought verbal explanation of meaning was clear enough while another held the opinion that it was necessary to make use of different types of visuals to explain lexical items. The point is that there is evidence to suggest that lexis is a common concern shared by both novice and experienced teachers. Regarding unplanned action and reactions to the unexpected (i.e. interactive decisions which they make during teaching or their unplanned actions and reactions) made by both groups of teachers, Vanci Osam and Balbay (2004) observed that they had to deviate from their lesson plan to deal with learners' queries about lexical items. Irrespective of the length of their experience, both novice and experienced teachers seemed preoccupied with

addressing learners' lexical queries during formal classroom instruction (see VanPatten, 2004). What remains to be questioned is whether lexis poses a more central concern to inexperienced teachers or whether the concern is shared by novice and experienced teachers. This is a research aim pursued in the studies reviewed below.

In two different Chinese secondary state schools, Li and Walsh (2011) explored one novice teacher and one experienced teacher's beliefs about language learning and teaching that emerged through their reflection on their classroom interactions. The novice teacher focused on vocabulary while the experienced teacher concerned herself with oral communication. Of particular interest to the present study was the teacher who believed in the significant role of vocabulary. This manifested itself in her controlling the classroom discourse. This particular teacher felt the need to provide learners with not only information about the meaning of lexical items but also spoken and written forms of these items. That is, she adopted the role of a teacher as a model who could act as a provider of lexical knowledge. Besides, the teacher saw vocabulary as the hardest part of language learning as the students had difficulty committing words to memory. Such a problem of remembering was something that she felt could be addressed by increasing the number of activities and by making input more accessible to learners. The particular teacher mentioned above likened vocabulary to the bricks (of a building). Her belief that "once learners have learnt enough words, they can start to use the language" reflects her view that having enough vocabulary might enable students to express themselves. On the basis of these findings, Li and Walsh (2011) made the point that the teacher's classroom practice closely corresponded to her stated views in favour of having control over the discourse, which led to minimal student involvement. They also highlight that one participant's discourse is characterised by frequent use of teacher echo when explaining lexical items (e.g. repeating a lexical item several times, repeating its spelling, repeating an example sentence, and repeating its L1 equivalent). This holds similarity with pre-service ESL teachers who expressed the belief in the significance of maintaining the flow of instruction and controlling what goes on in the classroom, though they were critical of their own teacher-fronted practices (Johnson, 1994). Teachers' inclination towards taking more turns

than students when explaining lexical items might manifest itself in the form of digressions which in turn disrupt the communication flow (e.g. Basturkmen *et al.,* 2004).

According to Woods (1997), the relationship between levels in the hierarchy of events occurring in the lesson can be seen conceptually rather than just chronologically. Yet, a conceptual understanding of classroom events should not be taken to be analogous to only temporal understanding which relates to the sequential details of classroom events in the chronological sense (i.e. events that precede or follow). The relationship between teachers' lexis teaching practices and major skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking constitutes a set of classroom events. This suggests a dynamic relationship between instructional goals and means. For example, a pre-teaching activity acts as a means to facilitate students' reading comprehension. Teaching lexical items, in this particular case, is secondary to the reading activity itself because the former serves to prepare learners to work towards the primary goal, which is to comprehend the text.

In research into the manner in which seven ESL teachers implemented the curriculum in language schools in New Zealand, Wette (2009) observed that they tended to pay substantial attention to lexis which served a facilitatory role in realising global and broader teaching and curriculum objectives (e.g. macro-skills development). Wette (2009:350) found that "clusters of units at lower levels of the framework (e.g. linguistic content such as vocabulary items) were almost always taught in service of upper-level global curriculum goals" (e.g. reading and listening texts accompanied by comprehension activities). An example of the lower-level is a consolidation activity which is not necessarily designed for skills development. An example of the upper-level is reading and listening to texts accompanied by comprehension activities. When a number of lexical items are taught in isolation from skills work, it can be viewed as an end in itself. It is therefore difficult to disentangle lexis and content from each other. The dominant nature of lexis as a category is illustrated in   Figure 2 below.
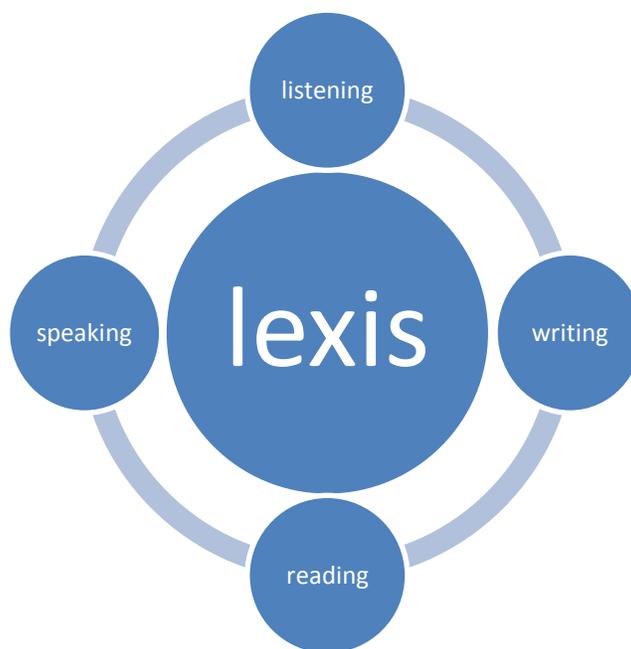
Figure 2: The centrality of lexis in skills areas

2.3.3   Lexis in teacher cognition research on domain-specific processes

The present study explores one curricular area, namely lexis teaching. As emphasised above, lexis has been associated with skill areas including listening, speaking, writing, and particularly with reading. When expressing their beliefs about teaching reading comprehension, for example, teachers tended to refer, either overtly or covertly, to the teaching of lexical items. This is reflected in a number of studies reviewed below.

In a Lithuanian EAP setting, Kuzborska (2011) found that teachers hold the belief that a focus on vocabulary, translation, reading aloud, and whole class work are crucial for their advanced-level language learners. These teachers also emphasised the learning of specific vocabulary in order to enhance students' reading abilities claiming that this belief led them to prioritise vocabulary in their classrooms. For instance, during class discussion of reading texts, they spent a substantial amount of classroom time on the vocabulary highlighted in the texts. Besides, they tended to ask the students to come up with explanations for lexical items using English by providing synonyms, antonyms and L1 equivalents. A teacher in this study held that "if students understand the vocabulary, then texts are not very

difficult". They saw a direct link between vocabulary and level of text difficulty. On the basis of these pieces of evidence, Kuzborska concluded that "vocabulary knowledge was believed to be crucial for the students' achieving overall academic success as well as for their understanding of individual texts" (p.112).

It seems that there is no clear-cut boundary between these teachers' focus on reading comprehension and vocabulary teaching. Apart from EAP contexts, this also holds true for other educational and instructional settings. In secondary school contexts based in the Netherlands, for instance, Meijer, Verloop and Beijaard (1999) constructed a concept map of Dutch, English, Latin, French and German teachers' practical knowledge which illustrates the relationship between the teaching of reading comprehension and that of lexis. A common concern for these participants was that they had to explain unknown lexical items to facilitate their students' comprehension. Meijer (1999:75) arrived at a very similar conclusion in her study where one of the participants said "reading comprehension is very difficult for students [...] because they do not see the main idea in texts, they just see "words, words, words". This is also the case with the Turkish context. Based on the questionnaire and semi-structured interview data, Cabaroglu and Yurdaisik (2008) found that students' limited knowledge of vocabulary and lack of familiarity with the topics the texts dealt with posed challenges to all the participants without exception. That is perhaps why they expressed a preference for teaching lexis as a pre-reading activity where their discourse were related to word meanings ("Does anybody know what [target word] means?"), a pattern also found in teachers' interaction with elementary and middle school students in L1 settings (Watts, 1995). Lexis appeared to occupy a substantial place in teachers' accounts. It seems that lexis is a matter of critical importance in language classrooms, irrespective of context, be it EAP or secondary level in L1 or L2 contexts.

The teaching of lexis was also investigated through mixed-method approaches which involve using qualitative and quantitative data collection instruments. In a comparative study of pre-service and in-service Chinese teachers of English in Hong Kong (37 in-service – kindergarten, primary and secondary school teachers - and 89 pre-service teachers), and mainland China (80 in-service-secondary school teachers and 44 pre-service

teachers), Gao and Ma (2011) reported that differences in the pre-service and in-service teachers' views on vocabulary teaching are profoundly affected by their personal educational experience as well as by the characteristics of their teaching environments. This particular finding supports the idea that novice and experienced teachers may hold similar beliefs regarding certain dimensions of lexis teaching. In this respect, the divergence between experienced teachers' and novice teachers' cognitions confirms the findings of Vanci Osam and Balbay (2004) while it disconfirms that of Gatbonton (2008).

The contextual dissimilarities between the teachers included the teachers' perceived limitations of linguistic resources and opportunities for using English for real communication in their local contexts. These factors seemed linked to their discontentment with their prior vocabulary learning experience. Hong Kong teachers attached importance to the learning of vocabulary through 'memorisation' while the mainland Chinese participants held that the learning of vocabulary through 'use' was valuable. Gao and Ma's (2011) study revealed that Hong Kong and mainland Chinese teachers frowned upon the techniques of 'dictation' and 'memorisation' respectively because these techniques had not been beneficial to their own vocabulary development. This does not necessarily mean that these two groups of teachers share exactly the same pedagogical beliefs about lexical instruction irrespective of their level of experience. Hong Kong pre-service teachers believed that richer lexical knowledge in the form of multiple treatment aspects of a lexical item should be presented to learners; that is, they wanted more lexical knowledge to be taught. On the other hand, Hong Kong in-service teachers in contrast concerned themselves with drawing students' attention to vocabulary learning strategies and using vocabulary in meaningful contexts. In the study by Ma and Kelly (2009:309) which explored 52 teachers' beliefs about vocabulary learning and their self-reported vocabulary teaching practices through a questionnaire at three Chinese universities, however, few teachers offered training in vocabulary learning strategies and memory strategies (e.g. imagery, rhyming, and semantic networks). Perhaps, the teachers' belief that students acquire a large amount of vocabulary through extensive reading can account for the absence of explicit vocabulary strategy training. The difference can be attributed to the nature of their background, namely

their varied background in different types of institutions ranging from kindergarten to primary to secondary schools.

The study by Gao and Ma (2011) used in-depth narrative interviews in which the teachers (7 Hong Kong and 8 mainland Chinese pre-service and in-service teachers) referred to their previous experience. These interviews seemed to enable the researchers to ground their evaluations of the teachers' beliefs in their lived experience. However, since only the pre-service teachers took part in the interviews, the contextual conditions of the in-service teachers were not adequately represented in their data analysis. Apart from the in-depth narrative interviews, they also used a questionnaire with Likert-scale and open-ended questions to address the teachers' beliefs about the way in which vocabulary should be taught in classrooms. Gao and Ma carried out content analysis which involved predetermined categories, as opposed to emerging ones. The categories in their content analysis included contextual use, fixed meaning, list learning and repetition. However, this did not reveal the dynamic interactions influencing the teachers' choices of aspects of lexis they dealt with. Since content analysis is limited in scope compared to thematic analysis, it is reasonable to assume that the nature of the teachers' belief systems regarding lexis teaching was much more complex than they appeared. The fact that self-reported as opposed to observed classroom practices were analysed in the study of Gao and Ma did not allow them to tap into the teachers' reactions to their specific instructional instances during lexis teaching. This is also a characteristic shared by Ma and Kelly's (2009) study conducted in Chinese university contexts. Despite several strengths of their study such as a relatively large sample size, over 50 participants, as mentioned above, it merely identified teachers' reported, as opposed to observed, lexis teaching practices. I will now review the studies whose major focus is on TLA which plays a crucial role in lexis learning and teaching beliefs and practices of language teachers.

2.3.4   TLA and teachers' intuitions about lexical difficulty

TLA is a major sub-component of the L2 teacher's pedagogical content knowledge (Andrews, 1999; 2001; 2003; 2007b). Awareness of difficulty, awareness of students' existing and previous conceptions, and ways of addressing these issues are relevant not

only to PCK but also to TLA. Andrews (2003) points out that the interaction between knowledge and beliefs about subject matter cognitions and knowledge of language gives this combination of PCK components a dimension unique to the L2 teacher. Andrews (2007b:950) states that a range of tasks carried out in the classroom such as "making salient the key grammatical [and lexical] features within input, providing examples and explanations, helping learners to make useful generalisations, and limiting potential sources of learner confusion" are influenced by TLA. As Andrews (2001) suggests, teachers' classroom actions are affected by personality, professional, attitudinal and contextual factors. These factors in tandem explain the multidimensional nature of TLA:

> **a**) *Personality factors:* sensitivity, perception, vision, reflectiveness, and alertness
> **b**) *Professional factors:* the quality of a teacher's subject matter knowledge and language proficiency, awareness of language from the learners' perspective, the teacher's beliefs about grammar[and **lexis**] and experience of teaching grammar [and **lexis**]
> **c**) *Attitudinal factors:* self-confidence or lack of confidence about grammar [and **lexis**], and willingness/readiness to engage seriously with content-related issues
> **d**) *Contextual factors:* pressure of time, the need to follow a prescribed syllabus, curriculum aims and assessment
> (Additions mine; Andrews, 2001:84)

It should be noted that I added lexis to the above framework given that addressing the sources of difficulty and learner confusion is particularly pertinent to dealing with lexical difficulty. In principle, "TLA is applicable to the full range of a teacher's language knowledge and awareness" (Andrews, 1999:161). Recent research has explored various facets of L2 teachers' knowledge about language, with particular reference to grammar (see Andrews, 2001) and vocabulary (McNeill, 1996, cited in Andrews and McNeill, 2005:159).

There are also empirical studies undertaken in relation to TLA. Andrews and McNeill (2005:159) sought to identify the characteristics of TLA exhibited by 'good language teachers'. The most striking characteristic of the TLA of all three subjects was their willingness to engage with the issues of language content. Andrews and McNeill (2005) reported that their participants' (N=3) supposed limitations were largely linked to TLA and specifically to the mediation of input for learning. Two of the participant-teachers performed less well on the vocabulary component than the grammar component of the

Language Awareness test[4]. That teachers pointed to their lack of confidence about vocabulary in the interviews led Andrews and McNeill to conclude that limitations in TLA and their pedagogical practices were mainly related to vocabulary rather than grammar. Andrews and McNeill (2005) attributed the two teachers' poor performance on the vocabulary test to the lack of emphasis on vocabulary in their particular educational context while they explained the reason for the other participant-teacher's better performance on the test by her personal interest in lexis as well as her formal education abroad. Andrews and McNeill (2005) concluded that teachers' individual factors including their formal education background, academic interests and experience abroad exerted influence on their instructional decisions about vocabulary. It is these individual differences that suggest the need for detailed analysis of teachers' personal theories of teaching lexis in other EFL settings.

Although TLA-related research has tended to focus primarily on grammar, there has been work in other areas of language teaching. McNeill (2005) explored Chinese EFL teachers' sensitivity to language learners' vocabulary difficulties as revealed in their ability to anticipate problems students encounter when exposed to particular texts. McNeill (2005) also examined similarities and differences in the non-native speaking teachers' and their native counterparts' awareness of lexical difficulty pedagogical texts might pose to language learners. The task which the teachers were assigned was to read a passage to choose the lexical items without which they considered their students would not get the gist of the text. This is a concern shared by the teachers in the studies by Kuzborska (2011), Meijer *et al*. (1999) and Van Canh and Barnard (2009), all of whom made mention of vocabulary-related difficulties in reading materials. By contrasting the results obtained from the 65 participating teachers in the study with those obtained by 200 secondary school students in a vocabulary test, McNeill (2005) concluded that both experienced and inexperienced groups of Chinese NNS teachers who shared their learners' L1 seemed to be

---

[4] Note that the vocabulary component of the test consisted of two sections, the first focusing on vocabulary metalanguage and awareness to examine the teachers' ability to **a.** recognise vocabulary terms, **b**. divide words into morphemes and **c**. describe the lexical relations within sets of words, and the second on vocabulary error identification accompanied by correction and explanation.

accurate in their predictions about lexical problems that Chinese EFL learners face in reading texts. On the other hand, both experienced and novice NS teachers appeared to be less accurate than their NNS counterparts in anticipating learners' lexical difficulties. These findings suggest that TLA appears to be an important factor to consider in addressing issues in language teacher cognition research. It is important to note that

> McNeill's study is specifically concerned with teachers' awareness of their students' prior L2 knowledge and of the difficulty level of L2 lexical items for students at a particular stage of their learning. The study involves the learner perspective to the extent of requiring the collection of data from students. However, his data were gathered at the beginning of the study so that teachers' predictions of learner difficulty with different lexical items could be compared with the actual difficulties the learners encountered (Andrews, 2007a:175).

The focus of Zimmerman's (2005) study was similar to that of McNeill (2005) although the former specifically concentrated on particular aspects of lexis such as connotation and collocations. Zimmerman examined 12 native-speaking ESL teachers' perceptions about lexical errors relating to both semantic and syntactic constraints on use and their likely treatment by students in university-level intensive programs. That is, teachers were asked to describe how they would explain these types of errors to their students, a feature which is methodologically similar to Macalister (2012) in which teachers describe the imagined lesson they might teach. On the basis of teachers' categorisation and explanations of lexical irregularities, Zimmerman found a similar pattern between non-native and native ESL teachers in that both groups of teachers had difficulty explaining the semantic aspects and nuances of lexical items. It is interesting to note that polysemous lexical items were not particularly difficult for non-native speaking EFL teachers, but they did pose challenges to native speaking teachers.

There is also a difference between the two studies above. McNeill (2005) looked at the teachers' views about potentially misleading lexical items appearing in reading passages, while Zimmerman (2005) asked her informants to verbalise the predetermined lexical irregularities in sentences manipulated by the researchers themselves. McNeill note that many novice teachers displayed a high level of awareness of learners' vocabulary difficulties. Yet, spotting lexical errors on paper bears little relation to treating errors in an

interactive classroom environment, let alone examining the causes of errors made by language learners. That is, teachers may not be able to determine the extent to which these errors can be attributed to intralingual and interlingual factors. On the other hand, the teachers in Zimmerman's study appropriately employed exemplification and comparison of the semantic features of several lexical items despite their inaccurate use of metalanguage with which to categorise the errors.

It is unlikely that the teacher would explain an error to the class unless she first had identified the error in a given material. This is because of the different nature of content knowledge (CK) and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). CK, which is declarative in nature, can be a significant predictor of PCK, which is procedural in nature. There is a drawback in eliciting teachers' CK in interviews where participants are asked to respond to hypothetical questions. The major inadequacy of the studies above lies in the fact that neither of them looked at the actual teaching of lexis in an interactive classroom context. That is, it does not necessarily reflect whether teachers have actually proceduralised their knowledge in real classroom environments. The examination of lexical content of texts in the teaching materials could have been supported by observational data to provide a description of teachers' actual classroom practices. The present study will therefore look at teachers' classroom behaviour when dealing with lexical errors, as well as at discourse in which they articulate their views on lexis instruction.

To investigate the degree to which teachers' ability to make judgements about lexical difficulty related to their own knowledge of vocabulary and their beliefs and practices, McNeill (2011) used vocabulary knowledge tests, a lexical difficulty identification task and a questionnaire about Chinese EFL teachers' (N=20) attitudes tovocabulary pedagogy. McNeill revealed a strong link between teachers' command of English vocabulary (i.e. actual language use or procedural knowledge) and their responsiveness to lexical difficulty from the learners' viewpoints (i.e. the teachers' declarative knowledge and their competence in identifying lexical errors accurately). The teachers who performed well on the lexical difficulty awareness (LDA) task had preferred to use English to explain the meaning of new lexical items, while most of the poor performers on LDA used L1

(Cantonese) regularly in the classroom. McNeill observed that teachers who were most responsive to lexical difficulty tended to use English to explain lexical items through paraphrasing, simplification and synonymy. The researcher found that some teachers appeared unaware of the challenges encountered by their students in the context of reading, while several of the teachers seemed to be unfamiliar with the lexical content of texts they used in their everyday teaching. McNeill (2011:46) advocates that teachers should attend to the language items and that they should "avoid wasting time" on explaining language [i.e. lexis] which their students are already familiar with or able to grasp on their own. However, McNeill overlooks the value in reinforcing and consolidating students' lexical knowledge to minimise forgetting and to increase the speed of access or retrieval. Furthermore, his findings stand in contrast to one of his previous studies (see McNeill, 2000), the result of which suggests teachers' awareness is not necessarily most challenged by advanced level texts. It may well be that TLA is challenged by lower level pedagogical text-based materials partly because they contain polysemous lexical items. Taken together, McNeill (2011) arrived at the conclusion that teachers' awareness of lexical difficulty involves a variety of influential factors such as teachers' knowledge of the English lexical system, proficiency in English, approaches to teaching, teaching experience, knowledge of learners' background, prior learning and L1. For a thorough analysis, these influential factors need to be tracked in teachers' accounts of cognitions and actual practices. An attempt is made by the present study.

The congruence between students' views and teachers' (both NS and NNS) awareness of lexical difficulty has also attracted a great deal of attention from applied linguists. In Brutten's (1981) study (cited in McNeill, 2005) with native-speaker ESL teachers in the US, a high commonality was found between the teachers and students' perceptions about lexical difficulty. Similarly, McNeill (1992) found that there was a high level of consensus on word difficulty between Hong Kong non-native EFL teachers and students. In a Japanese EFL context, on the other hand, Tajino (1995 cited in Tajino, 1997:13) observed that the difficulty order obtained from the students did not match the one obtained from their teachers. In their research on the Japanese high-school EFL teachers' perceptions

about students' vocabulary learning difficulty, Smith and Tajino (2003) found that teachers' perceptions of learner difficulty in vocabulary learning were mostly affected by intralexical factors (39%) as opposed to interlexical factors (13.4%). Smith and Tajino also reported that teachers' explanations of their decisions about inter-lexical difficulty varied considerably although the teachers agreed on which words were the most difficult.

Concerning specific sources of difficulty, McNeill (2005) identified the most frequently-cited aspects perceived to be difficult by teachers as derived words, polysemy and synformy (i.e. similar lexical forms like *cancel/conceal*). It is worth emphasising that particularly synformy was also perceived as difficult by the language learners involved in other studies by Bensoussan and Laufer (1984) and Henry and Metussin (1999). Having studied the phenomenon of lexical difficulty from the viewpoint of students, Bensoussan and Laufer concluded that technical words, multi-syllabic words, abstract words, familiar words in unfamiliar contexts posed a great deal of difficulty for learners. McNeill (2005:122) stated: "whether teachers' awareness of phenomenon of synformy leads to more effective teaching remains to be established". Henry and Metussin recommend treating synforms as form-related difficulty separately in the syllabus. Sonbul and Schmitt's (2010:6) warning that "language teachers should not neglect the development of word form in vocabulary learning, as it may be more difficult than learning meaning" also highlights the importance of word form. Similar accounts can be found in other studies (e.g. Barcroft, 2002; Nation, 2000; Saigh and Schmitt, 2012; Schmitt and Zimmerman, 2002; see studies in Table 5). The above-reviewed studies on lexical difficulty were conducted with a large sample of secondary-school teachers through the use of vocabulary tests. This suggest a need for research on other lexis-related dimensions of language pedagogy from the viewpoints of EAP practitioners working in tertiary contexts that have been underrepresented in the literature. The present study intends to address this gap and to redress the imbalance in research contexts, informants and data generation methods.

Table 5: Studies on lexical difficulty from different perspectives

Theoretical perspective	Teachers' perspective	Learners' perspective	Both teachers' and learners' perspectives
Laufer (1989;1997)	Zimmerman (2005)	McNeill (1990)	Brutten (1981)
N.Ellis and Beaton (1993)	McNeill (2005)	Yoshikawa (1998)	McNeill (1992)
		Henry and Metussin (1999)	Smith and Tajino (2003) Tajino (1997)

2.3.5   'Myths' and principles of teaching lexis

It should be noted that some of the beliefs held by teachers about lexis teaching have been challenged to the extent that they are labelled as 'myths' as they are based on false beliefs or uninformed personal beliefs regarding effective instructional practices (Briggs, 2007; Folse, 2004ab; see also reviews by Johnson, 2005; Milton, 2006; D.Schmitt, 2006). The emergence of 'vocabulary myths' or misconceptions among teachers and coursebook writers about the role of vocabulary in L2 learning and teaching has been attributed to teachers' heavy reliance on L1 approaches to vocabulary.

Perhaps it is the manner in which the teachers are portrayed and represented in the literature that needs to be problematised. Folse's book entitled *Vocabulary Myths* is indeed premature because teachers' beliefs need to be documented in the first place before these beliefs can be labelled or dismissed as mere 'myths'. What is presently needed is not 'mythology' (set of beliefs attributed by others to teachers), but an 'anthology' (a collection of teachers' beliefs about lexical instruction). In sum, the thinness of evidence, the broadness of generalisation, the partiality of interest and the lack of understanding of what teachers actually think need to be compensated for by greater evidence and understanding, which is what the present research has sought to address. Apart from the myths mentioned above, there were also principles recommended by the experts and vocabulary researchers.

A wide recognition of the crucial role of lexis in language learning and teaching culminated in sets of principles for English teachers proposed by researchers (Barcroft, 2002; Beglar and Hunt, 2005; Hunt and Beglar, 2002; Nation, 2001, 2004, 2005a; Laufer, 2005a; Meara, 2005; Sökmen, 1997; Zimmerman, 2008) (see Appendix 1). The relationship between the principles suggested by different experts is worth considering. Of these principles, the most important agreed-upon one is concerned with the idea that lexis to be taught in classroom should be chosen judiciously. The common features of those principles are that the experts conceive them as 'the best ideas' for teaching lexis (see section 2.1.2). The ones over which there is controversy include: whether or not to encourage semantic elaboration, whether or not to use word lists and whether or not to guess words from context. The latter in particular was expressed by the experts in varying degrees of assertiveness (italicised below) manifest in the following principles pertaining to guessing:

- *Experiment* with guessing from context (Hunt and Beglar, 2002)
- *Don't count on* guessing strategies to replace vocabulary knowledge (Laufer 2005)
- *Provide* extended practice in guessing unknown vocabulary from context (Nation, 2005a).

Although there is a consensus amongst vocabulary experts that guessing or deriving word meaning from context is a useful strategy, they seem to vary in the degree to which it should be employed in the language classroom, perhaps due partly to its misleading nature. It is Folse's (2004ab) counter argument against some pedagogical ideas for vocabulary teaching) that stands out from the other experts in that he discusses them in the form of 'myths' (e.g. "guessing words from context is an *excellent* strategy for learning second language vocabulary") (emphasis mine). No matter how assertive the experts are in their evaluation of pedagogical principles, it is the teachers themselves who make their own decisions. However, unless teachers appreciate the advantages and applicability of the proposed lexis teaching principles, they hardly enact them in their own classrooms (Thornbury, 1998). Teachers may selectively evaluate the feasibility of certain principles and practices and how these interact as they develop their relationship with a group of students or if they start to work in a different teaching situation (Breen *et al.* 2001). Teachers also establish their own personal theories according to which they make both

micro and macro decisions with regard to lexical instruction. Ideas about lexis cannot be understood unless the holders of these ideas, namely teachers, have their say. It is therefore necessary to explore teachers' beliefs about their observed classroom practices, which potentially provide insights into lexis teaching pedagogy.

The task of lexis teaching and learning should not be "a random, ad hoc, process, but should be guided by well-supported principles" (Nation, 2004:28). However, the common feature of the principles is that they cannot be readily implemented on several grounds. Firstly, some of them are not targeted at a particular proficiency level or educational context. Secondly, anecdotal evidence suggests that they are not practically focused enough to allow teachers to make instant decisions in real-time. Thirdly, the majority of those principles are slightly biased towards listening and reading (receptive skills) in preference to writing and speaking (productive skills). Last but not least, some principles are generic in the sense that they simply advise what teachers should and should not do (hence 'do's and 'don'ts'). Take the following principle suggested by Laufer's (2005), for example: 'Don't teach several new synforms together'. This principle, however, while a teacher might prefer to teach confusing words that may sound similar but have different meanings during a pre-writing activity so that students use lexical items more accurately, the same teacher might avoid doing so during a pre-listening activity to enable students to understand the general idea of a given listening material. In other words, it is likely that teachers do not simply adhere to such general expert principles, but interpret them according to their own understanding of teaching and their classroom context.

Not all of these principles take account of the intricate contextual and circumstantial realities of a language classroom. As Lightbown (2000) asserts, research may alienate teachers in one way or another when it is carried out in contexts that fall short of reflecting teachers' realities. Working on the assumption that teachers know more about the constraints and demands of their own contexts than what decontextualised expert principles can allow for, it is necessary to identify the teachers' underlying reasons why they teach the way they do and how this reflects their beliefs about teaching lexis. These beliefs and theories may be shaped by their classroom teaching experience or on curriculum factors or

other influential factors such as their training. Teachers' personal theories may also be based on their beliefs about students' expectations as well as about contextual factors which decontextualised principles hardly take into consideration. As Borg (1999:26) states, "it is only by studying teacher cognition that we can gain access to hidden motivations (students' expectations and teachers' confidence) for teachers' instructional decisions". Such 'hidden motivations' are by no means pedagogically detrimental, but justifiable practical concerns when viewed from the teachers' perspective.

The ecological perspective on language teaching focuses attention on the participants' subjective reality in the teaching–learning process, and on the dynamic interaction between methodology and context (Tudor, 2001, 2002, 2003). For example, Bax (2003) criticised the Lexical Approach, a language-driven approach proposed by Lewis (1993), with lexis being its core, on the grounds that it marginalises the learning and teaching context (see also Harwood, 2002; Thornbury, 1998). Bax goes so far as to say that underlying this particular approach is the idea that it can benefit learners of all types irrespective of their background and contexts. However, teachers will inevitably attend to contextual factors, not merely to methodological or linguistic ones (see the discussion of eclecticism in teacher cognitions by Andon and Eckerth, 2009). As Foster (1998:4) argues, "SLA research has to be willing to move into the environment of an undisturbed, intact classroom, and not confine itself exclusively to places organised for or disrupted by a research experiment".

There is an assumption that the oversimplified, decontextualized theories and methods of language learning and teaching that teachers learn about in their education programs will somehow turn into complex ways of acting and interacting with a particular group of students in a particular time and place (Johnson, 1996). This means that teacher beliefs are not rooted in general theories of learning, cognition, or instruction, but in what has worked in past situations, particular instances, and trial and error (Clark and Peterson, 1986). Orton (1996:140) writes that "[e]xperience, rather than general principles of instruction, is regarded by teachers as the sine qua non of effective teaching". Thornbury (1998:10) contends that "practising teachers will have little interest in a set of principles that have few or no clear implications for classroom practice, or that can only with difficulty be

operationalized". Folse (2010) points out that recent empirical evidence also suggests that it is the teachers who are more influential in making decisions as to how to deal with lexis teaching than other curriculum factors such as syllabus, coursebook, examinations, or the type of the course (e.g. reading, grammar and speaking). Taken together, teacher-related factors about lexis instruction within naturally-occuring teaching situations are worth investigating.

Unlike public theories, some of which are discussed in the literature review, teachers' personal theories can be implicit and context-specific as they are mostly grounded in their experience (Eraut, 2000). Therefore, the tendency to search for effective and pre-determined teaching methods seems to underestimate the influence of teachers' knowledge and beliefs and their understanding of their contexts and practices on their planning and decision-making (Andon and Eckerth, 2009). In fact, seeking 'best practices' and imposing them on language teachers does not do justice to the complexity of the classroom learning of a language, or teacher decision-making.

To provide a comprehensive account of teachers' cognitions about the nature of lexis itself as well as lexis teaching, the present study is not limited to a specific skills focus (listening/reading), nor is it restricted merely to analysis of the teachers' views about the particular areas of difficulty for learners. Rather, the study seeks to highlight teachers' views and concerns pertaining to the process of lexical instruction as it takes place in classrooms, an area in which the applied linguists have been making their call for in-depth research.

2.3.6 Overall summary

In summary, the above review of the literature discussed studies of teacher cognition and vocabulary instruction. They focused on teachers with different profiles, methodology, and subject-matter cognitions. One reason why lexis has not yet become a central focus in the language teacher cognition research might be that it is interspersed across the curricular/skills areas and its occurrence in the classroom is relatively unpredictable (see Wette, 2009; Woods, 1997). The literature review highlighted several key issues which are

summarised below. Teacher cognition is a domain which is characterised by diversity in terms of participants, types of classes or contexts, research methodology and focus. Regarding research focus, one of the most salient features is that some studies seek to compare teachers' beliefs with the theoretical literature on, for example, reading in second language (e.g. Cabaroglu and Yurdaisik 2008; Johnson, 1992; Kuzborska 2011), communicative language teaching (e.g. Mangubhai *et al*., 2004; Woods and Cakir, 2011) task-based learning and teaching (e.g. Andon and Eckerth, 2009) and the relationship between reading and vocabulary learning and teaching beliefs (Konopak and Williams, 1994). Some studies, on the other hand, examine teachers' beliefs in comparison to their actual classroom practices. To have a better understanding of teachers' personal theories underlying the practices they favour, it is important to examine *how* and *why* they do what they do. This is what comprises the focus of the present study. Investigating teachers' perspective in relation to the teaching of lexis, specifically exploring the way in which EAP teachers' cognitions about lexis teaching shape their instructional practices, can potentially contribute to a broader understanding of the viability of the principles proposed by experts. Besides, such an endeavour of capturing both cognitive and behavioural dimensions of teaching may expand the research agenda with respect to domain-specific processes in language teaching

It seems that vocabulary instruction is biased towards meaning vocabulary/word meaning in the literature (e.g. Konopak and Williams, 1994; Watts, 1995). Other aspects of lexical knowledge apart from meaning also deserve a great deal of attention. To have a better understanding of teachers' personal theories underlying the practices they favour, it is important to examine *how* and *why* they do what they do in terms of lexis teaching across all skills areas, not just during reading comprehension instruction. This is what comprises the focus of the present study. Investigating teachers' perspective in relation to the teaching of lexis, specifically exploring the way in which EAP teachers' cognitions about lexis teaching shape their instructional practices, can potentially contribute to a broader understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.

3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Paradigm

The present study adopts an exploratory-interpretative paradigm as proposed by Grotjahn (1987). This paradigm suggests that knowledge represented in qualitative data can be accessed without experiments or interventions. Since in this paradigm knowledge is seen as personally and socially constructed, no attempt is made to strictly follow a cause-and-effect relationship between individuals' beliefs and actions. Instead, priority is given to understanding the meanings the participants assign to their instructional practices. Central to this paradigm is making sense of "the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it" (Schwandt, 1994:118). Different teachers might interpret the same events in different ways depending on their personal characteristics, preferences and professional expertise. In this regard, the object of study is not the phenomenon per se, but the experiences and subsequent perceptions of the phenomenon as suggested by phenomenographic research, a type of research which seeks a "description, analysis, and understanding of experiences" (Marton, 1981:180). Applied to the curricular focus of the current study, as already suggested in the Literature Review chapter, since there is no definite and straightforward answer to what is the best technique in teaching lexis, this paradigm allows us to investigate teachers' subjective understanding of lexis teaching as well as to understand the dynamics underlying their instructional practices.

Since this exploratory study was to generate a rich, contextualised and personal account of subject-matter cognitions, care was taken to capture the informants' respective interpretations. Such interpretations were sought in their belief statements which conveyed the rationales they associated with their lexis-related actions during formal instruction. The meaning(s) which they assigned to their everyday actual classroom practices could best be captured through a non-judgemental attitude towards the teachers' viewpoints. This does not mean, however, that potential bias and subjectivity on the part of the researcher has completely been eliminated. The precautions taken are to be explained in section 3.8.

3.1.1 Ontological perspective

The ontological perspective is concerned with the nature of reality. As Richards (2003) argues, the notion of reality is a construction based on interaction of the individuals with their environment. A constructionist view of social reality has been adopted in the present inquiry. Constructionism is defined by Crotty (2003:42) as "the view that all knowledge is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essential social context". Due to the distinctive characteristics of educational settings, situated reality is characterised by plural and diverse understandings. Without understanding teachers' personal and professional experience, it is hard to explore the relationship between their beliefs and practices. Accordingly, the present study does not set out to identify the 'best' lexis teaching method because the effectiveness of a teaching method has a number of variables. It is important to note that "effective teaching depends more than anything else on the ability to read situations and understand the reality they have for participants" (Tudor, 1998:323). This does not mean, however, that those variables cannot be measured or controlled at all, yet such an attempt falls outside the scope of the present research. Instead, the study intends to gain insight into why teachers approach the teaching of lexis the way they do. As Tudor (1998) put it,

> the reality of language teaching emerges from the dynamic interaction of […] different perceptions and goals of the various participants involved more or less directly in the teaching process, a process which is unique to each classroom and which can rarely be predicted in advance (Tudor, 1998:319-323).

3.1.2 Epistemological perspective

Epistemology is concerned with the nature and generation of knowledge. The exploration of the relationship between the individual and the environment delineates the way the world is interpreted (Richards, 2003). Since reality lends itself to diverse interpretations, individuals construct their own version of reality. Rather than construing knowledge as an objective reality, interpretivist research acknowledges the personally constructed nature of all knowledge (Bassey, 1991 cited in Borg, 1998a; see Kessels and Korthagen, 1996). From an exploratory-interpretive perspective, research is conceived as a task of interpreting human action by understanding why people behave in the way they do. Johnson (2009) points out that adopting an interpretive

epistemological stance entailed a shift from observational studies of what teachers do to descriptions based on observation as well as on interviews with teachers about why they do what they do. Johnson goes on to say that:

> A knowledge-base is not a static or neutral entity; instead, it is grounded in certain values, assumptions, and interpretations that are shared by members of a particular professional community. And these values, assumptions, and interpretations are grounded in particular epistemological perspectives – that is, what counts as knowledge, who is considered to be knower, and how knowledge is produced (Johnson, 2009:11).

Understanding the nature of lived experience of the phenomenon is seen is an important characteristic of the present research. Investigating lexis teaching from practitioners' perspective allows an exploration of how teachers approach lexis and of the factors underlying their instructional decisions and actions. Relying on participants' views of the situation being studied, the researcher following the interpretative paradigm inductively develops patterns of meanings (Creswell, 2009). Intentions also play a crucial role in interpreting human behaviour. It is possible that similar actions are taken with different motives and intentions. The reverse is also true. Different actions may be motivated by similar intentions. Multiple realities inherent in teachers' beliefs and practices can be examined through the interpretivist paradigm which contends that meaning resides in individuals' interpretations.

3.2   Research Design

One of the criticisms that can be levelled against some of teacher cognition studies is that they rely on paper and pencil measures of teacher cognition (e.g. questionnaires) without examining cognition in relation to practice. The present study attempts to overcome this limitation by observing teachers' actual practices. Teachers' beliefs about lexis pedagogy has been investigated through self-reports (questionnaire – interviews) (Ma and Kelly, 2009) and vocabulary knowledge tests (Andrews and McNeill, 2005; Zimmerman, 2005). The strength of the current study lies in its examination of teachers' observed behaviour in and through classroom interaction in a naturally occurring classroom environment. Adopting a wider focus is required because teachers need to make instant decisions as to whether they need to give immediate or delayed or no instructional intervention at all on a particular lexical item in response to students.

The present qualitative study is characterised by a non-experimental design, for it aims to generate qualitative data and carry out an interpretive analysis. No demarcation line between thought and behaviour is assumed and not only verbal commentaries (e.g. interview, stimulated-recall interview) but also observational data (e.g. classroom observation, field notes) were incorporated into the design of the present research. Instead of concentrating on just the more immediate aspects of how teachers think and behave, any instance of classroom teaching events is analysed on the basis of what teachers think and of the factors that delineate the link between thought and practice (Cross, 2010).

3.3   Research Approach: Case Study

A case study is defined as a single instance of some bounded system, which can range from one individual to a class, a school, or an entire community with a view to understanding perceptions of events (McKay, 2006). A case study is an exploration of characteristics of an individual unit which can be a person or some kind of bounded group such as a class (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). Yin's (1994:13) definition of case study is more inclusive because it involves an empirical investigation of "a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence". In terms of its function, a case study serves to gain a deeper understanding of a situation and/or its meaning from the teachers' and students' viewpoints (Merriam, 1988; McKay, 2006). As far as applied linguistics is concerned, the process of L2 teaching and learning could be a 'situation' to be investigated.

In-depth understanding achieved through detailed contextualisation and rich description not only minimises the dependence upon unstated assumptions but also makes the research process much more accessible to the reader (Nunan, 1992). Participants' insider knowledge can be explored employing a qualitative approach where "the definitions of the researcher are captured through the eyes of the observed" (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:407). Various sources of evidence develop 'converging lines of enquiry' (Yin, 1994:13). The present case study of two EAP teachers does not rely on a single research instrument. The methods used to examine their lexis-related instructional beliefs and practices include observations (supported by field notes) and stimulated recall interviews. It was considered that using classroom observations in conjunction with interviews might better capture teachers' beliefs about and practices of lexis teaching.

The present research is 'exploratory' (Yin, 2003) in the sense that it aims to find out the informants' own perspectives and perceptions pertaining to a curricular area of ELT, that is, the teaching of lexis, so as to theorise the findings that emerged from the naturalistic data (Duff, 2007). In some studies (e.g. Liang, 2006; Sanaoui, 1996; Tang and Nesi, 2003), it was the vocabulary instruction itself that became the unit of analysis. That is, these studies focused primarily on teachers' vocabulary teaching practices in varying numbers and types of classrooms, without referring to these teachers' views on their practices. In the present study, however, the teachers themselves were treated as units of analysis, and hence individual cases. The cases were located in two different universities in the same city.

The other characteristic is that the study involves a combination of *within-case* and *cross-case analysis*. This requires a detailed description and interpretation of themes and categories within each case as well as a thematic analysis across the cases. Although it is the teaching processes and its underpinnings that constitute the focus of the present study, I also provide a description of the many contextual factors without which the case cannot be understood. This is in line with Stake's (1995:37) 'inquiry for experiential understanding', a notion which suggests that not only the distinctiveness of individual cases but also the peculiarity of the educational contexts where they work are crucial in gaining experiential understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.

3.4 Sampling and Access

The criteria for selection of the cases were based on each individual teacher being an EAP teacher with at least 5 years of teaching experience. At the time of the study, the participants had been working for some time (Hati: 5 years; Raci: 2 years) in a university-based preparatory school, in this case two private English-medium universities in Turkey. Table 6 provides an overview of the participants' characteristics.

As for the research sites, about which I will provide detailed information below, I did not carry out this study simultaneously given that they were in different districts quite far from each other. The distance between the two sites is approximately 80 km. Instead, only when I finished my observations at the first research site, did I start my fieldwork on the other research site. I had the advantage that the location where I lived at the time of the study was of almost equal distance to both schools. Although both research sites were preparatory schools that belong to private universities situated in a

diverse metropolitan city in Turkey, there were some variations that characterised each school in terms of vocabulary instruction. The reasons for selecting the sites are explained in the next section.

Table 6: Profiles of the participating teachers

Participants	Nationality and Gender	Education	Additional Languages	Countries where she taught	Years of experience	No of students	Years of teaching within the same institution
RACI	Irish Female	BA Communication Studies; CELTA Diploma	Scottish Gaelic	Turkey India UK	7	21	2
HATI	Turkish Female	BA ELT; MA TEFL	German	Turkey	10	22	5

There are various sampling strategies utilised in social science research. Non-probability sampling is used in situations where it is not essential to generalise to a large population. Some of its sub-types include quota, convenience, purposive, snowball and volunteer sampling (Robson, 2002). Although quota sampling represents a large number of participants, some atypical groups may go unnoticed. Snowball sampling is useful especially when it is felt to be hard to reach the target population (Cohen, *et al.*, 2007). Convenience sampling is concerned with accessibility of the respondents at the time of study (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). A further distinction is made in the literature between random and purposive sampling (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). Purposive sampling is used when a particular segment of people can provide relevant information about the purpose of the research (Patton, 1990). Purposive sampling allows for choosing those informants who are able to "provide rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation so as to maximize what we can learn" (Dörnyei 2007:126). Besides, variety was added to the selection of participants within my sample in terms of gender, nationality and types of experience for it was felt that this would reflect the complex nature of teachers' beliefs shaped by their language learning and teaching experience.

In the present study purposive, convenience, volunteer sampling was adopted (Silverman, 2000). I chose two participants on two different sites (see Table 6). Selecting participants and sites that help address the research question does not necessarily entails a large sample size (Creswell, 2009). I corresponded with several program coordinators in several universities. Only one program coordinator from a private university agreed to circulate an announcement email to teachers of intermediate-level classes to find out whether they might volunteer to participate in the study. The average experience of these teachers whose consent was secured was 10 years. Although I planned to do my fieldwork in just one university in the first instance for convenience and manageability reasons; travelling between different sites was considered to be rather costly, it was felt that conducting fieldwork and collecting data at different research sites simultaneously could cause a great deal of confusion during data management. As Bogdan and Biklen (2007:70) suggest, in case studies subsequent cases become much easier and take less time after completing the first case because the first case study could provide the researcher with a focus to define the parameters of the other cases. Since I had one informant at each site, I moved onto the other site to work with the other informant having completed the data collection with the first informant.

Site 1: The first research site was the School of Languages where I conducted the study with one of my participants, Hati. It faced a large artificial lake and industrial landscape. The multimedia facilities made life easier as technical failures hardly occurred during my fieldwork. The school offered an elective language course– including Spanish, Greek and Kurdish. The school provided me with a temporary ID card for access to the site. This obviated the need for calling the manager at the information desk each time I visited the school. Thanks to the coordinator's kind request, I was permitted to use the shuttle bus and exempted from the fee-charge. The coordinator allocated a table at administration where the teachers' pigeonholes and meeting rooms were situated. I was able to observe the school's routines and to have an informal conversation and develop a relationship with the staff members who usually came for exam review meetings taking place in rooms located nearby the administration office. One disadvantage of working in the administration office was that occasionally some students asked me queries in the absence of the school secretary. I redirected them to the secretary next door. To socialise with the members of staff in the School of Languages, I also attended the commemoration ceremony of Mustafa Kemal Ataturk, the founder of the Republic

of Turkey, held in the university's conference hall. I attended English for Maths and Sciences (EMS[5]) taster lectures to get an idea of what they were all about. Given the academic environment of the School, it was not difficult to notice that the School had a research culture in which students had an active role. For example, in a casual conversation during lunch break, the Director of the School expressed the importance of referring to students' views about their teachers' ways of teaching to improve the quality of instruction provided by the School.

Site 2: As for the second research site, I was able to commute to the field by Metrobus, bus rapid transit system (a combination of a metro train and a bus). Since I spent time transcribing data in the university library, I found the opportunity to meet some students who often talked favourably about their teachers. I tried to learn as much as possible about the characteristics of the teachers they liked the most. Their views enabled me to get access to some details that otherwise would not have been possible. Besides, during lunch breaks and lesson breaks, I was able to obtain factual information about the preparatory school from the participant and from students with whom I established a good relationship, particularly those students who shared with me their future goals, mostly academic and career-related ones.

3.5   Data Generation Methods

In the present study, data generation methods included classroom observations, stimulated recall, and follow-up interviews. The data collection process spanned one academic semester which lasted approximately 3 months. The observation and stimulated-recall interview sessions with each teacher took about 7 hours and 3 hours, respectively (Table 7).

Table 7: Length of observation and number of FonL episodes

Teacher	Length of observation	Number of FonL episodes
Raci	8 sessions (400 min)	31
Hati	8 sessions (400 min)	40

---

[5] The EMS course is a non-credit course offered to pre-intermediate students with the purpose of helping students to prepare earlier and more effectively for their freshman Natural Sciences and Math courses. The courses comprise interactive lectures and smaller group sessions.

See Figure 3 for the summary of data collection process. The two types of evidence presented in the study include FonL episodes taken from the discourse of classroom interaction of the naturally-occurring lessons and the teachers' concomitant comments and reflections on these episodes elicited through stimulated recall and follow-up interviews.

| Pre-observation interviews [RQ 1, RQ3] |
| Observations [RQ 2, RQ 3, RQ4] |
| Stimulated recall interviews [RQ1, RQ 3, RQ4] |
| Follow-up interviews (via email) [RQ1, RQ2, RQ3, RQ4] |
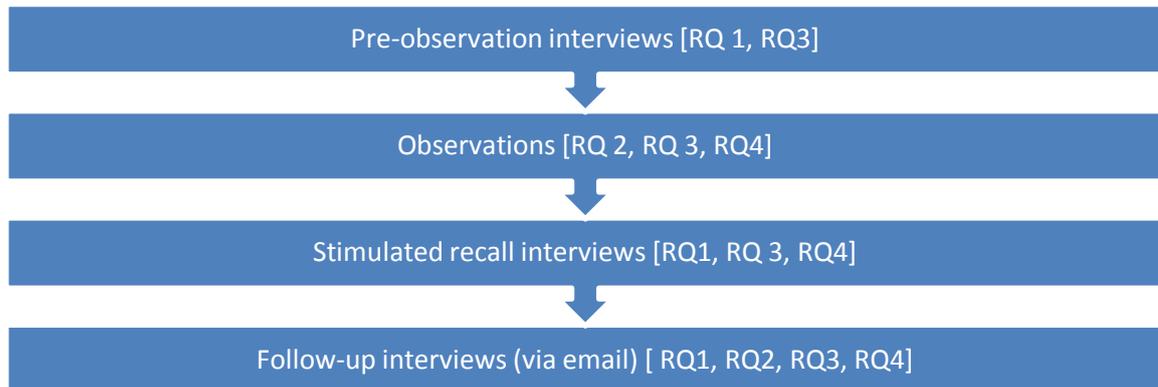
Figure 3: Summary of data generation process

3.5.1   Classroom Observations

Observation helps the researcher become aware of some dynamics of classrooms which cannot be captured by other instruments. Observing direct evidence of behaviour allows for the collection of descriptive data (Dörnyei, 2007). This helps the researcher to avoid relying solely on secondary sources of data. Instead of using an observation schedule, I preferred to take notes when observing the lesson. The choice of a classroom observation schedule might restrict access to some important emergent patterns of behaviour not included in the schedule. Furthermore, it did not seem to be manageable for the researcher to take notes and to follow an observation schedule at the same time.

I audio-recorded the observed lessons. The classroom observations, which involved two consecutive lessons, served to frame the issues raised to be discussed during the SRIs. This meant that not all the classroom events were reproduced by transcribing observational data in their entirety but the relevant captured audio-taped data pertaining to the teaching of lexis were used as a prompt to elicit the teachers' interpretation of their instructional actions. Since it is essential to describe when and how an explanation of a lexical item is requested or provided, descriptions of classroom procedures in the form of field notes were also used to identify the moments in which lexical items become the focus of classroom interaction. There might be short exchanges between the

teacher and student(s) consisting of no more than two turns or extended exchanges consisting of three turns at least.[6]

Observed teachers and students may feel uneasy or wish to please the researcher through some of their responses. The presence of observers inevitably alters the event being observed (Allwright, 1984:158). It seemed best to adopt the role of a non-participant observer who sat at the back of the class taking observational notes and audio-taping classroom events. Compared to video-taping, audio-taping would minimise reactivity on the part of participant teachers. Using observation alone (in this case often twin-lesson observation), however, is insufficient to understand the interrelated structure of teachers' belief system. The fact that that the participants' instructional motives and intentions cannot be accessed to during the activity of teaching make the use of verbal commentary indispensable in the present study.

3.5.2 Interviews

A multifaceted phenomenon such as teachers' cognitions cannot be investigated simply through one research instrument. Different types of instruments have been used in teacher cognition research, among which are questionnaires, repertory grids, concept maps, think-aloud protocols and so forth. Questionnaires can be used to gather substantial amounts of data in a short time. Yet preset statements in questionnaires may reflect the perspective of the researcher rather than that of teachers and this would run the risk of missing out on the complex nature of teachers' mental lives (Borg, 2006). Another alternative could have been cued-response scenarios in which "the teachers are presented with a set of scenarios of typical classroom situations and asked to comment on what they do in these situations" (Ellis, 2012:145). Although such scenarios can make the discussion of teacher belief more concrete, as Borg (2006) argues, they may fall short of capturing the factors which exert an influence on teachers' decisions in actual teaching, such as their knowledge of the learners or their assessment of their needs at any particular point in time.

---

[6] I, as a language learner, gained this insight through attending a Spanish course offered by School of Languages at the University of Leicester. The rationale for this endeavour lies in the need for awareness of how it feels to learn foreign lexis, in this case Spanish – a language that shares lexical and phonological similarities with both English and Turkish, respectively, by observing how the tutors taught.

Interviews allow researchers to ask specific questions to their informants and probe them where necessary (Creswell, 2007). There are different types of interview such as structured, unstructured, and semi-structured. A structured interview does not enable respondents to rephrase when they are required to clarify their comments. Neither does it assist the researcher in making inferences about why they act in the ways they do. The inflexible nature of structured interviews can hardly allow the researcher to address informants' responses that need further elaboration. Since the present study is exploratory in nature, the linear questioning nature of a structured interview would not have helped explore teachers' beliefs which could only be partially accessed in this way. Although unstructured interviews appear to be useful to understand teachers' views and practices, open-endedness may result in teachers' unnecessarily detailed description and thus distraction from the research agenda. For the purposes of the present research, stimulated recall and semi-structured interviews seemed to be more appropriate.

3.5.2.1 Stimulated-recall interview

The stimulated-recall interview (henceforth SRI) technique is defined as a way of gathering "teachers' retrospective reports of their thought processes" (Calderhead, 1981:215). Gass and Mackey (2000) describe SRI as a means of attempting to explore subjects' thought processes and strategies by providing them some sort of support such as a videotape or audiotape to talk about their thought processes at the time of the actual activity.

In the present study, most of the SRI sessions were conducted within two days of the observations, while some were held more promptly, soon after relevant observed instances, had been identified and transcribed to ensure that they were carried out within as short a time interval as possible. The rationale behind leaving brief interval between the recall and the event being recalled is to minimise data loss and generate more valid data (Gass and Mackey, 2000; Green, 1998).

The use of SRI represented an attempt to provide a concrete point of departure for the teachers to articulate their beliefs in relation to their individual teaching contexts. During the SRIs, the stimuli audio recording and transcript of the observed lessons (more specifically FonL episodes) were used to give the teachers the opportunity to articulate their thoughts in relation to the immediate context of their own classroom.

The SRI sessions focused on pre-selected FonL episodes. I selected most of the episodes myself, but the informants were free to reflect on episodes about particular lexical items of their choice or to proceed to a subsequent episode if they were not able to remember. The participating teachers were requested to pause the tape and explain at points where they recollected their instructional decisions (also by looking at the transcribed classroom interaction). This is different from the alternative strategy whereby verbalisations are collected in the form of a running commentary without pausing the recording at all. In sum, since the researcher used both audio and transcript together, participants were partly free in their choice of what episode to reflect on. They were granted a great deal of freedom in focusing on the aspects of their teaching throughout the data elicitation process.

As long as the stimuli are strong enough to activate memory structures (Gass and Mackey, 2000), they do not necessarily have to take the form of video data. As Borg (2006:280) reminds us, "the choices often need to be made not just on methodological grounds but also with an awareness of what is practically feasible, acceptable and permissible in the particular context under study". For example, I had to use audio-stimuli instead of video-stimuli, as the co-ordinator of the School of Languages did not permit me to video record lessons when I first contacted her to get access to the participants. In the present study, relevant classroom observation data transcripts were used in conjunction with audio data to prompt teachers to reflect on the FonL episodes, especially on occasions where more than one lexical item came up consecutively. Using both auditory and written stimuli led to extended discussion at times as it lasted longer than other episodes reflected upon without playing the audio. Apart from the transcripts, the teaching materials such as worksheets, handouts, and coursebook used in the observed lessons served as a spring board for discussion. These materials were shown to the participants at the start of virtually all SRI sessions so that they could talk about how they felt about them.

Other language teacher cognition researchers (Basturkmen *et al*., 2004; Vanci Osam and Balbay, 2004; Woods, 1996) have also used the SRI technique to investigate teachers' thought processes and interactive decision-making while teaching. The reason is that it provides 'a combined focus' on both classroom practice and teachers' thinking (Cross, 2010:439). In this respect, SRI helps reveal unobservable internal and unconscious processes such as teachers' decision-making, relevant to a particular instance of the

lesson, which might otherwise be missed out (Ainley and Luntley, 2007). As Calderhead (1981:211) put it, "although questions of validity cannot be completely resolved, the technique [SRI] presents a systematic approach to the collection of data potentially useful in research on teaching".

The aims of SRI were 1) to facilitate teachers' recall of simultaneous thought processes and what underpinned their instructional decisions and 2) to initiate discussion of teachers' beliefs about their practices using the moment as a concrete starting point (Borg, 2006; Woods, 1996). The distinction between the recall of interactive or concurrent thought processes and the recall of events to facilitate discussion of the factors influencing beliefs is often reflected in the questions (e.g. what were you paying attention to?; what was on your mind?) asked in some studies (e.g. Gatbonton, 1999; Mullock, 2006). The latter recall of events aim seems to be more central than the former one. If teachers talk about only those thoughts they could remember having at the time, their comments may turn out to be nothing more than discrete and unrelated set of ideas (Calderhead, 1981).

In the present study, the participating teachers were expected to describe what lexical items they taught, and why they taught the way they did. Apart from their preferences for certain teaching techniques, they were also requested to respond to the following questions raised during the SRI sessions to map out the beliefs held by the informants:

1. Can you please comment on the materials and activities you used? (RQ2, RQ4)
2. What were you doing in this episode and why? (RQ2, RQ1)
3. How does this segment of teaching relate to the lesson as a whole? (RQ1)
4. Was this lexical item previously taught or was it the first time you taught it? (RQ2, RQ4)
5. If you were to deal with the same lexical item what would you do differently? (RQ2)

As seen in the brackets, the above questions were aimed to address the main research questions (RQ) provided in the Introduction chapter (see section 1.5). Note that RQ3, which addresses the link between the teachers' beliefs and practices, is not included because it cannot be ascertained from a single question. SRI zoomed in on and zoomed out of FonL episodes, namely, the questions were directly or indirectly connected to particular teacher and student exchanges in which lexis was the focus. This is because it was felt that teachers' thinking often varied in degree of the specificity and generality

and they tended to touch upon abstract notions of teaching methodology as well as upon concrete classroom events.

The teachers' remarks made in broad terms without complete reliance on actual observed classroom events might not reflect their pedagogical and contextual realities if they solely drew on their technical knowledge rather than experiential knowledge they have built throughout their career. It is important to recognise, however, that the teachers might have found themselves expressing their beliefs in general although they were expected to focus on particular classroom events, or they may have ended up talking about other issues though they were asked to articulate their specific beliefs. If they remembered an incident which sounded irrelevant to the particular episode they were reflecting on, they were allowed to mention it. They were given such flexibility because their recollections might involve relevant biographical elements that impinged on the teachers' practices. The above procedures can potentially complement one another providing further understanding of teachers' beliefs and the context-specific factors that significantly affect their practices.

SRI is not without its drawbacks. It is criticised as not being able to elicit participants' true introspection because "[the participants'] reports are based on a priori, implicit causal theories, or judgments about the extent to which a particular stimulus is a plausible cause of a given response" (Nisbett and Wilson, 1977:231). In other words, it may encourage participants to come up with 'post-hoc rationalisations', that is, contrived explanations made during the interview rather than actual reasons for actions taken during instruction (Borg, 2006:211). Given the difficulty of reporting directly on cognitive processes, subjects tend to speculate about why they behaved as they did (Green, 1998). The possibility of retrospective justification and heavy reliance on memory were partly reduced by providing participants with the classroom transcripts and tapes to trigger their memories of the moments in which they taught lexical items. The informants' verbal commentary about their practices (e.g. the teachers' lengthy explanations of differences between lexical items) on a moment-by-moment basis might turn out to be more of a description than reflection on practice when teachers elaborated on whether things worked out successfully or not.

3.5.2.2 Semi-structured follow-up interviews

Given the complex nature of teachers' beliefs and practices, interviewing the participants may only reveal partial fragments of an event rather than the whole picture (Holliday, 2007). Asking participants about the main classroom events in general they take part in can be a way of following up the emerging points in the form of conceptual categories. Not only does this follow-up interview enable deeper levels of understanding of the face-to-face interviews conducted previously (Robson, 2002), but it also gives participants the flexibility to modify their expressions or to comment on their practices without necessarily having to rely on the observational data alone. Following Hobbs and Kubanyiova's (2008) recommendation, I made use of follow-up interviews as an additional data collection method to address the holes in the data that emerged after the completion of primary data collection. Asking participants' permission to contact them for more information or clarification after the data collection helped lessen the stress of having only limited time for data analysis. Not only does this follow-up interview enable deeper levels of understanding of the interviews conducted previously (Robson, 2002), but it also gives participants the flexibility to modify their expressions or to comment on their practices without necessarily having to rely solely on the observation data. In this respect, using follow-up interviews proved a useful data collection instrument. The interviews were conducted by e-mail for practical purposes.

3.6 Pilot Study

In this section, I will describe the purpose and procedures of the pilot study as well as their implications for the main study. As R. Andrews (2003) suggests, the pilot stages serve the purpose of testing the research instruments, but they can also provide valuable substantial data in an attempt to answer the main question. The purpose of piloting the observation, interviews and stimulated recall was to:

> **a.** ensure that they yielded adequate data to answer the research questions

> **b.** consider the degree of feasibility in identifying the FonL episodes to be used as a unit of meaning in the observational data

> **c.** check the clarity of wording in interviews and questionnaire

> **d.** understand how much time the SRI might take and how relevant the teachers' responses were likely to be to the objectives of the research project.

Instruments such as pre-observation interviews, observations, and SRI were piloted with two EAP teachers, one in Turkey and one in the UK. Both of these teachers were working in a university-based language centre at the time of the pilot study. In the case of the teacher in the UK, it turned out to be a rewarding experience as I appreciated the challenging complexity of observing the process of lexical instruction in multi-lingual classrooms. For instance, my observation of the treatment of a culture-specific lexical item *agony aunt* (see Appendix 2) in these classrooms helped me to become much more alert to similar instructional instances I encounted during my subsequent fieldwork as a part of the actual project. For the pilot study, apart from the pre-observation interviews to map out participants' background as well as their general approaches to lexis teaching in their educational context, I kept a record of the details about the characteristics of FonL episodes throughout classroom observation.

The pilot study served to try out the procedures followed in the main study. The piloting enabled me to sensitise myself to the occurrences of lexis-related classroom events, to develop my interviewing skills, to improve typing speed in transcribing the data, and to decide on the ideal sequence of the steps to be taken during SRI. Piloting the observations and stimulated recall helped me to gain the following insights which then informed the actual study:

- At the beginning of the SRI, I asked the teacher to talk about specific activities, which then provided a basis for reflection, instead of asking them to talk about the lesson as a whole. Eliciting their views on lexis-related activities was useful; otherwise it could have been difficult to know where to begin.

- I recognised the importance of allowing teachers to talk about the parts they wanted to comment on.

- It was crucial to use main materials (coursebook) and supplementary materials such as activities, handouts and worksheets as stimuli to trigger teachers' comments at the start of SRIs.

- Initially, I was trying to elicit the teachers' choices and dilemmas assuming that they had some moments where they had to choose amongst different instructional techniques. Thanks to piloting, I came to realise that teachers go for their favoured techniques with which they are comfortable instead of oscillating between a range of choices.

- Teachers' tiredness was expected to manifest itself in reluctance to talk, reflect and articulate. To address this issue, I first approached the participants asking whether they felt ready for stimulated recall and other follow-up interviews.

- I realised that I overused prompts in the pilot study (e.g. were you thinking about giving more examples?); in the actual study, I realised the importance of using backchannel feedback (short utterances like hhmm, hhmm, right, OK). I tried to exercise care to use such minimal responses as timely as possible. This was something I was able to understand from their facial expressions, eye gaze, and gestures. I appreciated the back-challenging strategies as a means to have a more cooperative and effective interpersonal interaction.

- A decision had to be made between using the transcript as a stimulus and allowing the participants to listen to the whole episode on a tape. The sequence of providing them with stimuli would be first asking them how they felt about the pertinent parts of handout or coursebook, and then reading the transcript of episodes and simultaneously listening to them on the tape. After a few trials, I felt that reading out the contexts (in which they dealt with a lexical item) from the transcript turned out to be more fruitful because this helped me confirm that the teacher could better recall these particular instances. This process seemed to save valuable time and enabled me to become less obtrusive in that the teacher listened to and read the particular FonL episode on tape and transcript respectively.

- I noticed that one of the participants involved in the pilot made a statement starting with "*as you said…*" to refer to what I mentioned during a particular interview. This enabled me to appreciate Richards' (2009:193) reminder that interviewers need to see how their talk has an impact on the nature of the respondents' comments.

3.7 Data analysis

This section, which deals with the main study, is organised into three sub-sections about the analysis of the research data. The first sub-section is about how I made sense of the SRI data. The second sub-section focuses on the way in which the classroom observation data was analysed. Finally, the third sub-section is concerned with the process of cross-checking the abovementioned data sets. The reason why I first

undertook a separate analysis for each source of data is related to the nature of each data set. Informants' verbalisation and classroom interaction are the focal points of interviews and observation, respectively. The overall summary of data analysis is given in Figure 4 below.
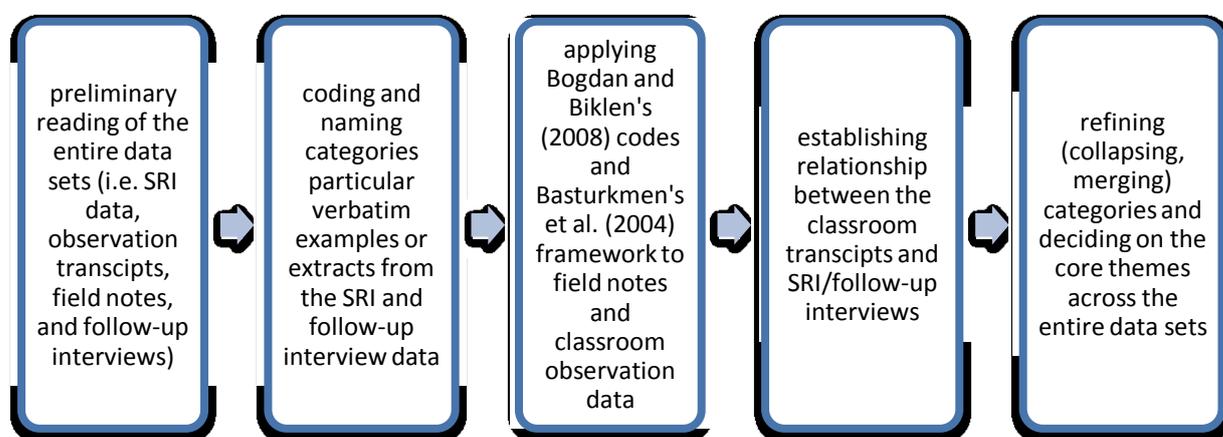
Figure 4: Summary of the data analysis process

3.7.1 Analysis of stimulated-recall and follow-up interviews

To analyse the SRI interview data, inductive coding procedures were carried out (see Thomas, 2006). First, I read all the transcribed data and each data set of each individual teacher closely to familiarise myself with the details of the recordings, followed by cross-reading between the cases of participant-teachers. I then identified segments of data or units of meaning and labelled the categories based on the research objectives, with key aspects underlined (see Table 8). The informants' own expressions were used for some segments of the data (e.g. "for the sake of variety"). Apart from some additions and omissions, this process involved "taking information from data collection and comparing it to emerging categories" (Creswell, 2007:64). Links between different categories were identified. As new categories emerged, the key characteristics of these categories were delimited or expanded where appropriate. For example, a relationship was established between 'self-perception' and 'lexical difficulty'. Another example is that personalising lexis was expanded to include Raci's linking topics to her own as well as her students' life. I placed data segments or verbatim examples as illustrative quotes into categories or dimensions of beliefs to illustrate how I conceptualised them. This process enabled me to become aware of the overlapping categories which fall under more than one category. Where the data extracts convey more or less the same message, a hierarchy of categories (superordinate and subordinate) were identified

through merging and collapsing categories. Overarching categories were the ones which pulled together the other ones where there blurred boundaries between the categories. The contradictory statements within the interviews were grouped together to highlight the inconsistency within the teachers' belief system.

Table 8: Example of initial coding of the SRI data

Codes	Data Extract	Categories
incidental *using a metaphor* *drawing a picture* *simplifying*	**[Episode: *lower-fall*]:** It was <u>incidental</u> he wanted to learn whether lowering or falling stress, why not falling...you know that was <u>on the spot</u> erm…you know I had to think he was thinking why was it lowering and not falling. I thought it was <u>like a scale, like a thermometer</u>. Yes what was I trying to say is that I <u>drew a picture of a thermometer</u> on the board...to show it has something to do with the failure. I don't know that just came to my mind instantly, I thought I have to sort of explain the difference between lower and fall. Everybody knows how measure works. Thermometer for example is a sort of measurement you see. So that's a word we use, so... Crime rates also a kind of level not a thing. Crime rates can follow but that's a number you don't think...actually I don't think about the all the alternatives at once. Extra information erm...exceptions I don't just focus on exceptions but I focus on the easiest the basic. Or we can actually say numbers fall down ohh we can also say erm... numbers lower. Erm...no we cannot say it. I don't know at the moment...at the minute that level thing came to my mind (laughing). I think I just came up with something (drawing a shape of a thermometer) <u>to simplify it, you have to break it down to its</u>.... simplest form, and then you know most likely.	**Instructional technique:** *- visualisation*

The unit of analysis for the present study was often sentence level and a couple of sentences which constitute a meaningful data chunk. These sentence-level statements of teacher beliefs are potentially relevant to the first research question – What cognitions do the EAP teachers at the preparatory schools of private universities in Turkey hold about L2 lexis teaching?, which is to map out their cognitions about lexis instruction. The analysis of the SRI data, colour-coded by a highlighter, yielded a set of belief statements for each participant. The categorisation process led to the creation of the following broad types of beliefs regarding: 1) nature of lexical items, 2) nature of teaching lexis, 3) provision of lexical items, 4) role of teacher and students during teaching lexis, 5) processes of lexis teaching/instructional techniques, 6) self-perceptions, and 7) context (institution;students), as shown in Table 9. Belief statements were subsequently analysed across the cases to address the research question: What are the similarities and differences in the teachers' beliefs about lexis teaching? It was worth exploring the beliefs recurrently mentioned by individual teachers and which

ones were shared across the two participating teachers. This entailed a preliminary analysis for each individual case prior to cross-case analysis where the two teachers' similarities and dissimilarities in their lexis teaching beliefs were compared.

Table 9: Categories of the teachers' cognitions about teaching lexis

Categories	Description
1. Nature of lexis/Selection of lexical items *-attributions* *-lexical difficulty*	• Descriptions that the teacher mentions with reference to particular lexical items and about nature of lexical items chosen for instruction
2. Nature of lexis teaching - *simplification* - *personalisation* - *offering variety/range*	• Comments that the teacher makes about the steps she takes whilst teaching lexis
3. Provision of lexical knowledge - *form* - *meaning* - *use*	• Views on aspects of lexical knowledge- its quantity and quality dimensions e.g. which aspects and how much need to be given.
4. Role of teacher/student during lexis instruction - *teacher-fronted* - *student-centredness*	• Opinions about the allocation of duties or roles to perform that the teacher is supposed to assume to develop vocabulary
5. Processes of lexis teaching - *techniques*	• Beliefs articulated about the manner in which teacher treats a lexical item
6. Self-perceptions	• Perceptions about her personal characteristics, skills, pedagogical difficulties, abilities or lack thereof in teaching lexis

7. Context (previous-current)
 	
- *Student characteristics:*
  -individually
  -collectively
 	
- *Institution:*
 	
-micro-context: the context within the classroom and institution
-macro-context: socio-cultural context
	• Cognitions about larger and specific contexts
	
	-Beliefs about students in general and her current students in particular
	
	-Views about the situation in which the instruction takes place and about the people involved in two-level contexts.

3.7.2 Analysis of observational data

In the studies reviewed (Gatbonton, 1999; Mullock, 2006), 'explaining vocabulary' is subsumed under the major category of 'LM'. One criticism levelled against the category of LM is that it refers to the "combined concern for both communication and the promotion of specific language elements" (Gatbonton, 1999:44). Given the nature of lexis, the challenge of separating these two components (i.e. 'communication and specific language elements') is perhaps unsurprising. This is also reflected in Walsh's (2006:135) categorisation of mode which is defined as "the relationship between language use and pedagogic purpose in specific classroom micro-contexts". The mode called 'skills and system mode' illustrates possible reasons why and the ways in which teachers interact with students in situations where particular language systems (vocabulary, grammar and discourse) or language skills (reading, listening, writing, and speaking) are involved. Recognising skills and system mode has important implications for identifying classroom discourse which constitute episodes related to the lexis unit of analysis in the observational data. It is important to be aware of distinctive interactional features that can help establish links between teachers' purpose and the characteristics of classroom talk identified through the patterns of interaction between the teacher and student(s). Specifically, the skills and system mode is largely characterised by students' brief responses and extended teacher turns while giving feedback on language items.

The FonL episodes were selected on the basis of observational data to illustrate the instances where the teacher treated a lexical item. This is similar to Slimani's (1991) term 'topicalisaton' which refers to the instances in which lexical items are initiated, presented, provided, mentioned, repeated, reminded, elaborated, focused upon and have speaking turns taken around them.

The coding scheme of FonL episodes is as follows: Both a piori (already existing) codes taken from the current literature and emerging codes developed with reference to the teachers' practices captured in the episodes. Bogdan and Biklen's (2007:173-184) coding categories (activity codes, strategy codes and interaction codes) were considered to be useful for analysing the classroom observation data. Activity codes are directed at regularly occurring kinds of behaviour. Strategy codes serve to describe tactics, methods, techniques, people accomplish various things. Interaction codes are used to distinguish between the types of verbal interactions observed.

The above-mentioned framework was applied to the observation of lexis teaching within classroom settings. Firstly, most commonly used (at least on three occasions) practices in the form of major activities, events, instructional techniques and interactional patterns could be identified. Then, interactional features were outlined to identify the teachers' verbal discourse which triggered an episode (see Table 10). Finally, under each episode, these interactional features were listed using bullet points.

1) *Activity codes* refer to two main types of instruction called isolated and integrated instruction (see Borg and Burns, 2008). In the context of lexis teaching, particular isolated (e.g. checking students' recall of previously-taught lexical items) and integrated lexis teaching activities, and the contexts and stages in which these activities took place, were outlined. Specific activities were listed under different phases of skills work to determine the timing and the manner in which the teachers engaged in lexis teaching.

2) *Strategy codes* can be exemplified by a list of lexis teaching strategies (e.g. use of L1 and elaboration). A few sub-categories also emerged directly from the data (e.g. building on the students' contribution or summarising). It is important to recognise that explaining new lexical items in response to students' queries and correcting their lexical errors on the spot would be different in nature from that of consolidating previously-taught items. For example, teachers may treat already encountered lexical items elaborately by focusing on their grammatical patterns whereas they may simply provide quick definitions for the newly-encountered lexical items.

3) *Interaction codes* refer to the patterns of classroom interaction (e.g. student or teacher initiated; addressing an individual or the whole class) and interactional moves of teacher talk, particularly the patterns of the teachers' initiating questions (see Table 10). The reason for keeping track of interaction codes is based on the assumption that teacher beliefs have a bearing on classroom interaction (see Fang 1996; Li and Walsh, 2011). The three categories (lexis-related activities, events and classroom interactions) lent themselves to a broader categorisation; episodes were subject to a more comprehensive analysis by mapping out the features of FonL episodes on Excel spread sheets (e.g. part of speech of a lexical item, aspects of lexical knowledge, and type of skill focus during which the lexical item appeared).

Table 10: The utterances used in the teacher initiations and responses

RACI	HATI
Initiations	
• What is X (word)? • What is this/that/X (word) mean?	
• What is another word for X (word)?	• Do you remember...? • Can you tell me...? • Do you think…?
Response to students' utterances	
• Yeah, or [alternative word] or [repeating students' utterances] • you said [word] do we agree? • [word said by the student], yeah, [praise e.g. well done] • [word] yes, anything else?	• "what is the difference between…?" • "as we saw this word yesterday…" • "I'll come to these words…" • "it is a difficult word, isn't it?".

A categorisation technique similar to that of Basturkmen *et al.* (2004) was used to identify the characteristics of FonL episodes in which lexical items were topicalised (Table 11 and Table 12). Definitions were made to describe features of lexical instruction emerging from the data that were not available in Basturkmen *et al.* which explored the focus-on-form episodes more broadly including grammar, discourse and pronunciation. As Braun and Clarke (2006) suggests, it is good practice to code extracts of data inclusively and to maintain some bits of the relevant surrounding data to avoid losing the context. Efforts were put into contextualising the FonL episodes in greater detail by capturing how the instance emerged, continued and came to a halt. Care needed to be taken to provide adequate contextualisation while tracking the relevant stages within instructional sequences. Additional segments of classroom interaction helped keep intact the wholeness and integrity of the episodes. Furthermore, brief information about the context in which a FonL episode took place (i.e. activity) is provided at the beginning of each episode. One issue with identifying episodes is their starting and ending points. Some expressions and utterances in teacher talk such as 'what's the synonym of this word?', 'it means', and 'a kind of' can help identify the starting points. Some interaction cues that signal the end points were 'OK', 'right', and 'now let's have a look at'. There were some instances where a related but unplanned lexical item came up while the primary focus was still on another item. In such cases, it was important to consider whether lexical items were taught within the context of a given activity. A situation of this kind occurred when introducing a theme around which

a number of lexical items clustered. When teachers introduced a set of lexical items consecutively or sequentially, the end points of the episodes were the moments in which they moved on to a next activity, rather than the moments in which the teachers proceeded to focus on another lexical item. An episode may therefore contain one lexical item, a couple or several at a time. Those instances with more than one lexical item are shown using slash ("/") in between in the episode headings (see Episode 1: *lower/fall* in section 4.1.2.1).

Table 11: Characteristics of focus-on-lexis episodes

Characteristics	Definitions	Categories
Type of lexical item	Individual lexical item - multiword items	Individual word, collocation, idiom, phrasal verb
Part of speech	The word class a lexical item belongs to	noun, verb, adjective, adverb
Skills	Abilities of language recognition and production	Listening, Reading, Speaking, Writing
Initiator(s)	The one who first begins to focus on lexis	Student-initiated – teacher-initiated
Source	the type of classroom materials in which lexical items appear	Coursebook, handout/worksheet
Interaction mode	Classroom members involved in interaction	Teacher-Student (one-to-one) Teacher-Students (as a group) Teacher-Whole class
Type of FonL instruction	Any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form (Ellis, 2001:2)	FonLs FonL: Planned -Incidental Reactive -Preemptive(T/ S)
Aspect of lexical knowledge	The elements which constitute what is involved in learning a word -Providing L1 equivalents of lexical items. -Highlighting the spelling and pronunciation of lexical items. -Treating lexical items with similar meanings (synonyms). -Comparing lexical items with multiple meanings (polysemy). -Explaining or contextualising the meaning and use of lexical items.	-Form (spoken form, written form, word parts) -Meaning (form and meaning, concept and referents, associations) -Use (grammatical functions, collocations, constraints on use)
Activity	Instructional instances during which a lexical item is taught	-Activities employed during isolated (lexis-related) and integrated (skills-related) (sec 4.3)
Instructional techniques/ strategies	The way in which a lexical item is treated by the teacher	-Translation/Use of L1 -Exemplification -Definitional explanation -Using in a sentence -Drawing a picture on the board -Comparing L2 lexical items -Summarising -Responding to students' queries -Treatment of lexical errors.

I recognised the advantages and disadvantages of reflecting on episodes vertically (i.e. deeply/intensively) and horizontally (i.e. broadly/extensively). The former allowed for focusing on a few lexical items in a single segment of lesson while the latter enabled me to examine a large number of lexical items. One advantage of discussing episodes horizontally was that the teacher was able to identify some overlaps with other episodes which opened a discussion about the variations in other episodes of similar nature. Capturing various instances of lexis teaching helped to make explicit a diverse range of personal theories. More elaborate accounts concerning particular episodes was one advantage of treating them vertically. The data analysis focused on instances of lexis teaching both vertically and horizontally, where appropriate.

Table 12: An example of characteristics of an Episode: *lower/fall*

OBSERVATIONAL DATA		
Characteristics	**Categories**	**Episode: *lower/fall***
Type of lexical item	Individual item	**T:** Number three, Nizameddin.
Part of speech	Verb	
Skills	Reading (pre-reading)	**S**: [*reading out the sentence in the coursebook*]. 'Exercise is one of my favourite techniques of lowering stress, it makes me feel great/gri:t/'.
Initiator(s)	Student	
Source of lexical item	Handout	**T:** it makes me feel great. OK, good. Do we agree, technique?
Interaction mode	Teacher-whole	
Type of FonL instruction	-Pre-emptive	**Ss** (in unison): yes.
Aspects of lexical knowledge	Form meaning	**T:** yes, technique. Number 4, Furkan [*nominating a student*].
Activity/event	Reading out the sentence in the coursebook	**S1:** teacher? **lowering** or **falling**? **T:** erm…Lowering stress yeah. Erm..you lower…stress is like a level of feeling. So you always lower a level you don't fall it, a person falls or a thing falls. When you have a level…when you think of …imagine a thermometer of stress here's low and here's high [*drawing a thermometer on the board*]. You want to lower it …it is like a level in your body that's why we use the verb 'lower'.
Instructional techniques	Drawing a picture on the board	

3.7.3   Comparing the observational data and stimulated-recall data

Since the third research question of the present study is concerned with the extent to which the teachers' beliefs are realised in practice, it is necessary to compare observed lessons and retrospective verbal reports. The data analysis began by tracing themes in relation to lexis teaching practices identified on the basis of episodes and teachers' belief statements.The repeated patterns constituted the focus of the analysis which is

conducted through matching them to the belief statements identified at the preceding stage. As Phipps and Borg (2009:383) put it, "[a] more realistic understanding of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices can emerge when the analysis of what teachers do is the basis of eliciting and understanding their beliefs". Data from the interviews and the classroom observations were therefore compared for evidence of convergence or divergence between the teachers' stated beliefs and their actual practices.

Teachers' accounts yielded varying amounts of data for each episode. In other words, a rich and versatile episode lent itself to illustrating various themes such as exemplification, using L1 (e.g. Episodes: *adolescent*) (Appendix 4) and feedback on lexical errors. More instances of FonL episodes do not mean more time is spent on lexis, which can be described as the 'quality vs. quantity dilemma'. Assuming that teachers were more likely to follow a more or less similar pattern of instruction during the presentation stage, for example, I felt that there was little point in analysing numerous predetermined lexical items dealt with during this particular phases of the lessons with a focus on reading. Nevertheless, this depends on variations such as the gaps in students' lexical knowledge and the degree of perceived importance of the lexical items for task completion.

3.8   Trustworthiness

Within the context of qualitative studies, the terms reliability and validity are sometimes replaced by different terminologies. Lincoln and Guba (1985:301) proposed alternative concepts such as credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Credibility and transferability are used to describe internal and external validity, respectively. Dependability is almost equivalent to reliability. Confirmability is used in preference to objectivity. Proposing different notions seems to distinguish positivist and interpretivist inquiry and to emphasise the need to view reliability and validity together and intertwined, rather than separately, in naturalistic studies. The combination of those criteria characterises the rigour, strength or trustworthiness of qualitative studies. The trustworthiness of the present research was enhanced by taking the following measures.

To enhance the credibility of the data, multiple sources of evidence such as observational and interview data were integrated. Data triangulation facilitates capturing participants' intended views and minimising observer bias. Another important point is

that contextualisation can explicate the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. Practices which may not make sense without their context become pertinent if they are described 'thickly' in the light of their functioning within their natural context (Woods, 1996:41). As the classroom situation is interpersonally constructed, the understanding of classroom participants' perspectives might differ from that of an external observer (Gieve and Miller, 2006:23). This insight enabled me to locate and examine instructional situations that confirmed or disconfirmed my expectations. For example, when Raci nominated students to read out glosses in the coursebook, I thought she intended to call on students with good pronunciation skills, but it turned out that she actually aimed to involve those students who were distracted.

For respondent validation purposes, which is another strategy of ensuring credibility, participants can be provided with interview transcripts to comment on or add more points to their earlier comments (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). This was done through follow-up emails so as to allow the participants to decide the extent to which the reported comments reflected their actual views, but no attempt was made to align teachers' views with the researcher's. It was important to seek disconfirming evidence where claims were made about the findings. Some relevant observational episodes from the actual classes and interview quotes illustrating teachers' beliefs will be presented in Chapter 4.

To enhance the confirmability of the interpretations, observations and interviews necessitate meticulous recording and coding; without it data risk being misinterpreted. To check the dependability of the identification of FonL episodes, following the transcription of the audio-recorded data the codes in the observational and interview data were defined and crosschecked by different colleagues with applied linguistics background to ensure consistency and 'intercoder agreement' (Creswell, 2009:191). When disagreement arose while labelling categories, the relationship between the codes was clarified. With regard to intercoder reliability, having coded 10% of the observational data (i.e. FonL episodes) and SRI data and resolved different interpretations of some categories, an agreement rate of 88% was reached.

In the SRI, one of the dilemmas was how to strike a balance between avoiding interrepting in teachers' talk and yet capturing interactive thoughts. Inarticulate thinking instances (incomplete train of thoughts) were emailed to the participants for further recall. These follow-up thoughts (i.e. statements made as an afterthought) were written

in different fonts from the parts initially recalled so that they could be made visually distinct. Checking the transcripts against the recordings of the data for 'accuracy' and checking the themes against each other and back to the raw data (Braun and Clarke, 2006:97) enabled me to do justice to the complexity of the data. Otherwise, some belief statements articulated by the participants might have been seen merely as a set of decontextualised accounts.

3.9   Ethical considerations

The ethical issues considered in the present study relate to 1) informed-consent, 2) confidentiality, 3) disclosure and 4) reactivity. Consent (see Appendix 3) was obtained from the participants whose anonymity was preserved throughout the research (Creswell, 2009). They were informed about the objectives and procedures of the study. The participants' characteristics were kept confidential (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). Sensitivity was shown to comments which the informants might want to remain off the record or unreleased. At the conclusion of the research, the participants were also apprised of the outcomes (BERA, 2004).

Another issue is disclosure which is concerned with the extent to which the research details are to be revealed to the subjects. I provided participants with a general description of the study rather than elaborating on its detail. For example, I told them that the point of interest of the classroom observation was issues related to teaching language. Covert observation in educational research which does not alert the participants to the presence of an observer is considered unethical (Borg, 2006). On the other hand, complete overtness may make participants feel they need to align their lesson to the focus of the research. It was therefore appropriate to present the research objectives in general terms to the participants rather than present them in greater detail before conducting the interviews.

The reactivity on the part of informants was overcome in the interviews to some extent by asking questions in conversational mode and by showing a certain degree of interest in their account of their practices (perhaps through appropriate use of body language) (Borg, 2006:209). The personal element of interviews allowed the informants to share their ideas at length in a relaxed manner whilst talking to the researcher about their instructional beliefs and practices (Denscombe, 2007). Besides, care was exercised to

avoid evaluating or judging teachers' way of teaching (Hobbs and Kubanyiova, 2008). It is unjustifiable to make judgmental appraisals that "may involve the denial of the perceptions of participants in either human or educational terms" (Tudor, 1998:331). A non-judgemental stance should be adopted, yet the extent to which this is actually possible should be questioned during the entire process of a qualitative research project.

3.10 Generalisability

The inclusion of participants with different backgrounds in this study is believed to reveal a wide range of beliefs and classroom behaviours which could potentially add a great deal to the quality of the data, and be considered as a distinct advantage. This is not to say, however, that the study aims to raise the level of generalisability of findings to a wider population. The present study does not aim for generalisations because particularity is a unique characteristic of qualitative research of an exploratory nature. Gaining insight into the phenomenon must take precedence over generalising its patterns to other situations (Allwright and Bailey, 1991). As Allen (2013:145) anticipated, **"**the discussion of the participants' beliefs will allow readers of the study to create new understandings gained vicariously through the experiences of the teachers".

It is worth noting that it is possible to arrive at "'naturalistic generalisations' through personal engagement by vicarious experience" (Stake, 1995:85). Naturalistic generalisation is a process through which readers come to their own conclusion as to whether the details can be applicable to their own teaching situations. This echoes Breen *et al.*'s (2001) study that suggests the possibility of a common principle behind the practices of different teachers working in similar teaching situations. Encountering shared practices and parallels between teaching contexts may make individuals feel as though they have had similar experiences. In other words, no attempt is made to generalise the results of the study, but it is the readers who judge whether the results hold true for their own contexts by looking at the descriptive data.

4 FINDINGS and ANALYSIS

In this chapter, I provide a profile for each of the two individual participants in order to highlight their cognitions and practices of lexis teaching. This has involved constructing a case for each of the participants individually, followed by a cross-case analysis. Otherwise, as Breen *et al.* (2001:495) put it, "the search for patterns of similarity may to some extent obscure the individuality of each teacher's cognitions". I will then report in more detail on the comparison of their lexis teaching beliefs and classroom practices. The exact wordings of the teachers' belief statements and expressions have been used across this section. Internal consistency in the teachers' belief system is also highlighted in the presentation where relevant. Yet, in cases where the teachers' belief and practices diverge and mismatch, they will be discussed in the cross-case analysis section. Contextual dynamics will be included in the analysis of the teachers' practices. Note that instances in relation to lexis teaching are contextualised in Episodes and that the Episodes which are referred to in passing throughout the thesis can be seen in Appendix 4.

4.1   CASE 1: RACI

Raci espoused her beliefs in a wide range of dimensions of lexis teaching including, selection of lexical items, simplification, personalisation, providing lexical knowledge. These dimensions are summarised and illustrated in Figure 5.

4.1.1   Raci's belief system of lexis teaching
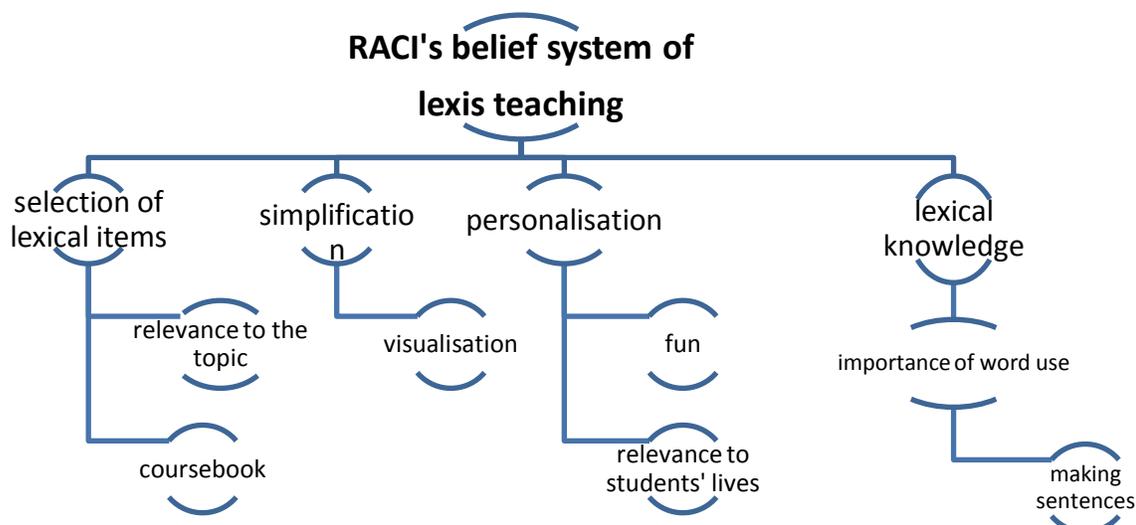
Figure 5: Raci's belief system of lexis teaching

4.1.1.1   Selection of lexical items and attributions about lexis

The belief statement identified in Raci's verbal commentary (e.g. *I don't dwell on words off-topic we stick to the ones related to the topic'*) describes her opinion about selecting lexical items. Raci tended to make subjective or evaluative judgements about certain lexical items when she was engaged in explaining them to the students in the classroom. Some of the attributes she assigned to lexical items include 'good', 'academic', 'difficult', 'interesting', 'useful', 'negative/positive' and 'strong'. For example, Raci made mention of the polysemous nature of academic vocabulary (i.e. two or more related meanings of the same form) as a reason for having difficulty in eliciting academic lexical items:

> *Excerpt 1:* Academic words […] aren't having a direct meaning, so the words aren't so easy. Coming up with definitions of academic words like the word 'respond' so that's one reason why I find it harder to elicit words. I don't think the words themselves are difficult, it is more uhm…how they're used … academic words.

Specifically, Raci admitted that she found it harder to provide definitional explanations of lexical items of academic nature. Perhaps the fact that the lexical item '*respond to*' can be used in connection with topics like questioning and medical treatment could have made Raci thought that this item posed difficulty to language learners. She also recognised that it is the way lexical items, particularly verbs, are used that makes them hard to learn rather than their inherent difficulty as such.

4.1.1.2   Simplification

Raci's statements like the necessity to '*make things as simple possible*' and '*break it [word] down to its simplest form*' can be seen as her mottos of simplification. When talking about the importance of simplification in teaching lexis, Raci mentioned her thinking style and her somewhat unique experience in learning Scottish Gaelic:

> *Excerpt 2:* My brain tends to think in the simplest way I don't … I don't know...I haven't thought about it … because I learnt a language myself, it's interesting because some people especially native speakers can never bring their language down to its basic form...I know and I can understand there are people who cannot think simply...

Raci's reference to other NS who cannot always simplify their language is important in the sense that her own foreign language learning experience has a role to play in her belief in the need for simplification when teaching lexis. Apart from her individual cognitive style, Raci also made mention of pedagogical rationales behind simplification. She believes that simplification through breaking the explanations of lexical items down to their simplest forms makes her lexis-related verbal input much more accessible to learners. The following account reveals not only her understanding of the learning burden or cognitive load as a result of presenting detailed information about a lexical item, but also her concerns as to whether her students are prepared to deal with the amount of lexical input provided:

> *Excerpt 3:* You have to make things as simple as possible and build from that when the students are ready to build. Suppose the teacher is building continuously, students may get completely lost I think.

This does not necessarily imply that Raci holds that it can be counterproductive to present additional information about several aspects of lexical items at different times. Rather, it suggests that providing learners with those aspects together at once could be unmanageable

for students. Raci indicated the importance of the comprehensible input that is appropriate to the students' current level in case they 'get completely lost'. She often used the expressions such as 'getting lost' and 'losing students' to refer to students' distraction and disengagement/lack of attention due to lengthy verbal explanations of lexical items. It is interesting to note that her understanding of simplification was also concerned with the amount of input or lexical explanations provided to the students during formal instruction. That is, she felt that wordy explanations could potentially mislead students. It is interesting to note that although her students were receptive (see the metaphor of "sponge" in *Excerpt 27*), Raci did not think she should provide too much information about lexical items.

4.1.1.3   Personalisation

Raci's statements '*It's always fun to try and connect the words to the students own lives and experiences*' and '*Make the topic personal to them which helps them to use language they know and to learn language in a more personal wa*y' reflect her belief in the value of personalisation. She suggested the need to personalise the topic to engage her students.

> *Excerpt 4:* I suppose I try to relate it [i.e. the word *adolescent*] to 'how we use the word in English?' it being adolescent it being a difficult times. I suppose I was trying to place it into their memory banks in certain ways I think. When I was telling the story about my sister, I was trying to show them that's not just a random English word that use an academic word in language something, but something that relates to each of us.

Raci expressed a preference for concocting an anecdote when she did not have a personal one at hand. Her tendency to personalise lexical items can be conceptualised as 'lexisperience' (combination of the words *lexis* + *experience*), a term I coined to refer to an individual teacher's idiosyncratic experience and impressions of lexical items that the person has gained throughout her entire lexis learning and teaching process. I will expand on this particular notion as an emergent phenomenon of teaching in the Discussion chapter.

4.1.1.4   Providing lexical knowledge

Raci's view on providing her students with information about lexical items is characterised by the quantity of input to be given to students. She articulated her belief as follows:

> *Excerpt 5:* When it comes to vocabulary, there is too much information […] It is not possible to introduce everything about a particular word. It will be too much...it will be too

much information ... at one go. [...] Actually I don't think about the all the alternatives at once. I don't just focus on exceptions but I focus on the easies.

In terms of her cognitions about the provision of information about lexical items, she expressed her unwillingness to provide detailed information about lexical items. Raci justified her position by referring to off-topic lexical items (see section 4.1.1.1), concerns about learning load (see section 4.1.1.2), perceived prominence of skills work, and her other additional duties (e.g. podcast moderator, marking essays). Perhaps due partly to these factors, which are to be elaborated on in section 4.1.4, Raci held the idea that she could have separate vocabulary lessons. This view can be interpreted in two different ways. One is that she thinks vocabulary obstructs skills work and thus it is not worth giving it elaborate treatment and valuable classroom time. Raci stated that a preference for FonL depended on the availability of time (e.g. "I was also worried about the time in terms of the week, how much time we have"). Secondly, she held that vocabulary needed to be given due attention as an essential skill in its own right as it was too important to be limited to the classroom. The former's impetus is apparently stronger than of the latter.

4.1.2 Practices in lexis teaching

4.1.2.1 Making use of visualisations

Episode 1 illustrates the manner in which she enacted her belief about simplification through use of visualisation. When a student interrupted her and asked whether *lower* or *fall* could occur with the word *stress*, Raci instantaneously compared stress to a level and a thermometer to clarify the difference between the two lexical items.

Episode 1: *lower/fall*

	Context: Agree-disagree questionnaire about the topic of stress.	
T:	Yes… Number 4, Furkan? [*nominating a student*].	1
S:	teacher, **lowering or falling**?	2
T:	Erm…Lowering stress yeah. Erm… you lower…stress is like a level of feeling. So you	3
	always lower a level you don't fall it, a person falls or a thing falls. When you have a	4
	level…when you think of …imagine a thermometer of stress [drawing a thermometer on	5
	the board] here's low and here's high. You want to lower it …it is like a level in your body	6
	that's why we use the verb lower.	7

Regarding this instance, where a student raised a query about the lexical items followed by her semantic comparison, Raci said:

> *Excerpt 6:* It was not planned… he wanted to learn whether lowering or falling stress, why not falling…you know that was on the spot erm…you know I had to think he was thinking why was it lowering and not falling. I thought it was like a scale, like a thermometer. Yes what was I trying to say is that I drew a picture of a thermometer on the board…to show it has something to do with the failure. I don't know that just came to my mind instantly, I thought I have to sort of explain the difference between lower and fall. Everybody knows how measure works. Thermometer for example is a sort of measurement you see.

Particularly her drawing a thermometer as a measurement tool that acted here as a metaphor to talk about stress provides evidence for her inclination to give an example which can be readily understood by most members of the class (line 5). This resonates with her belief about the need for reaching out to as many students as possible in the classroom in general.

4.1.2.2   Definitions of keywords in the coursebook

Raci tended to provide brief explanations by reading out loud the dictionary definitions of the lexical items glossed in the coursebook or having students read them. Episode 2 in which she implemented this practice was about the lexical item *emotional*.

Episode 2: *emotional*

	Context: Reading out the words glossed in the book	
T:	let's look at the keywords together. Busra, you do the first one	1
S:	(*reading out the gloss*) emotional (adj): ...feelings	2
T:	so, if someone is an emotional person, what's that mean? If Ali says to you I'm **emotional**, what does he mean?	3 4
S:	something	5
T:	I feel something but we all feel something. What would make me more emotional?	6
S:	emotions after stress make us emotional...	7
T:	yes, after stress you become more emotional.	8
S:	show your feelings.	9
T:	emotional person shows more feelings ... than someone who's not emotional. Women are seen to be more emotional than men. I don't want to cause any divide in the classroom but it's true we seem to be more emotional than men.	10

Raci justified her provision of definitional explanations by referring to the course book:

> *Excerpt 7:* The words are there the definitions are there. [...] We've got loads of words they have got to learn from the book. I haven't selected any other words apart from the ones

written in the box in the book. [...] repeating something helps students to remember it so I was trying to repeat the dictionary definition so that they would remember it.

Her preference for providing short definitions given in the coursebook relates to her belief in the usefulness of the practice of repeating definitions for remembering. This, however, does not necessarily mean that she does not exemplify these definitions at all. In line 10, for example, she was observed to have used an amalgamation of both definition and examples.

4.1.2.3   Giving synonyms or 'pigeon English explanations'

As a number of Episodes illustrate (e.g. *distress; hassle; seek; lead to; spoken; appointment*), Raci had an ambivalent attitude towards providing students with synonyms so as to explain lexical items. Namely, she was not in favour of providing synonyms to students but at the same time she thought that focusing on synonyms in the classroom was inevitable when teaching vocabulary. This is actually what happened in Episode 3: *distress*.

Episode 3: *distressed*

	Context: Fill in the information chart about yourself.	
T:	what was distressed, again? Distress?	1
Ss:	bad stress	2
T:	yes, bad stress, so what causes you more worry or stress in your life? This is for the first box. What causes eustress in your life? What's eustress?	3 / 4
Ss:	good stress	5
T:	so, good things in your life. Now you can start filling out your chart.	6

Raci described focusing on synonyms as 'pigeon English', which is something she considered undesirable. In the above episode, it was observed that she could not help herself repeating 'good stress' (line 6) as a 'pigeon' explanation of the term *eustress*. *The Oxford Dictionary* defines *eustress* as 'moderate or normal psychological stress interpreted as being beneficial for the experience'. Raci referred to instances of classroom interaction around synonyms in her following accounts.

> *Excerpt 8:* At first, they wouldn't have understood because you build up from speaking good stress, bad stress, that's why, to me, it was like pigeon English you know...It's short...like do, stay, OK. But for example, if someone said I'm distressed you wouldn't say 'I'm badly stressed'. I'm distressed because I got all these things. I could elaborate more, maybe I got a better. I'm giving a pigeon English explanation first and then I elaborate

when we meet the word again. Suffer: studies go down, studies suffer, again this is pigeon English, this is not good.

Excerpt 9: Sometimes, you tell a story, for every single word you cannot possibly give background information about them, every single word will become like a chore, like a difficult thing, it's hard I think. If 'seek' means 'to look for' or 'search', done and explained. Do I need to get further? I don't think so. If I have stories that might be interesting and related to the words, I might tell it. If there's a word like hide and seek, I could have told a story about my childhood, we'd like to play hide and seek lalala, but I just think there's no need. 'Seek' means to look for...I was trying to get it within a sentence, they understood and used it.

Raci found it unnecessary to provide detailed information to explain every lexical item, though she thought it was appropriate to do so with certain lexical items. She described the practice of telling anecdotes as an unpleasant task, which she referred to as 'chore'. It could be said that the above excerpts manifest a sense of internal tension in Raci's belief system within which a competing belief as to whether or not it would be adequate to provide synonyms emerges.

4.1.2.4   Word formation

One reason Raci articulated for using word formation was that she recognised the necessity to prepare the students for the vocabulary-related questions (e.g. gap-filling) which were more likely to appear in examinations. However, she expressed doubts as to whether students got confused due to her explanations during her word formation practices.

Excerpt 10: That's [word formation] something new in my teaching like types of words. Like noun adverb… that's something definitely new, I haven't taught it a lot in the private school where I was working. They can use it. I've got to get more used to using this language [metalanguage] in the classroom although it doesn't always sit well with me because as I said this came to my teaching because….of the fact that they're studying for exams, like in a vocabulary section they can have you know…erm…what's the noun of stressful?, and they have to know it so teaching is a part of an exam preparation basically.

Having recourse to her previous experience, Raci said that it was the students' queries that urged her to draw their attention to the parts of speech such as nouns and adjectives. On the other hand, Raci was unsure about whether focusing intensively on parts of speech at a time would confuse students and whether she actually took learners' views into account:

Excerpt 11: … they think that's completely wrapped up when something is a noun or adjective. I think it needs to be mentioned but I don't know it needs to be looked at but not in too much detail. I don't know whether this would confuse the students or not I don't know actually. I have never thought about it from their own point of view, they could do, though. Yes, actually probably could. I'm thinking about my own learning experience of learning Turkish. Two forms of the same word could possibly confuse me.

To Raci, it is the amount of lexis-related explanation that may cause confusion for the students rather than the similarity of lexical items. Raci's interpretation of students' opinion ("that's completely wrapped up when something is a noun or adjective") indicates that her students want to see a compact summary of what is presented to them. See an example of this in Episode 4: *stressful/stressed* below.

The findings presented in this section need to be read in the light of Raci's professional background. Dealing with different types and forms of lexical items had become a part of her EAP teaching since she started working at the preparatory school. Raci reported that she had not been much engaged in word formation in her previous teaching experience (see her tensions in section 4.1.3 and contextual factors in section 4.1.4).

Episode 4: *stressful/stressed*

	Context: Watching a video clip where a man got stressed out.	
T:	He was photocopying the computer, do you see that bit, so how do you think he was feeling? How was he feeling?	1 2
S:	Angry	3
T:	angry we have, anything else?	4
S:	he was feeling stressful...	5
T:	he was feeling ...	6
S:	stressful	7
T:	was he feeling stressful?	8
Ss:	Yes	9
T:	you think he's stressful. So, people don't really feel stressful, people feel stressed OK, what's stressful then?	10 11
S:	some situational	12
T:	a situation, good.	13
S:	stressful traffic.	14
T:	erm...what did you say sorry, Aysu? I missed.	15
S:	stressful traffic	16
T:	stressful traffic good. OK. So, we have stressful, a situation is stressful. Traffic is stressful. But a person inside you feel stressed. Does the prep school make you feel stressed?	17 18
S:	(laughter) a little bit.	19

T:	OK, good.	20
S:	the exams make us stressed.	21
T:	now we have a different word, stressed? What's that?	22
S:	verb.	23
T:	to stress, I stress about it, hmmm it can be a verb, erm... can we use it as a verb (aside), I stress about it, yeah we can use it but it's also a noun. Stress...it's definitely a noun, stress.	24 25
S:	the name of the situation	26
T:	yes, the stress I feel. It's a noun, OK, that's what you're talking about. OK, stress is our topic this week.	27 28

4.1.2.5 Explaining lexical items in the task instructions

One of the common practices observed in Raci's classroom was that she explained the meaning of lexical items used in the task instructions. Episode 5: *excerpt* is where Raci provided the meaning of the lexical item, though the students did not request her to do so.

Episode 5: *excerpt*

	Context: Giving the task instructions for the listening activity**.**	
T:	OK we gonna listen again some short excerpts … if you look at the excerpt one on page erm…52 and choose the correct answer in the bold is it common or uncommon. Excerpt 2 **excerpt** means erm… a piece from the lecture, so it's a short piece, if you have an excerpt from a reading it could be two or sentences.	1 2 3 4
S:	like extract?	5
T:	like extract, yeah, you extract a small amount OK, let's hear (*lecture starts*).	6

In the above Episode, Raci explained in passing what the lexical item *excerpt* prior to a listening activity which involves listening to a lecture. In response to a student's question ('like extract?' in line 5), she confirmed that it is synonymous with the lexical item *extract* and moved on to the activity without providing further explanations. This practice appears to be linked to the provision of synonyms which was illustrated previously in section 4.1.2.3.

4.1.2.6 Treatment of lexical errors

During the SRIs, within the context of the treatment of lexical items, Raci referred to different dimensions of error correction. These dimensions relate to characteristics of errors (e.g. common) and gravity of errors (e.g. major, minor), timing for feedback (immediate, delayed).

Raci did not have a particular preference for recasts (i.e. the corrector incorporates the content words of the immediately preceding incorrect utterance and changes and corrects

the utterance in some way e.g. phonological, lexical). Instead, she expressed a preference for using direct feedback and non-verbal feedback (i.e. mimes and gestures) to draw students' attention to lexical errors (Episodes: *anxiety; adolescence; mysterious; financial; stressful/stressed; ironic*). Particularly she felt herself obliged to correct what she perceived to be common and major errors. In Episode 4 (line 7), one of the students came up with the word '*stressful*' instead of '*stressed*' while she was expressing her opinions about stress management techniques. Raci considered this instance a 'perfect opportunity to tell them what the mistake was'. Although both *stressful* and *ironical* are lexical errors caused by taking no notice of the restriction on the use of the lexical items, they differ in terms of the particular restriction on their use. The lexical item *stressed* is used to describe animate things rather than the item *stressful* that is used to describe inanimate things. In the case of *ironic/ironical**, however, she appeared to utilise her intuition rather than to come up with a justification based on limitation on use. Relying on her intuition, Raci simply said: 'I wanted to correct the error as soon as I heard *ironical* as it didn't sound right'.

Episode 6: *ironic*

	Context: The teacher was telling the students to close their books and asked them some questions about Nasreddin Hodja.	
S:	story-teller	1
T:	ok, does he also write stories?	2
S:	no...generally he is funny, but I think he was ... a leader...	3
T:	(a student raised her hand to add something)... yes Yasemin...	4
StD:	(named Yasemin): He's someone who's really **ironical**	5
T:	**Ironic**	6
S:	ironic stories…	7
T:	ironic...ironic, I will explain 'ironic' in a minute (writing the word on the board)	8
StD:	He is quick-witted	9
T:	He's quick-witted; he was a quick-witted, GOOD! I need another volunteer, Ahmed...tell us a story, a Nasreddin Hodja story, do you remember any?	10 11
S:	Yes, I'll need to check something in my dictionary	12
T:	You gonna look at OK, while Nizameddin looks at his dictionary, Yasemin told us the word 'ironic'... What's **ironic** mean?	13 14
S:	(no answer)	15
T:	he would tell a story that seems serious, serious and funny at the same time. (*Aside*: Ironic is hard to explain). Yeah, when you say something serious but also funny	16 17 18
StD:	(Yasemin): like **arrogant**?	19
T:	you think arrogant is similar to ironic.	20
S:	maybe yes, it could be ... sometimes...	21
T:	OK...let's hear the story...	22

Classroom observational data in Episode 6 revealed that although Raci made it clear to the students why *stressful* needed to be differentiated from the lexical item *stress*, she provided the lexical item *ironic* as an alternative and equally a more frequent form than 'ironical'. Yet she did not provide further explanations about the restrictions underlying the use of the lexical items. This, however, should not be taken to mean that Raci did not clarify any limitations related to the use of lexical items (see Episode 1: *lower-fall* in section 4.1.2.1). Her error correction instances were mostly concerned with pronunciation. As Episodes: *anxiety; adolescence; mysterious; financial* illustrate (see Appendix 4 for the episodes referred to in passing throughout the thesis), her treatment of pronunciation errors consistently followed the following particular pattern a) providing and repeating the correct pronunciation of the lexical item, b) checking students' understanding and c) moving on to another aspect of vocabulary knowledge.

On the other hand, there was scant evidence of her provision of indirect feedback to students (as it was not reflected in her classes observed), though she utilised elicitation as a corrective feedback strategy during vocabulary consolidation activities. Her gestures, in this case her quizzical look, served to accompany her verbal elicitations. Raci also held the view that there was nothing wrong with students' correcting their friends' mispronunciation while they were speaking during oral presentation. She justified her position as follows:

> *Excerpt 12:* [M]ost of the students in that class are good but I would correct if they make some major errors if they are struggling as they read. There is only one student who is very weak. I don't tend to ask him to read out, but I brought his case up to the management.

To conclude this particular sub-section, some comments on what influences the teachers' error correction practices. It is interesting to note that Raci's cognitions about the practice of error correction are mostly associated with students' characteristics (see section 4.1.4). This suggests that Raci holds the view that one size does not fit all, at least as far as treatment of lexical errors is concerned. She expressed her belief in the importance of taking into consideration different learner types in order to better address students' errors. She referred to herself as a language learner who was more tolerant of errors compared to her colleagues. However, Raci did not refer to any particular individual student during any of the SRI sessions following classroom observations. The near absence of contextual details about students' characteristics and learning styles in her account demonstrate her

espoused theory about learner types within the context of error treatment. Another level of explanation could be that her attitude towards correction also depends on individual students who made the error. That is, she tended to tolerate good students' errors considering that they would not make the same error at other times.

4.1.3 Relationship between beliefs and practices (Tensions)

In this section, I will highlight some salient tensions identified in Raci's belief system of lexis teaching (internal consistency: conflicting or competing beliefs within this system) as well as the tensions in her espoused beliefs and classroom practices. Note that her congruent beliefs and practices will be presented in conjunction with that of Hati's in the cross-case analysis (section 4.3).

One of Raci's tensions exists between time constraints and focusing on skills development and focusing on lexis. She prioritised other more general concerns such as improving students' listening and discussion skills instead of overemphasising lexical items and devoting a substantial amount of time to teaching them.

> *Excerpt 13:* Words are good but the aim of the lessons is not just about teaching words but develop their skills […] In terms of this class, you have other aims like presentation, thinking about the main ideas, details, and conclusion [i.e. writing composition].

Raci's approach to lexis teaching was largely contingent on the perceived availability of time She held the belief that as an EAP teacher in the preparatory school she should work harder to motivate EAP students, which was something she did not have to do in her previous private language school where she had relatively more independent students. That seems to explain why Raci felt that she could not have enough time to deal with lexical items as much as she wanted, as was reflected in the extract below:

> *Excerpt 14:* It's necessary but you don't need to spend too much time on it [teaching words]. [...] I wouldn't allocate the whole lesson on this case, usually towards the end of the week. We might do if we have time for example, this Friday we have an exam they have a lab lesson so we might do but not regularly no. [...] There are always lots of words to teach at the beginning of classes but sometimes if you spend too much time on these words you lose the students' attention.

Raci expressed a preference for spending less time on extra materials which were not part of the course book. She thought that students were expected to learn a lot of lexical items

from the course book and therefore it would be adequate for them to focus mainly on the course book. This is a practice which reinforces her position towards lexical knowledge. Raci held the opinion that it would be adequate to look at glosses (i.e. a brief notation of the meaning of a word) available in reading passages in the course book. She nevertheless tended to introduce several words at a time (Episodes: *dub/epidemic*). The efforts she put into skills development also reflect her beliefs in the importance of developing skills.

In Raci's own words, "teaching them" vs. "teaching at them" seems to be another tension. The CELTA course seemed to exert a great deal of influence on how Raci perceived the profession of language teaching as a whole, particularly on what learners and teachers were expected to do at different phases of a lesson. To describe her beliefs about the roles of learners and teachers, she drew on the metaphor of 'triangle', which she recalled from her CELTA training:

> *Excerpt 15:* the idea that a classroom like a uhm…pyramid ohh not a pyramid but the class is like a triangle, there's a lot teacher do at the top but by the end of it, it should be all students I like to do that, personally I am very much into this idea however again in the academic classroom it's harder to achieve because the students want more interaction with teacher in these situations.

This does not necessarily mean that Raci was always comfortable with implementing the ideas she got from the CELTA as she said:

> *Excerpt 16:* I find myself doing a lot more talking than I used to do in my previous job. I'm more like a classroom teacher, in my previous job like facilitator and helper, encouraging them to learn. But here I feel I'm a teacher, I'm teaching at them. This is against my belief in a way sometimes yeah in different ways. I try to pull my beliefs back in as much as I can but I feel constrained by things like you know I have to achieve certain things like they have to pass the exam and I'm constrained by their ideas also I mean students' ideas because they are in a situation where their aims and motivations are different from the students' in the private school. The students in the school they just wanna talk, if you talk to them in groups just they try to impress you so there's a real motivation there whereas here, we have more responsibility for motivating the students because the students are younger and they are unsure of where they are going and what they learn English for is different. Like their reasons for learning English is different to the ones in private school I worked for.

Lengthy and extended explanations of lexical items or what Raci called "teach at them" was against her principle. Although Raci did not favour providing synonyms which was what she called 'pigeon English' explanation, she did give a couple of synonyms to

students. Elsewhere, she said that she would provide further explanations to the short explanations made previously. It is interesting to note that Raci disfavoured it but at the same time she thought that focusing on synonyms in the classroom was inevitable. She recognised the possibility that there might be pitfalls with using synonyms which involves explaining lexical items quickly and move on to a subsequent item or activity. Raci held the opinion that synonyms could potentially add further confusion which was at odds with her core belief in simplification. Although she emphasised the importance of peer-teaching, she could not give effect to this particular belief as peer-teaching rarely took place in her actual practices. Raci thought that 'Too much info about word forms – like adjective, noun would be confusing for students'. Nevertheless, it was something she felt obliged to do because of students' concerns about their exams in which word forms have a specific section.

The issue of addressing L1 dependence is yet another tension that Raci had encountered. She expressed her frustration at students' heavy reliance on L1 use in the classroom. What she found particularly irritating and disappointing was the students' tendency to spread the Turkish equivalents of L2 words to their friends and their copying these in their notebooks. Specifically, such a tendency was something which she assumed had been fuelled by the prep school. Raci explained the contributory factor behind this as follows:

> *Excerpt 17:* In the academic teaching, there's a lot of translation going on here, even the students I suppose depends on how students are trained and what the students want to achieve...The students here I suppose… by training I mean their previous experience of language learning and how they use that in their current situation at prep school. The students here are trained to translate. They're not being trained to try to think in English. That's a different skill altogether. I dislike the idea of translating every single word.

It seems that her devaluation of the use of L1 translation was sometimes overridden by some concerns about students' accustomed ways of learning she adopted during their previous and recent classroom-based language learning experience. This also seems to be at odds with Raci's overarching belief about the nature of language in general:

> *Excerpt 18:* No two languages have the same way of expressing the same thing we have different ways of expressing the same thing. So a language has to be learnt as a complete thing on its own. When I learn Turkish, I translate from Turkish to English but when I get to a level I would stop doing that. They should be stopping they should no longer translate and their brain start, they start using kind of English words to explain what they mean.

Despite her being unsatisfied with students' overreliance on translation and their spreading L1 translation around the class, Raci herself explicitly once asked students what a lexical item (*realise*) meant in Turkish, albeit indirectly ("I don't know if there's a Turkish translation of *realise*"). L1 translation floating around the class was something which Raci admitted she could not find a good way to address. Raci thought that it was hard to make the subtleties of the lexical item accessible to the learners (i.e. conveying the idea that the lexical item *realise* is associated with sudden thought), but she attempted to compare L1 and L2 items. When I prompted Raci to tell why she dealt with the lexical item *realise* the way she did, she provided the following explanation:

> *Excerpt 19:* I think realise is a difficult word to understand for Turkish students because I don't think there is a similar word in Turkish. If the students use a dictionary they will get the word "anlamak" which means to understand so students often think realise means to think or understand. This idea that the thought is sudden or is something you didn't know before is complicated to explain. I only know this about realise because students had problems understand this word before and it is often used incorrectly in essays. I wanted to relate it to Turkish but unfortunately I didn't know the Turkish translation.

Abstracting from this particular episode, Raci expressed her general views which suggest that the lexical item *realise* cannot be expressed by a single Turkish word, echoing the idea of uniqueness of each language as she expressed above. It also appeared that her knowledge about students, more specifically her observation that students had encountered problems in their writing tasks influence her instructional decisions about using L1. Raci's asking the students whether they knew the Turkish equivalent of the lexical item *realise* can be attributed to Raci's perceptions about students who were accustomed to the teaching style of their previous instructors characterized by a primary focus on translation. Her preference for an "English-only policy" stated in pre-observation interviews runs contrary to the practice of asking the students what the Turkish translations of some L2 lexical items might be and reflects her ambivalent or hesitant attitude towards using L1 during lexical instruction.

The above-mentioned tensions can largely be explained by the teacher's instructional concerns and perceptions about students. Raci expressed her concerns about delving too much into the work that involves metalanguage. Her thinking behind her focus on word forms seemed to be mostly influenced by students' expectations. Raci's viewing what is to

be taught from the learners' viewpoint is part of her perceptions about their capacity and ability to handle cognitive load involved in learning lexis. Although she assumed dealing with word forms when explaining word meanings results in confusion on the students' part, Raci prioritised her perception of students' expectations over her own conception of the learning load.

4.1.4 Contextual Factors

In this sub-section, I will focus on Raci's beliefs about the institutions where she has worked as well as her current and previous students and language learners in general. Her perceptions of her students' positive and negative characteristics and their understanding seemed to mediate Raci's lexis-related classroom actions. I will provide further details below.

With regard to institutional constraints, Raci repeatedly made comparisons between the two institutions, both previous and current, with reference to students' characteristics. She perceived herself as less successful in her current teaching situation while she felt more confident in her performance in other contexts. In fact, Raci seemed to see the latter institution as a kind of constraint, for she felt that as an EAP teacher she should work harder to motivate students. This was something she did not have to do in her previous school where she had relatively independent students who learned out of interest rather than for examination purposes.

Raci perceived her current institution as constraining in the sense that she could not always act in accordance with her beliefs about language teaching in general and lexis teaching in specific. For example, she could not always use elicitation to teach lexical items in the way she wanted. She ascribed her minimal use of elicitation to the nature of course book and to the nature of the EAP setting in which things needed to move faster compared to the language school context where she had taught before. Concerning the instructional context, she referred to the time constraints which made her feel the need to move quickly through classroom activities:

> *Excerpt 20:* I would admit that I probably should spend more time but I spend less. It is time constraint and keeping the attention of the students. I feel in the prep school classrooms that I have to move faster through things because you lose different students. I

don't mean faster through the material, I more mean through different activities quicker. So, I would jump to…if I see a student putting their heads on the table, I know that I have to change the activity. So, spending a long time on vocabulary in prep school is harder.

When I contacted her to ask what she meant by 'losing students', Raci added:

Excerpt 21: Here I mean that I have to keep the class upbeat so I might have to change from one activity to the next more quickly than I used to when I taught in the private language school. When the class size is smaller I could spend more time on one activity, but in a big class it's harder to keep all the students engaged all the time so a teacher has to change from one activity to the next frequently in order to keep the students interested. When I said that I don't move faster through the materials I meant that I work through the grammar, vocab, reading etc. in the same way as I did in the private language school. I don't rush the book work here, but I mix up the activities more and I devise and plan more activities than I did in the past. Again this is just to keep the students engaged.

Due to the lack of time, she could not make use of mimes and gestures as much as she wanted to. Raci felt obliged to minimise the amount of time she spent on lexical items. Raci's unwillingness to elicit can also be explained by the difficulty she experienced in sustaining students' attention for a long period of time and in following the process of her eliciting target words from students, Raci ascribed this to large class size:

Excerpt 22: You have 21 students as opposed to 6 or 10. When you have 10 you can really do the acting roles of a teacher and you know you can be in front of the classroom and act out something and then trying to think of it. They come to classroom and they want to switch to English you can see that in smaller classrooms. They're large classrooms and keeping the attention of 21 students is a lot more difficult than keeping the attention of 10 students. So, when you are eliciting from 21 students you have to remember that you've probably lost 6 of them in the first thirty seconds so I have to move faster in prep school classrooms therefore I spend less time on vocabulary.

Raci's account implies her personal theory about the necessity to elicit from the majority of students in her classroom rather than from a couple of students, implying her intention to reach out to as many students as possible. This suggests that her attitude is characterised by her willingness to elicit from as many students as possible and is shaped by different context variables such as the amount of time to be spent on each student.

To summarise, contextual variables such as prior experience in language school and current teaching experience can explain the tensions that Raci felt with regard to lexical instruction. It should be borne in mind that other teachers had taught the same book several years

consecutively and they were familiar with the book but Raci admitted that she was not familiar with the teaching materials used in the preparatory school. Raci noted: "grammar was separate, listening was separate…this was what when I joined the school last year".

Another situational factor is concerned with the style and design of the coursebook used. This particular coursebook highlighted the keywords and their definitions in framed colourful glosses (see Appendix 5). The fact that the course book gave attention to a large number of keywords prior to listening or reading activities might have led Raci to think that the glosses in the course book would suffice (see Brown, 2011 for the coverage of aspects of lexical knowledge in course books; see Cabaroglu and Yurdaisik, 2008 for the influence of coursebook on the Turkish teachers' practices). Her comments reflect the restrictive nature of covering the course book:

> *Excerpt 23:* We've got loads of words they have got to learn from the book. There are 5 words I'm not going to elicit because I'd lose the class, that would take about 5 minutes I would lose them … the class. We're most probably going to read from the book, which is I don't know.

> *Excerpt 24:* I would have the flexibility to let the class take different directions, whereas …we have to finish this [*pointing to the course book*] in a certain time…four hours just to do these two pages. …we have to keep going. So you focus less … when there are new words you explain it and then you move on to the next part to get the focus back. […] Unless it's a key word in it [text], these words are the extra they're good but I spend more time with the words on the book I think, I think I need to…because these are gonna come up in the exam, but these words in the questionnaire about stress management techniques is not going to come up in the exam.

Raci expressed a preference for having students read the glosses in the course book instead of allocating too much time to elicit a large number of lexical items at once. As a reaction to the above mentioned factors which explain perceived obstacles to elicitation, she came up with a compromise, which suggests that it would be more manageable to elicit a limited rather than large number of lexical items. This relates to two categories: students' characteristics in general and characteristics of particular individual students.

Regarding the first category, that is students' characteristics, Raci talked favourably about her current students' characteristics:

Excerpt 25: You'll see you're coming to a very strong class these kids are good and they are also enthusiastic and there's also mixed…ermm...group, I take this to my advantage that's great. Most of the students in that class are good. […]There is only one student who is very weak and I don't tend to ask him to read out, but I brought his case up to the management.

Raci seemed quite happy with her students' strength and enthusiasm which can be considered as good assets to classroom instruction. On the whole, except one weak student, she described her students with relatively positive attributes such as "good", "enthusiastic", "curious" and "competitive", the latter of which Raci used to describe students both individually and collectively.

Excerpt 26: I did this as a whole class because they were all curious. Did I do that to the whole class as well, I think I did [*thinking back about* Episode: *hassle*]. These were individual and brought them to the whole class then some students were struggling with this while some had thought it was OK.

Raci perceived students' curiosity as an indicator of their assuming responsibility for their own learning. Their curiosity seems to have had an effect on whether to explain lexical items to the particular student who first initiated only or to the entire class.

Excerpt 27: I suppose again this depends on the students in terms of like this class I thought they could handle that I suppose they could handle and they want to learn different forms. Especially this class is like sponges, as I have had a class this previous week I didn't give them too much about form because the ideas about nouns and adjectives were confusing them. But with these students I do feel they're like sponge (*laughing*), they're very good.

Raci's current students' positive characteristics can be considered as determining her beliefs about how much lexical input need to be provided in the classroom. In order to emphasise her students' ability to cope with the heavy load involved in learning different formal aspects of lexis (i.e. large amount of information about lexical items), the metaphor that Raci used was 'sponge', implying her preference for treatment of lexical items shaped by the students' characteristics. It suggests that they can absorb information. Perhaps that is why she felt herself able to provide even metalinguistic comments, particularly when dealing with word formation. In the case of another group of learners within the same institution, however, she thought it would be unhelpful to provide the same type and amount of input.

Excerpt 28: I do it often in prep school than I used to do in my previous teaching. I try to make them aware of the nouns and adjectives. Maybe that comes from students asking if that's noun or adjective. Also when I write a word on the board I don't like to write them without what form it is...but I don't like to emphasise too much.

Another characteristic of Raci's current students is that they compete in a friendly manner. She perceived competition of such a nature as something positive:

Excerpt 29: I have two classes here, class A and class B. They've had a good strong bond since the beginning. They're competitive but friendly. They're my favourite class. In the other class, I'm struggling in terms of class bonding you know because there's a little bit of competitiveness. So, there's whole of a dynamic in the classroom. If they correct each other there's erm ... the competitiveness could be less friendly or...little bit harsh, so I have to be careful with them.

These comments suggest Raci's view of classroom dynamics, in this case bonding amongst learners, justified the inclusion of an element of competition into instruction. When asked about her views on the role of competition in the teaching of lexis (e.g. whether it may have undesirable influences), she expressed her confidence in her classroom as a group. That is, she felt that they could engage in "friendly" competition thanks to the classroom dynamics, rather than considering competitiveness detrimental to learning. Nevertheless, Raci recognised the competitive elements inherent in games (e.g. Group A- Boys vs. Group B- Girls), suggesting the need for exercising caution about 'harsh' competitiveness among classroom members.

Another reservation Raci voiced was that confident students may dominate the vocabulary game, which in turn might deny less confident students opportunities for interaction. Raci felt that strong or good students could balance their personalities themselves, which, she believed, could assist her in correcting students' errors. For instance, she recalled that a student had written favourably about her classmate as a part of a writing task where they expressed their impressions about a person they met:

Excerpt 30: I have to balance their personalities in the other classrooms ... whereas in this classroom they can balance themselves. I don't think they would take offence if their mistakes are corrected. Also I kind of learnt from their writing I gave them a writing work like write about the first person you met. Some of them wrote about the person they met in the class. Some of them liked and respected their friends' ability in English. I recognised that like ... some of them started their writings like: my first impression of my friend Aysu... They really liked her speaking ability; a lot of the girls wrote about her. If she's doing the

correct thing the girls...the other girls don't mind because they really respect her ability of spoken English but she didn't do as well as other girls in exams so her written ability might not be strong but I don't know for sure I didn't go over their exams. They're competitive in a friendly way and that's good.

Raci believes that there is a sense of close bond in her classroom strengthened by mutual respect and peer support and appreciation among classroom members who jointly contribute to harmony. It is interesting to note that her knowledge of students, derived from her awareness of the students' own opinions about one another. When asked what Raci felt about students' correcting the student named Aysu during a mini-presentation mentioned in the above account, she replied:

> *Excerpt 31:* I noticed that they do like to do that [correcting each other] in the class [...]. I don't disallow that because as long as they're friends and they don't get upset by it. In another class, I don't think it would be beneficial; it could be look I know more than you...to show off. But in this class it's fine. They have a good relationship and they're good friends.

It seemed that Raci's attitude towards the selection of examples to illustrate lexical items was based on affective factors such as her sensitivity to students' emotional well-being. Her preference for drawing on her own personal story to illustrate lexical items accounts for her avoidance of certain issues mentioned above. During her focus on the target lexical item *ironic*, as a response to a curious student's questions as to whether the lexical item *arrogant* is synonymous with *ironic*, she merely answered her question with another question (see Episode: *ironic*-line number 16-17). Yet she did not highlight the difference between these two lexical items. When asked the reason why she denied the students such an explanation, Raci said:

> *Excerpt 32:* I didn't expect her to come up with the word "arrogant" here. I supposed I didn't focus on it because I was too busy trying to focus on "ironic". To be honest, "ironic" is not one of my favourite words because I find the idea hard to explain and I was trying to think of a way to explain "ironic". Also "arrogant" is not a nice adjective and I didn't want the students thinking that I thought Nasreddin Hodja is arrogant. I was trying to be culturally sensitive and not take the conversation down this line.

Raci's rationale for the way she treated the lexical items *ironic* and *arrogant* was twofold. Firstly, she found herself over-preoccupied with *ironic* as she admitted having difficulty clarifying the idea behind it. Secondly, she wanted to bring the conversation to a close to

avoid being insensitive towards the students' folkloric culture in which Nasreddin Hodja is a figure famous for his wit. The above-mentioned FonL episode and others (e.g. Episode: *signpost*), where Raci made a comparison between Ireland and Turkey in terms of signs on the streets, displays her awareness of the socio-cultural context in which she teaches. Raci therefore preferred to avoid touching upon delicate issues like death, divorce and diseases (e.g. cancer). For instance, she recalled her experience with a different group of learners in the past. This is largely related to the explanations of culturally-loaded lexical items and to the choice of examples, the latter of which is discussed under the heading of lexis-related instructional techniques.

As for the second category, namely particular individual students, Raci said that it was the students' queries that urged her to draw their attention to the parts of speech such as nouns and adjectives. The way in which Raci dealt with an atypical student (named "N") is interesting as it hints at how one particular individual student exerts a considerable influence on the pedagogical dimensions of lexis teaching in a classroom. As a "word-savvy" student, N was quite inquisitive about words. Raci described the word-savvy student as follows:

> *Excerpt 33:* I have one student –N- who is very much into vocabulary. N is obsessed with words...he is a word geek. It has to do with his learning style or something, He is a word...word...word geek or something. So he has to know every part, you know he even has little cards with words on them. Maybe not a style as such but more a learning technique or study techniques. 'artiste'. He has his word cards and he has some wrongs even some words on his card are non-existent. He doesn't believe me for the first time even though I have to you know I do a bit of research and try to give him, I don't fight you're wrong and I'm right, so I give him a benefit of a day. I researched and I was right (*laughter*).

Raci holds the opinion that it is often the students who pull the class in different directions. Apparently, students' characteristics, particularly that of individual students, seemed to exert a heavy influence on the teachers' instructional decisions in relation to lexis in particular. In Raci's view, unsolicited elaboration or diversion from the lesson plan might sometimes mean sacrificing other parts of development of language skills such as speaking. Since she wanted to move on, she saw some of N's lexis-related questions as a source of digression.

Excerpt 34: N [student] does challenge me and said 'no, very easy'. He likes to challenge. N is a unique student in that he doesn't get embarrassed by trying to use new words or getting things wrong. This can be fun for me and also challenging. Sometimes his queries can take the class in a new direction and I have to wrestle with him to get control back. However, I think we have an understanding and he knows that I will allow him to take things to a certain point of questioning and then I will suggest that we discuss his question later so that we can continue with class. He will pull my class off in different directions wherever possible because his mind is constantly on vocabulary but I only will allow that to happen two or three minutes and then I'll write whether it's an adjective or noun or adverb or verb and then we will continue on. He is always asking for phrasal verbs and he'll try and pull me off all the time wanting new words you can only do that for a small amount of time because the other students aren't as interested as he is.

The fact that Raci occasionally deferred to a later time her answer to N's questions about what she called 'unusual' words seems to indicate mutual understanding among the student and the teacher. The new direction is the result of the students' high level of curiosity about the words. Perhaps the student cannot tolerate ambiguity and thus wants to ensure he gets everything absolutely right. This cannot explain Raci's degree of confidence or concomitant avoidance but it explain by her concern about delivering the curriculum in a certain period of time. When the lexical item *neglect* appeared in Episode 7 where the students were assigned to fill out a stress questionnaire (Appendix 6), Raci had to handle this particular student's occasional lack of attention through repetition.

Episode 7: *neglect*

	Context: Pre-teaching the words in the questionnaire about stress.	
T	Neglect means to stop… to stop paying attention … or to stop doing something. So if you neglect your diet. If you for example neglect your children, it means you stop caring about your children, so this also stops caring about diet. You can also stop caring about your children. So, neglect means to stop doing something, neglect…something or someone. Happy?	1 2 3 4 5
S	(*busy with something else*) What's **neglect** mean?	6
T	it means to stop caring…about…or to stop caring about. So, if you neglect your diet, you stop eating properly. If you neglect your children, you ignore them you don't give them food when they come from school. You start … it's abusing them. Neglect is not a good word.	3 4 5 6
S1	like ignore?	7
T	Yes like ignore or like stop caring and stop paying attention to…	8
S2	you can neglect your children or your work.	9
T	Yes, you can neglect your work or studies, meaning you stop studying. You can neglect your diet… all right…	10 11

Raci provided further details about the student N, specifically his distraction:

Excerpt 35: N [student] had been absent yesterday so he missed everything we had done he had studied them at home himself so I was impressed by how far he studied. Students…erm...if you write on the board the first thing they gonna do is start writing it down, taking it down or erm…doing something with it and they're not listening to you. When they are doing that, they get distracted. N does this all the time, he gets incredibly distracted and then he doesn't hear what I've said and I have to repeat it for him and explain it again because he didn't listen… he wasn't listening because he was either distracted by something else by writing down from the board or something. [...] I hadn't planned most of those words, so my explanations were a bit quick. We've done the word 'diet' before, it came up before, so I want to get at it again. I wanted to get easily. The word that I wanted to teach was 'neglect' like 'neglect your diet'. Most of them I think got it in the first sort of 30 seconds of me explaining it but N musn't be listening because he asked it again. I don't know why ... after doing all these and he came back to the word 'neglect', I don't know maybe he wasn't listening or he wasn't paying attention or he hadn't understood. But generally he understands quickly but this time he mustn't be paying attention to.

Raci held the opinion that it was necessary to sustain students' attention when presenting the meanings of lexical items. This is due in part to the students' characteristics, such as the learning styles of adult learners.

Excerpt 36: When you teach adults you can lose them you don't learn with the same …in the same way so… If they're middle of an activity or something I try to get their attention back to what they are doing. Some of them are not interested and I don't bother them they'd rather keep going what they're doing. So, maybe what I should be doing is taking notes and going over after they complete it.

This account suggests that Raci perceives adult students as individuals who can easily get lost during her explanations about lexical items. It seems that she feels the need to redirect the students' attention to what they were supposed to be doing when their attention is diverted from a given task. It may be that the more you explain a word, the subtler meanings emerge, which make the explanations much more complex than short explanations. Perhaps that is why Raci wanted the students to close their books in both Episode 6: *ironic* and Episode 7: *neglect.*

4.1.5   Summary of Raci's cognitions and practices

To summarise, Raci described herself as a 'very much planned teacher'. She gave more precedence to the development of listening, composition and discussion skills than to lexis-related work. She preferred to treat lexis before and after skills work that served as an aid for listening and reading comprehension. In this respect, her teaching approach was characterised mostly by integrated lexis instruction. The overwhelming majority of FonL episodes took place during skills work in Raci's class, particularly while/pre-listening and while/pre-reading activities where she assigned her students to read out the dictionary definitions of the keywords glossed in the course book and to read out a sentence from reading comprehension questions. Pre-emptive focus on episodes, as opposed to reactive ones, were more frequently observed to have taken place in her class. Predominantly teacher-initiated episodes were identified while 6 instances of student-initiated episodes were observed. In terms of word class/part of speech, mainly adjectives and nouns constitute the majority of episodes identified. 7 in 31 episodes were related to lexis in its own right (i.e. independent of a particular skill development activity). These episodes were the instances in which activities such as open-ended vocabulary revision, gap-fill, word formation and using words in a sentence were carried out. Raci's other favoured practices included exemplification, providing synonyms, and making sentences. She was of the opinion that it would be confusing to provide students with 'too much information'. Accordingly, Raci demonstrated a preference to deal with the lexical items glossed in the coursebook, which took the form of dictionary definitions. In terms of lexical knowledge, observational data revealed that the coverage of aspects of lexical knowledge attended to in her class was as follows: meaning (69%), form (19%) and use (12%).

4.2   CASE 2: HATI

Hati espoused beliefs about different dimensions of lexis teaching including selecting lexical items, preventing confusion, the need to add variety/range, and providing lexical knowledge. These dimensions are summarised and illustrated in Figure 6.

4.2.1   Hati's belief system of lexis teaching
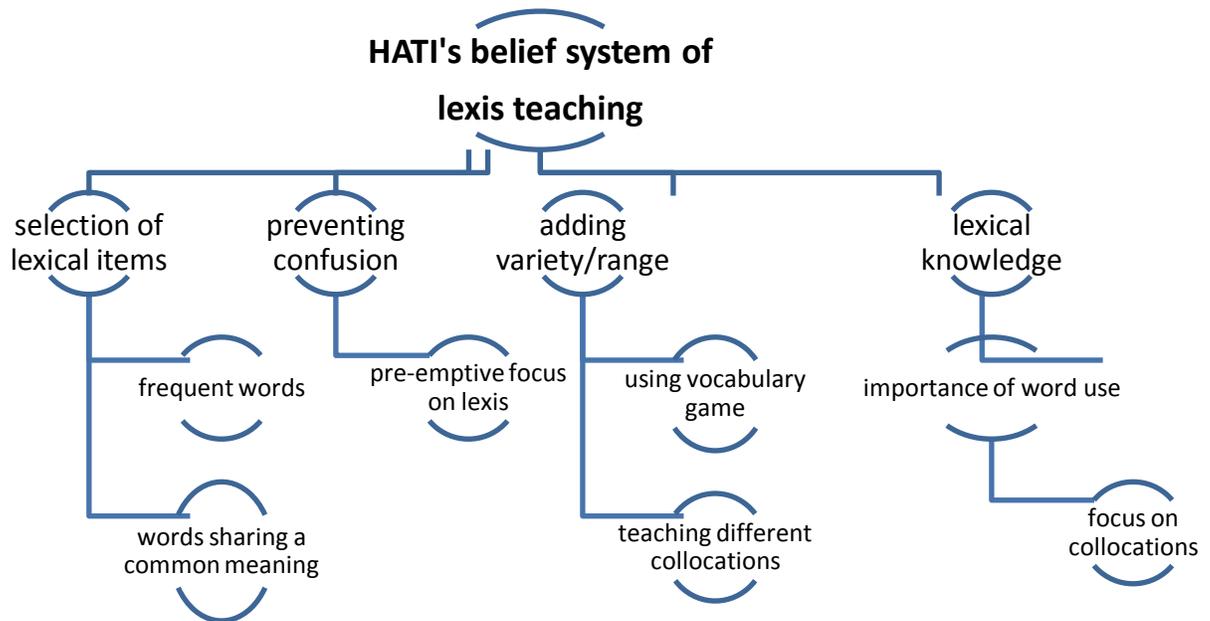
Figure 6: Hati's belief system of lexis teaching

4.2.1.1   Selection of lexical items and attributions about lexis

Hati's statements ('*Frequently-used words need to be given some attention*' and *'[Students] need to be aware of these kinds of words that have different meanings in different forms')* describe her beliefs about choosing lexical items for classroom teaching. She described lexical items using attributes such as 'confusing/clear', 'powerful/important', 'specific/accurate', 'negative/positive' and 'frequent'. Not only did Hati express the need to

concentrate on the 'key' lexical items without which she considered a given text cannot be easily understood, but she also suggested that adequate time and attention be allocated to introducing the items she considered potentially problematic for students (Episode 14 *competent-competitive*; see Episodes: *ambiguous-ambition; insist-consist* in Appendix 4). She thought these problematic items were not necessarily central to understanding the message of the reading/listening, but she subjected these items to intensive and detailed treatment. Hati's justification for devoting attention to these lexical items was linked to the possibility that students might miss out on the actual content of the material they dealt with as a result of their becoming so preoccupied with these items.

4.2.1.2   Prevent confusion

Hati articulated of the belief that '*I think it would be great if I had the time to think about how I can explain potentially unknown or problematic items'*. This belief highlights the value she attached to the pre-teaching of those lexical items which might enable students to carry out a productive activity. Similarly, as far as receptive activities (e.g. reading comprehension) are concerned, Hati felt that it was necessary to explain the 'key' lexical items which could assist learners in making better sense of the text (see section 4.2.1.1). Her rationale for drawing students' attention to lexical items prior to starting an activity was to enhance students' comprehension. That is, she did not want them to focus too much on those items central to comprehension of the text as she thought that this would distract them from getting the gist of the text. In a pre-reading activity, for example, where students were matching headings with paragraphs, Hati got the students to identify the paragraphs and asked them to come up with evidence by identifying 'keywords' from the text to support their answers. Some of those items were already given at the very start of the lesson, implying the significance Hati attributed to these particular items.

Pre-emption also reflects Hati's anticipation skills, which involves personal preference, favourite words. Hati's pre-emptive approach shows her language learning experience as well as her sensitivity to lexis as she considered this item to be very useful. Hati's rationales for adopting a pre-emptive approach to lexical instruction are listed below.

- To prevent students' misunderstanding at the very outset
- To enable students to answer comprehension questions more easily
- To maintain the flow of the lesson and the presentation of vocabulary
- To have a smooth task completion without disruption or interruption
- To relate lexical items to content (e.g. 'matching headings with paragraphs' activity)

It is worth noting that Hati did not articulate these justifications one at a time, but at various parts of stimulated-recall interviews. The majority of the reasons seem to be based on the belief that the students' confusion should be eliminated which involves addressing students' misunderstanding. She believed in the necessity to minimise at the outset misunderstanding on the part of students collectively, not just on the part of individual students. That is why Hati tended to pre-teach what she called 'problematic' lexical items to the whole class rather than to the individual student who had difficulty with them. When talking about addressing students' confusion caused by the lexical items *divert*, *deviate* and *distort*, she referred to her previous students who had had problems with the same items.

Hati often forewarned the students about the items that might mislead them in certain situations. She attributed her ability to predict the difficulty that some lexical items posed to learners to her previous and on-going teaching experience (i.e. the fact that she has been currently teaching the course in the same institution for a few years). This shows the degree of her readiness to transfer her prior teaching experience of particular instances from one micro-context to another (i.e. from one classroom to another within the same institution).

Having made mention of the spontaneous nature of her planning, she expressed the desirability of pre-planning the way in which to present the problematic lexical items which her previous students struggled with:

> *Excerpt 37:* I can immediately give an example for the word "resort" without thinking too much about it, but when a non-problematic word comes up how are we gonna explain it? It would be better to have quick notes to facilitate my job in the future. I wish we could plan how to teach words beforehand. It would be nice to have a written record of the common errors made by learners in the previous course, but unfortunately there is not one we have now. It would be better to have quick notes to facilitate my job in the future. This requires time and commitment. In an ideal world, probably, but in the real world, it is difficult.

Hati expressed a wish to be adequately prepared for how to teach lexical items although she was able to anticipate some, if not all, of those items. She also expressed the desirability of a written record of previously-made errors in other classes she was teaching at the time. She

119

was preoccupied more with selecting what lexical items to present and consolidate than with closely following lesson procedures, as the entry in my research journal suggests: Hati gave an anecdotal account in which her tutee got surprised by the fact that she strongly encouraged her to learn the word 'distinct' [field notes, 19 Nov 2010]

4.2.1.3   "For the sake of variety"

In her statement that '[I should] *add variety to vocabulary activities [so that] they can see a range rather than repeating the same thing',* Hati expressed a preference for adding variety to her lexis teaching. By "variety" or "range", she referred to making small changes or additions to her teaching practices and to the different ways and procedures in which a vocabulary game of similar type could be carried out. One way of incorporating variety into her instruction was devising vocabulary game activities in different formats, for example a) Hold it up b) Back to the board. For example, Hati asked students to put their sheet up once they had written the word so that she could see they had finished. (i.e. this involves writing a word faster than the other group). These games had also some elements of competition (not necessarily in a negative sense) as groups were sometimes divided into girls and boys. Concerning this issue, Hati expressed her belief in the motivational value of variety.

> *Excerpt 38:* Small changes could be motivating for both teachers and students. Speeding up the pace could sometimes bring liveliness. Making small changes make tasks much more lively, competitive and fun. A little bit of competitive element...erm...there should be a balance, though. It is necessary to let them learn from one another. Bits of everything really...The purpose is to understand whether that they learnt the word or not. After all, the point is to check whether they learn the word or not. Otherwise it would be time-consuming.

Variety seems to serve to fulfil students' and the teacher's need for change, namely both affective and intellectual challenge. Adding variety can be considered as her core belief as Hati was concerned with making students aware of the range of and constraints on using lexical items. She tended to treat lexical items in different ways ranging from providing synonyms to spelling to parts of speech to example sentences. When asked why she dealt mainly with the adjective form of the lexical item rather than its noun form (which was the actual target lexical item under focus), Hati commented:

Excerpt 39: For the purpose of variety really, because it's me who is always explaining the words. We're doing vocab every day in one way or another, be it revision or activity. I'm not good at vocab games, what I do is to add variety to my activities. You know, it takes too much time to give instructions. It takes too much time to set up a vocab game from scratch and erm…understand it, so if there's a task they are more familiar with it's easier to set up this task. It takes less time. Plus, rather than giving a word, getting them to explain would encourage them to think differently.

Hati admitted that her repertoire of vocabulary games was quite limited compared to her fellow teachers'. To compensate for her perceived constraint of 'poor' repertoire, Hati preferred to add variety to her activities through making minor changes in the way she implemented these activities instead of setting up a task from scratch with procedures that would be unfamiliar to students. She aimed to save time as she thought that explaining task instruction and procedures might take too much time. As she was in the habit of doing vocabulary work, Hati felt that her students would lose their interest unless variety was added to the activities. It seems that she intended to compensate for her perceived limitations (her internal constraint being poor repertoire of vocabulary games and her external constraint being the lack of classroom time). She justified the need for variety by referring to her self-perception about the employment of vocabulary games, contextual concerns and students' interests. Taken together, Hati's provision of a host of reasons for offering variety reinforces the idea of the multi-layered nature of teachers' belief systems.

4.2.1.4   Providing lexical knowledge

"*Give them [students] a bit of something extra*" is what Hati herself said to refer to the provision of additional lexical items (non-academic, colloquial and polysemous words) or additional information about lexical items (stress, part of speech, and phonetic transcription). Hati justified her position by referring to her students' failure in lexical choice in their language production (i.e. speaking and writing), importance of using lexis appropriately, the need for variety, and characteristics of strong students.

Focusing on as many different aspects of lexical knowledge as possible, Hati seemed to display a positive attitude towards her provision of lexical input and towards students' performance in explaining lexical items. Hati's position which suggests the value of elaborating word knowledge is evidenced in her belief about the need for offering variety.

4.2.2 Practices in lexis teaching

4.2.2.1 Providing additional collocations

In line with her belief in the value of providing "extra" and "variety", Hati drew students' attention to a range of combinations in which the lexical item *confrontational* might occur with the words "people" and "situation". Hati's personal theory about variety was also reflected in Episode 8 below where she revisited the same lexical item within the lesson.

Episode 8: *confrontation*

Context: Revision activity: Which words do you remember from yesterday?	
T: Negative neutral? Which one seems to be more ... the case? When you confront somebody what do you do?	1 2
S: face something	3
T: it is something you don't know If I am a confrontational person I have a habit of confronting people you say and I always disagree with you I say no no no It is a sort of annoying habit if a person is confrontational all the time	4 5 6

When I prompted Hati to comment on the way in which she treated the lexical item *confrontational*, she said:

> *Excerpt 40:* it would be something extra to teach that it ["confrontational"] can also be used to talk about people. This took place spontaneously. They shouldn't have any problems with it because we've come across this word, plus, it appeared in their exams so it's a word which they shouldn't have confused but the similar appearance of the words "confront" and "conform" could be confusing. I wanted them to see a different collocation otherwise they would think "confrontational" goes with "situation" all the time. What I tried to show them was that just like a situation, a person can well be confrontational. I just wanted to show them that this word ["confrontational"] can be used for both situations and people. They can see a range rather than repeating the same thing.

Hati did not strictly stick to the target word form under focus, namely the Episode started off with its verb form then continued with its adjective form. She concerned herself with getting the meaning across choosing a sentence accessible to the students. When I wondered if she found the adjective form more significant than the noun form, Hati disconfirmed my hunch. When I probed for further details about her treatment, she replied:

> *Excerpt 41:* It was the students who asked the words "generate" and "confrontational". I assumed that they studied before the class, as always I asked them if they have any problems. It seems I tried to clarify what kinds of things can be confrontational. Either a

condition or approach can be confrontational. I don't know perhaps an attitude can be confrontational. Apart from that, it seems I haven't done much about it here.

The accounts quoted in this section reflects the idea of "providing extra" and "adding variety", both of which are intermingled in Hati's belief system.

4.2.2.2   Using L1 (Turkish) in classroom

Hati's negative attitude towards the use of L1 became evident when she was prompted to reflect on the reason why the student had not used an L1 word straight away to complete her sentence. Hati seemed to equate using L1 to the student 'admitting defeat'. This reflected her knowledge about an individual student who set a good example to other fellow students in terms of the effort she put into language learning in general. Yet Hati's views on the possible confusion caused by interlingual (English-Turkish) differences were also related in part to semantically-related lexical items (*deformity* and *distortion*). That her students thought *deformity* and *distortion* had the same meaning did not come as a surprise to Hati, for she already knew the characteristics of her students and the Turkish language.

> *Excerpt 42:* When you translate these words [*deformity* and *distortion*] into Turkish, it probably means <u>'saptirmak'</u> [divert/deviate].They use online dictionaries. [...] 'Distort' is actually quite different but I think these two are very close also mean the same thing it may change if there is a specific context but for you I think at the moment you could think them as synonymous. I did expect that you have a difficulty especially I think when you translate from Turkish they have similar meaning so it is difficult to know when do I use which one.

The lexical item *distort* was compared with other words such as *divert/deviate* after completing a reading task. As usual, she gave additional information to the students elaborating on what might have made the word difficult, but on this occasion she drew students' attention to the L1-related difficulty. That is, the Turkish equivalent of 'distort' refers to different shades of meanings of the lexical items *divert* and *deviate*. The Turkish word *değiştirmek,* which means *to change* in English, is an all-purpose word. Hati considered this quite normal while other instances frustrated her, particularly those instances where students were unable to retrieve lexical items that had recently been taught. She ascribed such difficulty to the fact that students had checked the lexical items in online monolingual dictionaries. Hati told her students she had expected this problem could come up. It is worth noting here that this episode was pre-emptive in nature because it involved

an attempt by the teacher to initiate explicit attention to a linguistic point even though no specific communication problem occurred.

Episode 9: *maintenance*

	*Context***:** Pre-listening: Categorise the words into negative, positive or neutral.	
T	**maintenance**?	1
S	positive	2
S2	neutral	3
T	positive, neutral, what was the meaning of maintenance where does it come from?	4
S	maintain	5
T	it comes from maintain, good! When you maintain something what would you do? You keep it you keep doing something.	6 7
S	it can be positive and negative at the same time	8
T	It is more positive yes when you maintain something	9
S	I maintained to smoke	10
T	I think you cannot maintain and smoking together. Meaning-wise yes…. What would you say? If you wanna say somebody continues to smoke you would not normally say you maintain smoking. He keeps smoking. They wouldn't fit together. You would not use them together. You *maintain* a *relationship…* you *maintain* erm….your *goal* you keep smoking.	11 12 13 14 15

In Episode 9, Hati provided the following account below when she was asked to talk about the impact of the learners' L1 on their L2 (*maintain to smoke** in line 10) and her focus on the lexical items alongside their collocates (*relationship/goal* in line 14 and 15).

> *Excerpt 43:* They already know 'maintain' but they didn't see its noun form ('maintenance'). The rationale was to enable them to make connections. Even, one student tried to say 'maintain to smoke'. We can use this in Turkish, can't we? When they transfer this from Turkish, they end up using a wrong 'collocation'. You know maintain can be used for something positive, you know you maintain a positive thing. First, they need to learn its meaning then it is necessary to make associations between positive things. The goal was to raise their awareness and also help them to use the words accurately.

This also implies the extent to which L1 interference leads to problems in other aspect of lexis such as register, pragmatics and discourse. Her uncertainty revealed itself in her account about the above-mentioned instance in which a student built a sentence by using the item '*maintain*'.

4.2.2.3 Focus on lexis pre-emptively

Hati pre-taught the lexical items which she deemed 'difficult' or 'problematic' as she believed this might enhance comprehension while listening to a song in the Unit about Protests. This involved a pre-emptive FonL, an example of which appeared in Episode 10.

Episode 10: *picket lines/picket signs*

	Context: Prior to listening to the protest song, the teacher wrote p*icket lines, picket signs* on the board. The teacher asked the students to listen to the protest song to see if they had anything to add to their brainstorm they had already started at the beginning of the Unit.	
T	does anybody know these words [*pointing to the words on the board*]:	1
	$\big[$ **Picket lines, picket signs** $\big]$*	2
Ss	[*looking puzzled, raising shoulders in a gesture of not knowing*]	3
T	They are quite specific actually they are specific to ...which situation? ...	4
Ss	[*no response*]	5
T	strike. We want more salary (*gesture*) so this is picket sign and picket lines are the borders they create so people cannot pass through so picket lines and picket signs are very specific to a strike situations you have got your words on your sides want people to see it.	6 7 8 9

*: The symbol "[ ]" represents the black board.

Regarding this particular instance where she pre-empted the lexical items relating to protest (line 1), Hati provided the following account:

> *Excerpt 44:* I knew that they didn't know "picket signs", "picket lines". I didn't know them, either. I looked them up for the first time while listening to the protest song. I gave an example for them. That's not that important, but if they don't know the word they will be obsessed with it. They might think as if this is an important word and become obsessed with it. You know, I taught them beforehand in case this happens. Perhaps they won't need to use these words [*picket signs/picket lines*] in the future. My rationale was to prevent any confusion on the part of students and from getting stuck on the words. That's not an important word. I taught them prior to listening so that they wouldn't have to tackle them during listening [actual task].

These comments seem to show that despite their minor significance in facilitating understanding the aural text, Hati treated the lexical items *picket signs* and *picket lines* intensively initiated by herself so that the students would not get stuck on those items while listening to the song. Hati's anticipation skill manifested itself in her prediction of students'

likely lexical errors. She referred to both their ongoing teaching experience on the course as well as their prior teaching experience. Regarding her belief in the necessity of preventing confusion (see section 4.2.1.2), Hati noted that it was her accumulated teaching experience that enabled her to predict the common lexical mistakes made by her current students, and perhaps that is why her approach to lexis instruction is pre-emptive. Nevertheless, Hati expressed her reservations about pre-empting lexical items herself and stressed the value of a student-generated form-focused approach to lexis teaching (whether other students would already know about the lexical item the teachers explained prior to the occurrence of any problem). Hati' comment that "if I plan everything beforehand they might say like ohh I know this already" explains why "a lot of [her] teaching is mapped out roughly before class and happens in a rather spontaneous way".

4.2.2.4   Exemplification

Hati encouraged her students to figure out how a lexical item was used in particular contexts. Her contextualisation operated at both sentence and discourse levels. Providing a specific situation to show where a lexical item was used is also congruent with her belief about the need for providing students with prototypical examples (exemplars), the need for building on students' existing knowledge, and about the usefulness of improvisation in promoting students' interactions. By providing a specific situation she seemed to refer to a very relevant situation (which might be related to the content of the text that students were to deal with and which had an immediate impact on students' understanding) as opposed to providing several examples poorly chosen. In instances when one example was inaccessible to students, she felt obliged to give students more examples. Her description implies that she was cognisant of her 'poor' choice of examples:

> *Excerpt 45:* Here I couldn't give them a good example. Gulcin [the student] thought "deformity" and "distortion" had the same meaning. They look similar in terms of their meaning. There is a physical deformity. She couldn't understand the kind of change in deformity I guess, so...you know it's not surprising that she mistook them for one another.

Hati expressed a preference for pertinent examples which would be within students' grasp. She problematised her verbal explanations and choice of examples in her attempts to illustrate lexical items. Hati considered some of her own explanations unclear or

inadequate, which she ascribed to her poor choice of examples. Particularly her sentence with the 'derailment' metaphor ("We went off-track here") seems to refer to such instances in which her explanations were distracting in the sense that they were focused on items not relevant to the ones initially planned.

Hati talked about both dimensions of exemplification, namely the quantity and quality of examples. She believed that giving to-the-point examples was really important. The reason was that numerous examples, which usually happened in the absence of relevant or prototypical examples, resulted in digression which then led to confusion on the part of students. Hati asked students which lexical items they had difficulty with but when it came to explanations she preferred to provide somewhat lengthy explanations by giving examples as well as incorporating students' input into her feedback. Episode 11: *compromise* illustrates this point:

Episode 11: *compromise*

	Context: Pre-listening: Categorising the words into negative, positive or neutral.	
T	compromise, it is a good one to know.	1
S	it could be neutral or negative	2
T	negative or neutral? What is **compromise**? What does it mean?	3
S	if it is something important for you to get but erm…do it what you want maybe	4
T	OK, good you gave an explanation of the word…Can you talk about a specific situation where there is a compromise?	5 6
S	for example, I want to build a building but he [*pointing to his classmate*] does not want me to build it we will compromise and we will build a small one	7 8
T	OK, excellent!	9
S	it is not what he wants and it is not what I want … [pause]	10
T	you meet in the middle way	11
S	(*nodding*)	12
T	yes exactly	13
T	yes nobody gets exactly what they want but they get partially what they want. They meet somewhere in the middle. It is an important word to know. OK...what was the next one? Ha [*remembering something*] ok that's the meaning of it. Is it positive or negative then?	14 15 16 17
S	neutral	18
T	Yasin says 'I want my tall building' and Baris says 'No way you cannot do that' then you have a conflict, you cannot move further but when you compromise it is a step to solve the problem. In that sense, it is slightly more a positive thing because you're trying to find a solution when you make a compromise. So I would rather say it is usually positive.	19 20 21 22

Hati was asked about her preference for calling on the students to come up with an example situation (line 5), she explained her rationale as follows:

> *Excerpt 46:* Here I thought they could find a more specific situation; for example, the case of a strike, employers and employees relationship or marketing. Since I thought the students could easily come up with simple answers perhaps you know I asked in which particular context compromise takes place. The rationale is that they could find an easier example situation. When explaining the lexical item compromise, I gave a collocate word as an example. But here I thought they could give a better case which exemplifies a situation of compromise. They have come across this word earlier in different forms. [...] Maybe they could know it from their own personal background. They don't have schemata based on our course book.

Predicting the students' probable knowledge of concept or content, Hati justified her stance referring to students' familiarity and language level, a point worthy of expansion in section 4.2.4 where contextual variables are highlighted.

4.2.2.5 Comparison of L2 lexical items and associations (synonyms and antonyms)

Establishing and reinforcing links between the lexical items the students already know and those items they are expected to learn underlies Hati's thinking about lexis teaching. She connected the lexical items that came up during the lesson with other items that had previously come up in the course. She attached particular importance to the categorisation activity in the course book where the learners were expected to classify the lexical items depending on their senses of negativity, positivity or neutrality. This activity was a sub-part of a major activity involving listening to a recorded lecture. It is also worth noting that Hati seemed to perceive the meanings of lexical items as being more important than the completion of the categorisation task. This does not necessarily apply to all other activities she devised, though. She might have prioritised the semantic aspects of lexical items over task completion due to the nature of the lexis-focused activity itself whose potential function was to facilitate listening comprehension. Hati described the procedures of this particular activity as follows:

> *Excerpt 47:* In this task, they were supposed to categorise the words. They were allowed to use dictionaries if they didn't know the meanings of those words in the box because the words in the box don't match the words in the INPUT lists. But, those were the words they should know. If they don't know them at that point I expect them to learn their meanings at

least, and then categorise them according to their meanings. They don't do this categorisation through the help of dictionary of course. What they were expected to do was to identify which words are negative and which words are positive.

During focus on the lexical sets "*aggressive/assertive*, for example, Hati attempted to compare the underlined lexical items (Episode 12; line 16) after the students came up with their Turkish equivalents.

Episode 12: *assertive/aggressive*

	Context: Categorising words into negative, positive or neutral.	
T	Assertive, it is the one that you should be paying attention to. Is it negative or positive?	1
S	positive	2
T	Do you agree? Baris, tell us what does **assertive** means? [*nominating a student*]	3
S1	iddiali (meaning in Turkish = assertive)	4
S2	iddiali?	5
S3	I don't know	6
S4	if someone is assertive she believes she can do anything …	7
T	OK. Anything is maybe a bit assertive in that sense as you took it. It is about confidence, isn't it? The person who is assertive has confidence in themselves, they are self-confident. They usually know how to get what they want. And they are not afraid of speaking up. You are talking about something Ozlem said hmm OK. You weren't assertive there. If you did think something else was right then you would speak up say 'that is not the case, you should do this' OK you would be more assertive.	8 9 10 11 12 13
T	Is it the same with **aggressive?**	14
Ss	no!!! [*in chorus*]	15
T	it is not. OK be careful in dictionaries sometimes you look up 'assertive' you get the same…erm… you get 'aggressive' as a synonym. But it's different. Assertive is a more positive kind. Even if you are a bit more pushing about what you want I don't go around and humiliate you while I want to get I want or I don't shout at you. But I make sure you see I know what I am talking about and I am right. So it is confidence I try to convey. So, don't think it is the same as aggressive. So we said positive and I agree with that...aggressive?	16 17 18 19 20 21 22
S	negative	23
T	OK we don't need to talk about it	24

When asked whether she thought cross-associations (interference of lexical items with one another) would occur between "assertive "and "self-confident" and whether students would use these lexical items interchangeably and perhaps inappropriately, Hati replied:

> *Excerpt 48:* Yes, there's a possibility that they may say "self-confident" instead of "assertive". We do everything to avoid such confusion. The purpose is to connect these two words. If my comparison of two words facilitates their understanding of "assertiveness", I don't think it would be a problem to compare the nuances between the words in terms of meaning.

Hati did not find the dictionary definitions satisfactory; nor did she consider the Turkish translations to be adequate to capture the meaning of the lexical items. Perhaps that is why she felt the need to elaborate on those items so that students could differentiate their subtle meanings and could recognise them in their future encounters. She knew that the students were already familiar with those items as they came up in previous classes.

> *Excerpt 49:* "Assertive" was a word we studied nowadays in the class. They already learnt the word "aggressive". What I did was to explain what makes "aggressive" different from "assertive" in terms of meaning. When I checked them on the online dictionary and they are explained as if they are synonymous. But that is not the whole story they're not exactly the same, so I tried to show the students the difference between these two words. I focused more on "assertive" and I explained the word "aggressive" in a bit more indirect way.

It was Episode 12: *assertive* that generated Hati's views on the equivalence between L1 and L2 lexical items. It is worth pointing out that she also drew on her own knowledge about L1 (Turkish) in her subsequent comments about *assertive* and how it linked to "self-confidence" and how it differed from "self-confident":

> *Excerpt 50:* "Assertive" is to do with self-confidence so I didn't want them to mistake it for "aggressive". "Assertive" means being firm if someone knows what he or she is talking about. People may have higher level of self-confidence but they may not necessarily be assertive. That's why, the Turkish translation of this word does not sound right to me. The translation does not tell us the exact meaning of the word 'assertive'. The purpose is to connect these two words. An important aspect of 'self-confidence' is being assertive but not separate so 'kendine guvenmek' (meaning: to trust oneself) is not enough in its own. It's also about 'speaking up', in fact, I don't know the Turkish equivalent. I was going to give them an example like discussion. This word ['assertive'] is also in the INPUT lists. It means like 'not to change position no matter what'. I doubt this meaning can be conveyed by a single Turkish word. We need to look it up in the dictionary to see what it says. Actually, the Turkish word, 'cekinmemek' (meaning: to make no bones about doing something; not to try to hide feelings) does not simply mean 'assertive'. You do it without hurting people and without breaking people's hearts.

In her account about the manner in which she treated the lexical item *assertive*, Hati seemed to problematise whether a Turkish lexical item could possibly capture the meaning of this item. She found Turkish translations inadequate to capture the whole meaning of the item. In fact, through such problematisation she manifested her subject-matter knowledge, more specifically her understanding of the subtle semantic differences between L1 and L2 lexical items (i.e. *assertive – confident*). Hati tried to minimise her use of L1 as much as

possible and to insist on interacting with the students in L2 despite her students' responses in L1 (see section 4.2.2.2). Where she compared the difference between the lexical items *confident* and *assertive*, for example, Hati cast doubts on whether the latter item could be expressed by a single Turkish word. She mentioned several factors that were likely to result in cross-associations involving confusions about similar forms and meanings. One factor she mentioned was L1 influence. Hati stated that the students had a tendency to use online dictionaries to check L1 equivalents or the literal meanings. It needs to be borne in mind that lap-top computers were allowed in the classrooms in the School of Languages where she was working at the time of the study.

When I felt that Hati was explaining what "not being assertive" as opposed to "being assertive" involved, I asked whether this was actually the case, to which she responded:

> *Excerpt 51:* There was an example there, so they were supposed to make their own decision whether an adjective is positive or negative. The students were a group of three and one of those students looked very assertive in whether the word suggests something negative. The other agreed with her friend sitting next to her. One of them said this is negative and the other immediately accepted her friends' answer without questioning and while doing this and I told them she had a non-assertive behaviour. What does this tell us? This was a non-assertive behaviour, that's what I tried to explain to them. You know, they experienced what this word ['*assertive*'] suggests.

Hati turned the situation into a learning opportunity so as to consolidate the lexical items. Her close monitoring of the manner in which students acted when they were on task and her being aware of what was going on amongst students during group work enabled her to decide how to address the lexical items. It should be noted, however, that this was a quite unique classroom event in the sense that it could not be easily recognised such as one observed some other aspects of the whole classroom context, including students' reactions to one another and their facial expressions.

4.2.2.6 Elicitation

Hati expressed a strong preference for employing elicitation to FonL during formal instruction. Her rationale behind using this instructional technique is not only associated with teaching style but also with her belief that intermediate students' current knowledge

needs to be utilised (see section 4.2.4). Hati made her stance much more explicit in the following account:

> *Excerpt 52:* Since I build on their answers, explaining lexical items in a great detail doesn't disturb me too much. The students tend to say bit by bit and I try to bring their contributions together. I try to clarify what the students want to say if there is something unclear. I try to build my own input on their contributions. Perhaps that's why I teach words without knowing how best to explain them clearly. If I planned everything beforehand the students might say 'oh I know this already' and I might explain the words without taking their contribution into account. But, I prefer to build on what students come up with.

Attaching importance to drawing lexical items from students seems to be largely related to her current students' proficiency level, specifically their strength in terms of lexical knowledge. Hati valued the contributions or explanations of lexical items made by the students. She considered it to be difficult to identify what the students already know without elicitation. Hati was apparently keen on eliciting synonyms which she highlighted in previous and recent lessons.

> *Excerpt 53:* If there is a synonym we have learnt previously, I would elicit or remind it. There's a belief that they make students confused, right? They should have known "insist" and "consist". Here what they needed to do was to use them correctly. You know, these words were in the INPUT lists. Also they saw them in their exam. In fact there is no problem if they have already seen them, or it's very difficult to distinguish really. On what criteria should we teach then? If we assume that they don't know the words they saw before our job becomes much more difficult.

Hati's use of elicitation served to revise the lexical items she predicted her students would already know. Since she concerned herself with eliciting the lexical items previously dealt with, she tended to make frequent references to exams and explicit vocabulary syllabus (i.e. "INPUT list") used in the prep school. That particular procedure had become an integral part of her teaching. Hati frequently made comments in favour of eliciting lexical items. Her adherence to elicitation is evident in her following statements:

> *Excerpt 54:* To save time teachers could simply write the words on the board and explain their meanings during pre-teaching in listening and reading. They may want to save time by just presenting the examples without elicitations.

This does not necessarily mean that she was not aware of the possible downsides of eliciting lexical items. Hati felt that elicitation could prove useful only if questions to be

directed at students are well-chosen. Furthermore, she made mention of its risks:

> *Excerpt 55:* Perhaps I do eliciting rather than pre-planned explanations because I want to identify what words they do know or what they do not know. I like to resort to eliciting as much from students as possible, but that works better with well-thought out questions, so if I am not to introduce the item myself I need to think of questions that SS can answer on their way to discover the meaning. There is some risk in elicitation. Students may say "outstanding" instead of "outrage". Or sometimes I may not hear the students' utterances as they say it very quietly. There are always responses given by students.

Hati perceived elicitation as being hazardous at times because students' utterances might hardly be heard and that they result in cross-associations, as is the case with Episode 13: *outstanding/outrage*. The same phenomenon was observed in Episodes including *affective-effective*; *ambition-ambiguity*; *competent-competitive*; *insist-consist*) (Appendix 4).

Episode 13: *outrage*

	*Context***:** Revision activity: Which words do you remember from yesterday?	
T	**Outrage?**	1
S1	extra-ordinary	2
S2	strong anger	3
T	strong anger, extreme anger	4

It is interesting to note that despite the fact that Hati considered that eliciting from students was a time consuming process (e.g. students' inaudible utterances), she strove to keep intact her belief in the pedagogical value of the use of elicitation in classroom. This highlights that her conviction about the deployment of elicitation and utilising students' existing knowledge seems to override her concerns about time constraints. Her strong belief in and commitment to elicitation seemed to lead her to disregard the contextual constraints.

4.2.2.7   Paying attention to synforms

Synforms – similar lexical forms- were not always transparent particularly when students came up with the L1 equivalent of the confused lexical item. In the illustrative Episode 14 *competent/competitive*, the students' responsive moves were accompanied by the English translation of L1 utterances presented in the italic typeface in brackets.

Episode 14: *competent/competitive*

	Context: T/F Statement activity after listening to a lecture	
T:	All of them should be **competent**. What was the meaning of competent by the way? If you are a competent... (5 sec) what does that mean?	1 2
S1:	<u>rekabetci</u> (*meaning competitive*)	3
T:	ahh no that is **competitive**. A competent person is somebody (5 sec) no reply from student. I didn't expect it would be the word you don't know. Did not we have this word before?	4 5
S2:	hae...<u>telafi</u> (*meaning make up or compensation*)	6
T:	(laughing) that is **compensation**. A competent person is a person who is good at what they are doing so if he is a manager a competent manager is a good manager a good-skilled manager. Or whatever you are doing is competent in tennis for example that means you are a good tennis player. OK whatever you are competent about you are good at it competency is you're being good at something. This means everybody in the team needs to be good at what they are doing. OK…so it was false.	7 8 9 10 11 12
T:	sentence 3 is false. Question 4	13
S:	true	14
T:	good	15

Although the target lexical item of this particular episode was *competent*, the interaction revolved around other words (*competitive* and *compensation* in line 4 and 7) which were of no direct relevance to the target lexical item. When asked whether she would treat concurrently these lexical sets (*competent/competitive*) which are identical in stem but different in suffix, Hati responded to this particular hypothetical question as follows:

> *Excerpt 56:* I would not compare "competent"-"competitive" because they don't have a relationship in terms of meaning, they don't share a common meaning anyway. If they had the same meaning, I would teach both of them you know, I wouldn't do the same when they have the same sound in common. If there is a synonym we have learnt previously, I would elicit or remind it. In the case of component and competitive, this can be seen as a one-off event. But in the case of "affective" and "effective", I would attract students' attention to them because they are frequently confused. I would prefer to treat those lexical items which consistently pose difficulty. It's important to be careful and see whether those lexical items were confused when we would do the same stuff.

4.2.2.8   Word formation

Word formation was one of the most ubiquitous practices observed in Hati's class. In a consolidation activity, for example, she attended to different forms of the lexical item *utter* in Episode 15.

Episode 15: *utter*

	Context: Vocabulary revision of the Input.	
T:	Adjective, It is a synonym of complete	1
S1:	[*no answer*]	2
T:	you don't know it?	3
S2:	opposite of what?	4
T:	doesn't look like you have… 10 seconds [time limit]	5
S:	**utter?**	6
T:	yes, utter is it clear? It may be a bit confusing if you look at the word form because it has a different	7
	meaning. When you utter words you say them, you verbalise or you express as an adjective this has	8
	two different meanings depending on which form you do … It is like *utter defeat*, *complete defeat*	9
	so you need to be careful about this. **Utter** and **utterly** have a very different meaning the same	10
	word but have different meanings.	11

It appears that Hati attached importance to the practice of word formation in the belief that this might help students clear up the confusion about different forms and senses of lexical items (line 7-11). This becomes apparent in her account below which she gave in response to Episode: *utter*:

> *Excerpt 57:* I think that's important, because we do emphasise word formation, but they need to be aware of these kinds of words that have different meanings in different forms. I think, otherwise they may get confused. I tried to do both, checking meaning while also drawing their attention to word form.

4.2.2.9   Treatment of lexical errors

Bearing in mind the issues detailed in sections 4.2.2.2 and 4.2.2.5, lexical errors dealt with in her observed classes were mostly related to co-occurrence restrictions and L1 interference (Episodes: *death diet**; *assertive-confident*; *deformity-distortion*; *maintain* to smoke*). Regarding Hati's choice of error correction strategy, she highlighted the necessity to explain the difference in meaning between two or more words if they were constantly mistaken for one another. One error Hati dealt with was related to *death diet*/hunger diet* in Episode 16.

Episode 16: *death diet**

	Context: The whole class was brainstorming on the topic of "Protest".	
T	What can be done to protest?	1
S1	riot	2
S2	strike	3
T	so public reactions could be riot or strike. What else could we add?	4
S3	uhm.. **death diet**	5
T	Yes that is a kind of strike is not it it is a hunger strike. You starve yourself to death unless you get what you want. People do protest because they are unhappy about something it could be political or social. Anything else would you add? OK what about HOW protests can happen?	6 7 8 9

Having reflected on the above episode where a student was unable to say 'hunger strike', she noted:

> *Excerpt 58:* Here I understood what she meant. I made sense of the situation because I did the same topic with another group. If I hadn't talked about the same thing with the other group [class] this could have been difficult to understand what she actually meant... or it could take some time to ask and understand what she meant by 'death diet'.

Hati made use of her knowledge of students and recent or ongoing classroom teaching experience. Her knowledge of a particular student, that this student does not abstain from making mistakes, enabled her to immediately understand what she meant by *death diet** (line 5) even though it was erroneously put. Her recent classroom teaching experience seemed to assist her in becoming alert to what students might intend to mean. It appears that her error correction practices centred mainly on linguistic aspects interlingual differences between L1 and L2 (particularly multiword units) rather than to lexis teaching techniques, type of activities or learner characteristics.

4.2.3 Relationship between beliefs and practices (Tensions)

In this section, I present the following tensions that Hati experienced in teaching lexis: time constraints in planning lexis teaching, importance of word meaning or task completion and teacher-centred vs. student-centred instruction. Concerning time constraints, Hati viewed her sketchy planning in a positive light because she believed this enabled her to act upon the difficulties of students as they arose rather than in a predetermined fashion. She subscribed to elicitation techniques although she considered it to be time-consuming.

Excerpt 59: It is necessary to think about how to teach words and have quick notes before class but time would not allow for this. This requires time and commitment.

There were occasions when Hati gave unsolicited explanations of the difference between words despite the fact that she said she would do it only when the students requested her to do so. She thought it was necessary to think about how to teach words prior to the classes; nevertheless, this was something she could not realise due to variation in students' lexical knowledge, her tight schedule and other managerial responsibilities (i.e. duties that she needed to fulfil as a course leader of intermediate group). This is evident in her following statements:

Excerpt 60: I think I usually try to give them a sense of a situation or a context but I see now that this is very vague, more specific contexts would be more useful, I think. I guess a lot of this is due to the fact that we don't really have enough time to prepare thoroughly enough for lessons, a lot of my teaching is mapped out roughly before class and happens in a rather spontaneous way. That's why I can't think of good examples on the spot.

Importance of word meaning or task completion is another tension between Hati's beliefs and practice. Teacher-centredness seemed to be evidenced by the emphasis she placed on the importance of establishing links or sense relations between lexical items in the form of associations such as synonyms and antonyms. Her explanations were lengthy at times particularly when she concerned herself with the comparisons of L2 words to highlight the shades of meanings of lexical items. Hati emphasised semantic aspects of lexis saying that "it is more important to get the meaning right even if they get the task wrong". It seems that her concern with the explanation of the meaning of lexical items seemed to supersede the importance she attached to the completion of an activity. She believed that key words which she considered to be vital to comprehending a given text needed to be fully explained. Hati was not always be able to act upon her stated belief in their observed classrooms, though. Teacher-centred vs. student-centred instruction or the role of teachers and students seems to be yet another area where there was some incongruence between her beliefs and practice.

Excerpt 61: No matter how much I speak, the lesson is teacher-fronted. But here everything I say is coming from my mind or do I incorporate what students initiate and elaborate on it. So to me, that's something different. Students also have a control mechanism but anyway it is me who's explaining. If a student said something wrong, I shouldn't be misguiding him and shouldn't immediately confirm what he said.

The reason could be explained by the fact that teachers' input intended for the development of lexical knowledge overlapped with the actual content of the Units in the coursebook (Episode: *dilemma* appeared in Unit: Psychology; Episode: *picket signs/picket lines* appeared in Unit: Protest). Although Hati expressed the desirability of longer student responses ("It would have been better if he could explain it [a word] further"), she felt that the student's answer was understandable and adequate:

> *Excerpt 62:* No problem if 'mount up' is understood. That's ok. It would have been better if he could explain it further. You know, this expectation might be high expectation. He knew the meaning of something unknown and he was trying to describe it. There's no problem as long as what he says can be understood, so I think this is not that 'frustrating'.

This suggests that Hati's concerns about comprehensibility of students' output seemed to supersede that about the need to utilise students' knowledge as much as possible.

4.2.4 Contextual factors

Regarding the role of the teacher and students in lexical instruction, Hati expressed her belief in the importance of utilising students' present knowledge.

> *Excerpt 63:* I have some pretty strong students, so it's good to give them a bit of something extra once in a while.

She seemed to have an overarching belief which is not exclusively related to lexical pedagogy but to classroom instruction in general. Hati thought that classroom instruction might turn into a teacher-fronted teaching unless she drew on the students' own lexical knowledge:

> *Excerpt 64:* The students' vocabulary repertoire is quite rich. Even some students are better. This is quite good because they [students] can teach one another rather than me teaching them all the time.

Hati believed that her students could engage in peer-teaching, which she considered would minimise the amount of teacher talk. She expected her students to teach one another, assuming that the students would know different lexical items:

> *Excerpt 65:* rather than giving a word, getting them [students] to explain encourages thinking differently.

What underlies such expectation might be that encouraging students to explain lexical items to their peers would generate a wide range of ideas amongst learners in the classroom. This implies that students would reveal their individual and unique experiences during lexis-focused interactions. Hati's comments were also related to her lexis teaching style about which she said:

> *Excerpt 66:* Explaining a word in a linear fashion is not my style as I don't want the instruction to be teacher-fronted. At least, this shouldn't be the case with intermediate level. Perhaps this could work with the basic level group of students who haven't got many resources available. I think students' current knowledge should be exploited at the intermediate level.

Hati's opinion about the strength of her students with intermediate level of English was that her current students were capable of teaching each other. Responding to individual students' queries about a lexical item by involving the whole class seemed to reflect her belief that students' collective resources should be drawn upon during the treatment of lexis in classroom.

It is worth noting that Hati's response regarding the use of the lexical item *confrontational* seems to suggest that her preoccupation with "extra" is not limited to the significance of satisfying the intellectual curiosity of her strong students.

> *Excerpt 67:* It is the students who asked the words "generate" and "confrontationally". Assuming that they studied before the class, I asked them if they have any problems. Perhaps I tried to clarify what kinds of things can be confrontational. Either a condition or approach can be confrontational; I don't know perhaps an attitude can be confrontational. Apart from that, it seems I haven't done much about it here.

Hati also concerned herself with the characteristic of this particular lexical item which lent itself to further explanations about its use in various contexts (i.e. that the adjective *confrontational* can co-occur with the words like 'people' and 'situation'). These instances indicate that she took into consideration both lexis-specific and learner-specific factors.

Hati expressed satisfaction with the overall strength of her students which led her to provide "extra" lexical input to them in the sense of both breadth and depth of lexical knowledge. This additional lexis-related information was provided upon the students' request or at the teacher's own discretion. Hati used the expression "giving something

extra" on occasions when she introduced lexical items that were not directly related to the input to which students were exposed during skill-work and when she focused on various aspects of lexical items provided during the lexis-focused activities. This seems to reinforce the idea that Hati tended to treat several lexical items at a time (e.g. Episode 12: *assertive/aggressive*; Episodes: *deformity-distortion*; *divert/deviate/distort* in Appendix 4) and where she gave students "extra" information about lexical items she considered to be useful for the students (e.g. polysemy, stress, part of speech, and phonetic transcription).

Hati made frequent references to the influence of strong students on her instructional decisions relating to unsolicited provision of lexical items and concomitant explanations. She talked positively about her students individually and collectively:

> *Excerpt 68:* You know this shows she knows what the word means. Even, she came up with its 'synonym' ["mount up"]. This also shows she has a good background. I'm lucky to have this class because at least one student knows the words I teach. When I asked 'anyone who doesn't know this word?', it is quite rare that nobody knows the word [...] She [student named Gulcin] couldn't remember the word 'bribe' and her friends helped her out. So, she tried to say there's corruption, she didn't give up. Gulcin is a student who can take risks. When she is stuck, either me or her friends help her out but somehow she can express herself. To me, this is something good.

> *Excerpt 69:* She usually tries hard and has a positive attitude, she's a good model for what we'd like our students to be like- she struggled trying to remember the right word, rather than admitting defeat.

Hati's assumption that at least one student would come up with the answer reflects her degree of confidence in her students and her relative optimism about her students' memory. It was the students' profile or characteristics that motivated her to use elicitation. Underlying the strength of her students seems to be the role of individual variation, particularly different level of vocabulary size. Confidence in the students' resources (when providing a lexical item needed by another learner and explaining the meaning of an item and correcting each other's lexical errors) might have implications for classroom decision making. For example, Hati's making use of students' own lexical knowledge might decrease the planning time and determine the extent to which she made use of elicitation and preclude her from providing students with structured and accessible lexical input.

It is also worth mentioning that Hati tended to re-direct students' individual queries about lexical items to the whole class as she thought she could find another student who could give the answer. Hati wanted to show the students that she was not the only source of knowledge in the classroom and students themselves could contribute to the class by sharing their own existing knowledge. Her statement that "I teach words without knowing how best to explain them clearly" suggests she favours interactionally-modified input rather than pre-modified input. The following field notes in my research journal detail her tendency as follows:

> *Excerpt 70:* At intermediate level, Hati wanted to take the students' potential to advantage of the whole class. She also said at least one student would know the meaning of a lexical item in the class. It was rare that she explained the words to the students individually (Episode: *medically-assisted suicide* being the exception); she often explained words to the whole class unless students knew what those words mean. What implication might this type of explanation have for the classroom practices? It is, indeed, worth thinking about this.

Her attitude may be underpinned by her view that more able students hold expectations of some elaboration and challenge, which is why her explanations were intended mainly for strong students as opposed to for the whole class. However, this does not necessarily mean that she ignored other students who were relatively weaker. In an instance when Hati summarised the two students' interaction about the meaning of the concept 'dilemma' in Episode 17, her comment on this particular instance is this:

> *Excerpt 71:* This is an attempt to wrap things up and this may have gone untidy so the rationale was to repeat and round things off. A student may get lost at some point when I explain stuff.

Episode 17: *dilemma*

	Context: Some dilemmas were discussed in relation to the topic of morality.	
T	The whole unit is about morality and different forms of it. When does it happen we have to think about? What is right and what is wrong. In what kind of situations do we have this feeling?	1 2 3
S	conflict?	4
T	yes some sort of a conflict or are you confused about something	5
S	lie about something	6
T	a more specific example may ne lying about something OK actually you can put these two together lying conflict you know what dilemmas are don't you?	7 8
S	yes	9
T	Can you tell me what ***dilemma*** is?	10
S	there are two opposite sides erm…we can't decide which one to choose	11
T	yes so…	12
S	but they don't have to be opposites	13
T	OK… so they don't have to be opposite so there're two possible forms of acting what if you do one or you do another in both cases there may be both advantages or disadvantages not one advantageous way of doing it there are different possible outcomes so A and B. What I want you to do is have a look at the page 61. Erm…We have a couple of examples of dilemmas here (referring to the coursebook).	14 15 16 17 18 19

By wrapping up the explanations about the lexical item made at the beginning of the Unit (Psychology), Hati also wanted to provide an opportunity to those students who could not sustain their attention to lengthy explanations, assuming that some of them might get 'lost'. Her knowledge of curriculum (e.g. texts and materials) is evident in her following account:

> *Excerpt 72:* An interesting example came from a student, which I didn't expect at all to be honest with you. This example is about constructing a building in Taksim [a province in Istanbul], I am not sure how he remembered such an example. He might have come up with this example from the situation in Taksim regarding the argument about whether a tall building would block the view of Bosphorus in Istanbul. […] It was Baris [student] who mixed up "ambition" and "ambiguous". I shouldn't have asked any questions about 'ambiguity'. He mistook the word 'ambiguity' for yeterli [= meaning: 'adequate']. We grouped the words on the board. The example came to my mind at this point. The students are familiar with the word, even they said they encountered this word in the second unit.

Hati expressed her contentment with the students' ability to remember lexical items they encountered in a previous Unit. It seems that her awareness of the student' prior knowledge enables her to speculate that the student's example might have come from a local issue (see Episode 11: *compromise*).

142

4.2.5   Summary of Hati's cognitions and practices

To summarise, Hati tended to explain lexical items she considered 'potentially difficult'. Exemplification, providing synonyms, giving clues, word formation and comparison of lexical items were among the most frequently used practices in her classroom. She also devoted attention to teaching collocations. This practice was influenced by her belief in the importance of offering extra and a range to the students who were strong in their vocabulary. Her motive behind offering range is not to accommodate individual learning needs of language learners, but mainly to compensate for her perceived lack of vocabulary game repertoire. It is also worth noting that she was aware of downsides of certain instructional techniques such as elicitation. She is a 'giving' teacher, in the sense that she supports the idea of providing as much lexical knowledge as possible (see section 4.2.3 for comments on her tension between having a student-centred and teacher-centred approach to lexis teaching). In terms of lexical knowledge, the major focus was on meaning (42%) followed by form (40%) and use (18%). Hati tended to provide a rich amount of information about lexical items, namely covering as many different aspects of lexical knowledge as possible.

Based on quantification of the episodes in which Hati dealt with lexis, the analysis of the classroom observation data showed that there were 41 FonL episodes in total throughout her observed lessons, only 2 of those being initiated by the learners. Hati seemed to allocate a substantial amount of classroom time to vocabulary revision activities such as vocabulary games in which students explained the lexical items to one another. Less than half of the episodes took place during pre/post listening (e.g. listening to a protest song, T-F statements), speaking (e.g. pair work in which students discuss dilemmas and the characteristics of a good team leader), pre/post-reading (e.g. brainstorming, comprehension questions, matching headings with paragraphs, combine the two halves of a quote and tell them what the quote suggests) and writing. 10 of the lexical items were treated incidentally. 12 episodes were coded as more than one lexical item, when the focus was not exclusive to one lexical item alone.

The analysis of the data suggested that lexis was treated in its own right more often than not, as is also evidenced by the fact that the vast majority of lexis came from the INPUT list (a part of the explicit vocabulary syllabus designed by the practising teachers equipped with the advice of curriculum developers) (see Appendix 7). Lexis-focused activities commonly used in Hati's classroom included vocabulary revision, fill-in-the-gap, association (synonym and antonym) make a sentence using a particular word, word formation, lengthy explanations of lexical items and categorising lexical items into negative, positive and neutral. Providing additional collocations, and summarising the lexical explanations made by the students were some of the other practices peculiar to Hati's teaching. This does not automatically mean that she subscribed to isolated lexical instruction all the time, nor does it mean that she dispensed with skills work and remained unconcerned with incorporating lexis into major skills of speaking, writing, reading and listening.

4.3   CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS

As mentioned previously, this section of cross-case analysis outlines the lexis teaching beliefs and practices common to both participants and as well as the areas in which they were different from one another. The key areas in which Raci and Hati share commonalities include student-centred teaching, and selection of lexical items. I will now focus on these similarities.

4.3.1   Shared cognitions and practices in teaching lexis

As can be inferred from their verbal commentaries and classroom discourse, the participating teachers, Raci and Hati, appreciated the value of teaching lexis during formal language instruction. Both teachers took a positive attitude towards their students in the sense that they believed that they were hard-working language learners. Apart from their opinions about their students, they held similar ideas about some of the dimensions of lexis teaching including the importance of repeating words (Hati) and dictionary definitions (Raci) and word use. Hati emphasised the value of supporting the students to use the lexical items encouraging them to build example sentences. Similarly, Raci espoused a belief in the need for providing more opportunities for students to use lexical items in spoken and written contexts. In terms of their classroom practice, both were observed to have implemented activities such as giving a clue, providing antonyms and synonyms, example

situations to contextualise the word, commenting on the difficulty of lexical items, comparing the difference between lexical items, asking the meaning of lexical items, and FonL *during*-reading comprehension.

Further similarities shared by Raci and Hati were that they both used attributive and evaluative statements about lexical items, particularly with reference to their difficulty, during SRI and observed classes. Analysing affixes of lexical items through word formation was a common practice in both teachers' lessons. They seemed to be very cognisant of student affect in that they attended to the feelings of students (see sections 4.1.4 and 4.2.4). For instance, Raci expressed her beliefs about the significance of considering students' affect in the context of warm-up, avoiding talking about topics like death and divorce, keeping a rhythm so as not to lose students, having a friendly competition, putting student at ease, and helping one another (peer-teaching). Likewise, Hati referred to the possibility of disheartening students while treating lexical errors and providing extra information about lexical items, particularly collocations, to get students intrigued or excited. Finally, both teachers' discourse of initiations revealed a pattern that they tended to use some example situations to introduce certain lexical items, some of which appeared in various Episodes.

Some of Raci's tensions between her cognitions and practices were internally inconsistent. Her internal tension was between her belief in the necessity of suggesting to the curious students that their questions would be answered later (deflecting) so that she could continue with the class and her belief in the value of students asking her questions about words in the class. This is expressed in her stated belief that it is good to be asked questions about words in the class.

Although the participants were in favour of student-centred teaching, the Episodes featured in their classrooms were dominantly pre-emptive and teacher-initiated, not reactive. Despite predominant occurrence of pre-emptive FonL, both Hati and Raci were enthusiastic about student-initiated lexical queries. It is interesting to note that shared cognitions in relation to student-centredness are also shared tensions as they both thought their way of teaching could have been more student-centred.

In relation to student-centred teaching, observational data suggests that both Hati and Raci were concerned with students' wants and expectations as they checked students' understanding and identified what lexical items students had difficulty with during activities. Expressing their dissatisfaction with teacher-fronted instruction, they considered that it was important to utilise students' existing resources and knowledge (e.g. students can teach each other) (sections 4.1.3; 4.1.4). Hati and Raci shared the belief that a teacher should not be seen as the direct source of knowledge. Both considered it to be important to utilise students' existing knowledge by promoting peer teaching.

However, despite their emphasis on the importance of peer-teaching, this technique rarely took place in their actual classroom practices. In terms of initiation of lexical items, in both participants' observed lessons, FonL episodes were predominantly teacher-initiated as opposed to student-initiated, either in the form of questions or explanations, didactically or conversationally. Raci had 7 student-initiated episodes in 33 episodes while Hati had only 2 student-initiated instances in 41 episodes. Raci holds that '… [t]here is knowledge in the classroom and teacher is not the direct source of knowledge'. However, Raci compared herself to a 'primary classroom teacher': "I'm more like a primary classroom teacher, in my previous job like facilitator and helper, encouraging them to learn. But here [in the prep school] I feel I'm a teacher, I'm teaching *at* them". Similarly, Hati expressed her trust in her students' lexical knowledge saying that "it is a quite rare case when nobody knows the word, after all, at least one student would have an idea about a particular word". Her perceptions of her students' strength led Hati to employ instructional techniques ranging from elicitation to giving clues to withholding answer (see Table 13). However, she admitted that it was she herself who did most of the explanation of lexical items though she cherished the idea that it would be better for students to explain vocabulary in greater detail rather than merely giving a couple of synonyms or antonyms. In short, the above descriptions seem to demonstrate the shared tensions in the manner in which they construe their roles they performed when teaching lexis in language classrooms.

Table 13: Comparison of frequencies of lexis teaching practices

lexis teaching practices	RACI	HATI
integrated approach to lexical instruction	√√	√
isolated approach to lexical instruction	√	√√
comparison of L2 items	*	√
use of definitional explanations	√	*
use of word formation activities	*	√
coverage of lexical knowledge e.g. constraint on use; concept	*	√
focusing on lexis during *while*-reading, *post*-reading, and grammar	√	*
elicitation	*	√
providing additional collocates	*	√
focusing on more than one word sequentially at a time in one episode (WWW)	*	√
using a word in a sentence	√	*
arriving at a particular word from an example situation (i.e. offering unplanned vocabulary learning opportunities)	*	√

√√: observed more frequently √= observed frequently *= limited occurrence or not observed at all.

Regarding selection of lexical items for instruction, Raci saw no need for elaborating on lexical items saying that "we don't dwell on words off-topic we stick to the ones related to the topic". She nevertheless found herself dealing with those lexical items. She justified her classroom behaviour by referring to prior lessons which she thought bore some sort of relevance. Similarly, although Hati articulated the belief that "If a word is not directly related to the main topic of a text there may no need to elaborate on it", she focused on the lexical items which have no immediate relevance. The participants' beliefs in choosing lexical items related to the topic of the texts contrast with their beliefs pertaining to the importance of establishing links between lexical items. This set of beliefs point to the continuum of core and peripheral beliefs where their belief in the importance of making connections between lexical items is stronger than that of relating the relevant lexical items to the subject of a given text. Although both Hati and Raci wanted to stick closely to the content and context of the listening/reading texts without side-tracking, they could not help explaining some lexical items which had no direct relevance to the understanding of the texts. Their shared tension as to whether or not to elaborate on lexical items was due partly to the influence of 'lexisperience' on their practice (see section 5.2).

4.3.2 Different cognitions and practices in teaching lexis

The timing and nature of episodes identified in the teachers' classes was different. A salient practice featured in Raci's classroom was when she provided or elicited a particular word that fit the example or situation talked about. She also felt the need to focus on words in the task instructions (e.g. Episode: *excerpt*) by asking her students whether they knew the meaning of those words. Besides, some of the instances where Raci treated lexical items were what I described as 'WWW (word-within-word) episode' (e.g. *dub/epidemic*) where more than one lexical item received attention by the teacher. However, Hati's episodes where she treated several lexical items are largely concentrated on semantically-related words. I will now proceed to touch upon other dimensions of their lexis teaching cognitions and practices where they diverged.

4.3.2.1 Integrating lexis into skills work

The fact that the participants acknowledged the importance of lexis in language learning and teaching does not mean that they had identical beliefs about all dimensions of lexis teaching. The teachers had similar isolated lexis teaching practices but they differed in the way they integrated lexis into skills of speaking, listening and reading. Despite similar choice of activities, they differed in the frequency with which they made use of lexis-focused activities. The participating teachers varied mostly in the way they incorporated lexis into skills areas and in timing and phases of lesson where they dealt with lexical items. For example, Raci taught lexis in almost all phases of skills-focused work while Hati dealt with lexical items on two occasions only at pre-reading stage (see Table 14).

Table 14: Activities employed by the participants while integrating lexis into skills work

Phases of integration	RACI	HATI
Pre-listening	-Read out the dictionary definitions of keywords in the book	-Discussion -T/F Statement
Post-listening	-Revising the words in the lecture they listened to the day before	-Comprehension questions
Pre-reading	-Read out the dictionary definitions of keywords in the course book -Task instructions	-Asking the synonyms for a word -Matching headings with paragraphs
While-reading	-Read out an extract in the coursebook	*none*
Post-reading	-Read out a sentence from T-F comprehension questions	*none*
Speaking	-Telling an anecdote -Group presentation	-Commenting on moral dilemmas -Brainstorming on a concept
Writing	-Filling in the chart about personal information	-Combining the two halves of a sentence

Raci felt responsible for developing other skills such as discussion and listening as she deemed this quite an important part of EAP teaching. The avoidance or deferral of FonL at times despite students' requests might be explained by the intolerance of digression on the part of the teachers (see Episode 6: *ironic-arrogant*). This necessitates prioritising skills over vocabulary development. For Hati, vocabulary became a focus in its own right and a springboard to smooth task completion. As far as the contextual conditions are concerned, in the preparatory school where Hati was working, explicit attempts were made towards the development of vocabulary (e.g. the INPUT lists which showed useful lexical items) whereas in Raci's school, the situation was quite different as she did not have the flexibility, or indeed luxury, to allocate a substantial amount of classroom time to lexis teaching.

Overall, they employed both isolated and integrated vocabulary instruction and they were often pre-emptive in their approach to lexis teaching (see Table 13 and Table 14 above). Hati's approach seemed to be more pre-emptive than Raci's. In terms of major types of vocabulary instruction, in Raci's class 18 'integrated vocabulary' episodes and 15 'isolated vocabulary' episodes were identified, while 10 'integrated vocabulary' episodes and 31

'isolated vocabulary' episodes were identified in Hati's class. Preponderance of isolated FonL episodes in Hati's class stands in contrast to Raci's class where she occasionally treated lexical items in isolation from skills-work. Specific activities, both shared and different activities, carried out by the participants are listed in Table 15.

Table 15: Ways of integrating language focus into skills work (After Borg and Burns, 2008)

Forms of integration	Description
Lexis in preparation for skills work (pre)	-focusing on lexis to prepare students for subsequent skills work
Lexis after skills work (post)	-focusing on lexis to follow up skills work
Reactive focus on lexis (during)	-focusing on lexis in response to errors, questions and difficulties which arise during skills work

4.3.2.2 Self-perceptions

With regard to self-perceptions of PCK related to lexis teaching, the participants expressed various aspects of their work. Lexis and grammar knowledge and anticipation skills were the issues Raci referred to her confidence and ability and lack thereof. Regarding lexis and grammar knowledge, she expressed her lack of confidence in dealing with some aspects of teaching lexis comparison between the nature of lexis teaching and that of grammar teaching:

> *Excerpt 73:* I mean it can go off in different areas but generally not vocabulary learning goes off topic … because I can pull the vocabulary back especially those words which are strange. Grammar does go off topic sometimes but you have to pull it back. Overall vocab is OK. In vocabulary, you can explain the words very quickly and move on and pull it back.

> *Excerpt 74:* It's easier to get vocabulary back on track because when students ask about new words and different words you can explain them, write them on the board and then go back to where the chain started. However, if you're teaching grammar and a student asks about a different rule, once you start explaining this different rule it takes time and then more exceptions might arise so getting grammar back is harder. It takes more time to explain grammar rules.

Raci felt that it was easier to 'pull the vocabulary back' by providing them with quick definitions. On the other hand, she felt uncertainty about her knowledge about grammatical features of the lexical item *puncture*.

> *Excerpt 75:* I got confused by the word 'puncture'. Puncture...I do know that I had a puncture. I got confused to be honest with you completely honest I'm rubbish when it comes to difference between adjective when things passive. It's sometimes students say

150

that's passive. Is it an adjective or passive? I get…erm... I don't know, my knowledge of what is passive is not one hundred per cent so I get confused so sometimes –*ed* word like punctured. The wheel was punctured, is it passive or adjective?

As for Raci's her perceptions of anticipation skills, she expressed her ability to predict potentially problematic points of lexical items:

Excerpt 76: To be honest, when I was planning, I never anticipate. Probably I should, maybe that's something I never developed so it has nothing to do with time. I haven't even thought.

When asked to elaborate on what she actually meant by her statement "I never anticipate" in a follow-up email interview, Raci replied:

Excerpt 77: [W]hat I meant here was that during planning I don't think "hmmm at this point in the lesson the students might ask me a question about blah blah word" or "students might be confused about blah blah point". I don't anticipate the parts in the lesson that students might ask questions about. I think this would be a positive thing to do. If I were to anticipate points where students may become confused, then I could prepare a strategy to focus more on that section of the lesson.

Such explanation of the intended meaning of her above statement suggested that Raci had a favourable opinion about anticipation even though she admitted that it was not something in her mind during her lesson planning. There was an absence of anticipation of the learners' confusion with lexical items. Raci also found it hard to elicit academic words since they are characterised by multiple meanings. She was aware of the drawbacks associated with providing clues, synonyms and homograph. Although she did not find much value in providing L1 lexical items she realised that it was sometimes useful and helpful to do so.

As for Hati's self-perceptions, she complained about teacher-fronted teaching and her provision of examples, each of which will be illustrated in turn. Her major discontent was with teacher-fronted instruction. Hati also conceded that she had a poor vocabulary game repertoire and that it took too much time to set up a vocabulary game. She expressed her awareness of pitfalls in using elicitation to teach lexical items. Despite her frequent use of instructional techniques such as elicitation, asking various questions to double-check students' understanding, giving clues (i.e. withholding correct answer for a while, not

giving the answer immediately; see Episode: *affective*) (see Appendix 4), she seemed to be dissatisfied with dominating the discourse whilst teaching lexis.

4.3.2.3 Digression from lesson plan

One of the emergent tendencies in relation to lexis pedagogy is tolerance for digression which pertains to teachers' decisions as to whether an explanation of lexical items will break up the flow of the lesson. Perceived digressions are concerned with the way in which teachers treat lexis within the context of communicative activities. Hati and Raci tended to interpret digressions (the instances in which the teachers detract from the actual content focus) differently, leading to varying degree of their tolerance for digression. Raci focused mostly on the lexical items presented and glossed in the course book (*Excerpt 7*). She would find it adequate to cover the lexical items in the course book. Raci seemed confident she could explain the words very quickly and then move on and 'pull the vocabulary back'. Raci's expression of "pulling vocabulary back" points to her unwillingness to elaborate lexical items by providing additional information about these items (*Excerpt 3* and *5*). This also reveals her belief that the teacher should stay fairly close to a pre-decided lesson plan. However, Raci felt more confident in her ability to deal with spontaneity or unexpected moments of lexis teaching. In contrast, Hati did not rely simply on the course book as a source of lexical input (*Excerpt 40*). Compared to Raci, Hati seemed more flexible in the sense that she allowed the lesson to go in different directions due to students' queries about lexis. Hati perceived 'off-track' instances as "a diversion in the right direction" ("a student thought 'effective' means 'verimli', a Turkish lexical item meaning "efficient").

Raci's particular individual students had a substantial influence on the direction of the lesson, and she attributed digression to a specific individual student (see section 4.1.8). Perhaps, the fact that school contextual factors have different degrees of influence on the teachers' cognitions and practices highlights the way in which 'time', as a perceived limitation, impinges on teachers' planning and interactive decision-making. For example, Raci's student N challenged her at times, to such an extent that 'his queries could take the class in a new direction" and she had to 'wrestle with him to get control back' (see *Excerpt 34*). This made her more alert to lexical queries asked by students, which in turn led her to allocate extra time for lesson preparation. It should be noted, however, that Raci did display

a moderate degree of resistance to addressing certain lexical items instigated by individual students as she delayed these lexical queries to a later time. This finding seems to contrast with some of the teachers in the study by Woods (1996:229) who displayed a readiness to go wherever the students took them.

4.3.2.4 Providing lexical knowledge

The findings revealed that the teachers have different sets of beliefs about lexis teaching. Despite their positive attitude towards their students, they have distinct approaches in terms of the amount of lexical input to be provided to students. Teachers' views diverge on the extent to which aspects of lexical knowledge should be elaborated on. Apart from pedagogical questions about vocabulary (e.g. how to teach lexis; which lexis to teach; how vocabulary should be practiced), quantity of lexical input, which can be formulated as *how much* to teach about lexical items, appeared to be an important aspect of lexical instruction. The implications of this for lexis pedagogy will be discussed in detail in section 6.1.1.

Regarding the provision of something extra about lexical items and focusing on several aspects of lexical items at a time, Raci was in favour of providing simple explanations in preference to exceptions as she believed that too much information would result in learning overload (*Excerpt 5*). Such a tendency seems to have been shaped by her prior teaching experience in a private language school and personal life experience as a girl-guide and mentor (see section 4.1.4). In contrast, Hati felt that extra information about lexical items should be given due partly to student-initiated queries. Her focus was more student-oriented as she took into account the needs of strong students who expected elaboration on particular items. Hati's belief pertaining to lexis and students' queries seemed to supersede her belief in the need for following the lesson plan. Perhaps that is why, unlike Raci, Hati was engaged with semantic comparison of lexical items in order to highlight their subtle shades of meanings. Hati emphasised the value of establishing links elaborately between lexical items (negative-positive connotations). Her emphasis on making connections was borne out in her classroom practices in the form of elaboration of meaning associations by focusing on synonyms and antonyms and by relating content to students' individual lives. Hati's emphasis on the importance of taking into account the needs of strong students seems to set her apart from Raci who disfavours the idea of providing something extra.

Hati's view is that it is necessary to give strong students something extra while Raci thinks that she should suggest to curious students that their questions be dealt with later to avoid disruption.

4.3.2.5   Instructional techniques

Classroom observation data indicated that Raci employed instructional techniques such as making use of visualisations and reading out the dictionary definitions of keywords in the coursebook. Hati, on the other hand, was not observed to have used these techniques; instead, her favoured instructional technique was summarising students' explanations. In their verbal commentaries, Raci and Hati espoused some ideas that reflected their beliefs about instructional strategies such as elicitation and exemplification. Raci found it difficult to elicit academic vocabulary partly because of the nature of academic lexis (e.g. polysemy and homographs). She made minimal use of elicitation, which was something she ascribed to the nature of the EAP setting in which things need to move faster compared to the private language school context where she used to teach. Regarding contextual influences on the teachers' cognitions and practices of lexis teaching, it is interesting to note that Hati's deeply-held belief in elicitation as a technique seemed to lead her to suspend her belief about time limitations. It is interesting to note her commitment to elicitation seemed to be one of her unique characteristics entrenched in her teaching style. Hati was keener than Raci when it comes to using elicitation as an instructional technique although the former admitted that it could be a time-consuming endeavour.

As for exemplification, Hati mentioned both ease and clarity, implying her concerns about quality of language input she provided. Regarding the nature of example sentences, she often provided examples that were mostly related to students' life and current events (see Episode: *compromise*). Hati emphasised the significance of providing a specific situation to illustrate the way in which lexical items can be used. By providing a specific situation, she referred to a very relevant situation which might have an immediate impact on students' understanding rather than providing poorly-chosen several examples. Having expressed her dissatisfaction with her choice of examples at times, Hati attached importance to giving accessible and comprehensible to students.

In terms of the content of examples, Raci believed that she should avoid talking about topics like death and divorce, a belief influenced by previous teaching experience. She preferred to give more examples when one example did not work. Her unreal examples or scenarios, on occasions, caused some confusion on the part of students who responded to the actual content of her examples (see Episode: *anxious*). Raci talked about the need for providing relevant examples to illustrate lexical items. Admitting what she called 'subjective bias', her examples were often about her life and experience in terms of content to clarify and contextualise word meanings by giving examples from her family members (e.g. Episode: *multitask* in Appendix 4).

Both participants made reference to giving examples which range from phrases to sentences within the context of teaching lexical items (Episodes: *confrontational; lower-fall*). Although the teachers agreed that exemplification helped them set up a context to illustrate word meanings, they were concerned with different dimensions of exemplification in teaching lexical items. Both teachers tended to use exemplification as a technique through which they provide sentences to show how to use it, particularly on occasions where they felt that definitions of lexical items were not found satisfactory by their students. This kind of exemplification was not necessarily limited to showing grammatical usage of a lexical item, but it could also involve distinguishing semantic differences, be they intralingual comparison (L2-L2 or L1-L1) or interlingual comparison (L1-L2 or L2-L1) of lexical items. However, the provision of lexical knowledge in Hati's case also involved focusing on constraints on use, providing additional collocations and categorising lexical items.

4.3.3   Summary

In summary, the participating-teachers' similar attitude towards their overall teaching of lexis and selecting lexical items for instruction is one of the key insights which emerge from the cross-case analysis. The exploration of the two teachers' classrooms revealed both different and common practices. Regarding practising lexis, asking the meaning of lexis and having students build a sentence with the target lexical items are the procedures that both participants followed during the teaching of lexis. These procedures seem to suggest that the participants made attempts to elaborate on as many aspects of lexical knowledge as possible. Concerning presentation of lexis, most of its elements are shared except for

clueing and definitional dictionary glosses or explanations. The former was more dominant in Hati's class while the latter in Raci's class. What appeared to be unique to these teachers is that Hati tended to provide additional lexical items which co-occur with the target lexical item, whereas Raci would explain lexical items that came up in the instructions of some activities. Their distinct and common lexis-related practices are summarised in Table 16.

Table 16: Distinct and shared practices of lexis teaching in Hati's and Raci's classes

RACI	HATI
Lexis-related practices unique to each participant	
Reading out the dictionary definitions of keywords in the coursebook	Categorising words into negative and positive
Making use of visualisations	Focusing on synforms
While and *post*-reading activities	Focusing on lexis in pre-emptive fashion
WWW episode (e.g. *dub/epidemic*)	Providing additional collocations
Explaining lexical items in the task instructions	Incorporating students' input into her talk or summarising what students say and relating it to the content
Shared practices carried out by both participants	
1. Presenting lexis: • brainstorming • repeating her own sentence • providing antonyms and synonyms • writing words/sentences on the board • example situations to contextualise the word • commenting on the difficulty of lexical items • comparing the difference between lexical items • giving a clue (*Note:* more dominant in the case of Hati) • providing definitional explanation (*Note:* more dominant in the case of Raci) *2. Practising lexis:* • word formation practice • asking the meaning of the word • checking previously-taught words (revision) • having students make a sentence using the word	

5   DISCUSSION

The present study explored two EAP teachers' cognitions and practices in relation to the teaching of lexis as it took place in actual classroom settings. This chapter discusses the key findings presented in the preceding chapter. Interpreting these findings led to the identification of broad domains of teacher cognitions about the nature of lexis, teaching lexis and contextual influences on teachers' cognitions and practices such as students' characteristics. Overall, this resonates with Johnson's (2009:10) contention that "usable knowledge in teaching requires knowledge about oneself as a teacher, about the content to be taught, about students, about classroom life, and about the contexts within which teachers carry out their work". Worth noting is that the emergence of similar themes, however, does not necessarily mean that the participating teachers hold identical beliefs. Therefore, an attempt has been made to present the data in such a way that ensures that the practitioners' perspectives are foregrounded, as highlighted in the Methodology chapter.

The research questions investigated in this study are framed under three major headings: 1) cognitions in teaching lexis, 2) practices in teaching lexis, and 3) relationship between cognitions and practices. In the following sections of this chapter, I will discuss the main points such as the participating teachers' views on selecting lexical items, provision of lexical knowledge, integration of lexis and skills teaching, and self-perceptions about lexis teaching. I will then address the connection between their cognitions and practices referring to contextual factors. The way in which teachers' pedagogical choices intersect with these factors will be discussed with reference to students' characteristics in particular.

5.1   Cognitions in teaching lexis

This section addressed the research question: What cognitions do the EAP teachers at the preparatory schools of private universities in Turkey hold about L2 lexis teaching? In response to this particular question, it is worth noting that neither of the teachers in the present study adopted the 'vocabulary takes care of itself' approach, an idea postulated as the "default hypothesis" (see Laufer, 2005b, 2006). Their beliefs and practices partly overlap with the pre-service trainee teachers who mentioned vocabulary learning as a goal

in Macalister's (2012:106) study, though they do not agree that learning a foreign language is mostly a case of learning a lot of new words. On the contrary, both participating teachers seemed to assume responsibility for their students' lexical development as they ensured that revisiting of some previously-taught lexis became a part of their classroom teaching.

It appears that teachers' selecting lexical items to be presented were by no means limited to, but rather went beyond the criteria of frequency oft-cited in the literature which suggests time is well spent on high-frequency words (McCrostie, 2007; Newton and Nation, 1997). Frequency was not deemed by the participants to be the sole criterion for the selection of the lexical items to teach during formal instruction. One explanation could be that high frequency lexical items would hold little face value for language learners. Another explanation is that those teachers who were concerned themselves with addressing learner needs might have given a higher priority to those items which required specific kinds of treatment such as comparison and contrast, derivational processes, and collocability than to traditional selection criteria (Ooi and Kim-Seoh, 1996). This echoes Coxhead's (2008:152) point that "what is frequent in one academic text, subject area or realm of use in academic setting may not be so in another" and that "some items highlight several difficulties with selecting phraseological items for teaching using frequency alone". This point also resonates with Barcroft *et al.*'s (2011:573) idea that "frequency is only one of many lexical characteristics that affect the process of retrieving words from the lexicon".

There is also evidence to suggest that the participants were not always guided by academic concerns, as they used attributions about the lexical items such 'difficult' and 'important'. This supports Harlech-Jones (1983) who challenged the criteria used for assigning frequency counts to words because her evidence suggested that language learners committed fewer errors on less frequent words (e.g. *profit*) than more frequent ones (e.g. *rough*). This can be explained by the polysemous nature of frequent lexical items (Corson, 1997), an account that challenges the assumption that "easy" words refer to high frequency and "hard" words refer to low frequency. Since the AWL does not cover multiword units (Durrant, 2009; Hancioglu and Eldridge, 2007), single-item frequency cannot be the sole determinant of when and where a lexical item is presented during classroom instruction.

Apart from the lexis-specific criteria ('frequent' or 'academic'), the participating teachers drew on their knowledge about both previous and current students as they referred to the characteristics of individual students. The present study provided substantial evidence for the undeniable influence of individual 'word savvy' students who were curious about lexical items (see section 4.1). The participating teachers seemed to be willing to spend time on a lexical item which might be of personal relevance to their students. They emphasised the importance of self-expression in the choice of lexis. Worthy of mention here is that the teachers' evaluation of the students' strength, motivation, interest and receptiveness appears to influence the length of interaction and the amount of lexical input they provided to learners. That the participants had to deal with their students' unexpected queries about lexical items supports the results of previous research on teachers' decision making which indicates that unexpected student behaviour may be the most prominent antecedent condition of teachers' instructional behaviour (see Collie Graden, 1996; Dikilitas and Akcali, 2011; Johnson, 1992; Niu and Andrews, 2012).

The fact that teachers' selection judgement was also governed by some affective factors which manifested themselves in the form of attributions about certain lexical items seems to reinforce the idea of the idiosyncratic and unique characteristics of each individual's mental lexicon (see Dobinson, 2001; Thornbury, 2002). Indeed, "the learning and use of academic words is more difficult for some people than for others", a point reiterated by Corson (1997:700). The subjectivity inherent in selecting lexical items on the part of both teachers and students manifested itself in different ways. Hati's awareness of the distraction of students' attention during listening, for example, her intensive treatment of the lexical items (e.g. *picket signs* and *picket lines*) despite their minor significance to grasping the listening material and the instances where some students attempted to make a sentence using a particular lexical item provide grounds for these manifestations. Hati's concern about lexis in listening was an interesting one, considering that vocabulary was one of the factors cited by the majority of learners as a hindrance to listening comprehension (see Goh, 2000; Graham, 2006).

The participating teachers tended to make some arbitrary choices when it came to the selection of lexical items. Their personal theories about lexis teaching seemed to be shaped

by factors pertaining to task, context, students, and the nature of lexical items themselves (e.g. part of speech, semantic relations and perceived lexical difficulty). These determinants in tandem seemed to exert an influence on teachers' instructional behaviour to varying degrees, though the characteristics of perceived strength of particular individual students were more dominant. As Ellis *et al.* (2002:431) warn, refusing to deal with student-initiated lexical queries would 'antagonise' students. This therefore suggests the need for further research into students' cognitions about pedagogy, or 'meta-pedagogical awareness' (Block, 2000:96) and for the comparison between the students' views and that of teachers (Berry, 1997; Schulz, 1996), a point to be expanded on in section 6.1.

Both participating teachers expressed their views on the nature of academic lexis. A similarity shared by both participants was that they both used more attributions about lexical items during SRI than during observed classes. Particularly their shared attributions identified in observational data included 'difficult' and 'important', are consistent with the teachers working in secondary school classrooms in China (e.g. Li and Walsh, 2011). These attributions seem to echo the findings of research conducted in EAP programmes where difficulty and importance is often largely ascribed to academic lexis (e.g. Zhou, 2009). What Corson (1997) suggests in this regard is worth considering:

> Teachers of English need to be critically aware of these *negative attributes of academic words use* and think about changing their practices accordingly. They can do this best by not insisting on the use of these words when the context does not really justify that use. They can also do it by placing value on *learners' vocabularies*, even when they differ from the school's *academic vocabularies*. When a Graeco-Latin academic word in English suits the meaning of the moment, then its use really does help them to communicate meaning and to operate within the academic meaning systems of the culture of literacy (emphasis mine) (Corson, 1997:710).

The prevalence of idiosyncratic understanding of lexical difficulty also seems to accord with the principle that "instruction needs to take into account learners' 'built-in' syllabus" (Ellis, 2005:37). Relevant to this is Barker's (2007) questioning the idea of showing teachers how to select suitable words for a given group of learners based on judgements of the balance between learning burden and of the usefulness of a lexical item determined on the basis of frequency. The findings of the present study justifies his criticism that there is lack of attention awarded to these factors that make words easier or harder for different

individuals to learn at different times. The issue of involving students in vocabulary selection and the degree of teacher control is important given the language learners' tendency to choose unsuitable words that were of limited use or little personal interest, a concern raised by Nation and Moir (2008). For example, Barker (2007) reported an elementary level student's personal reasons for her interest in an apparently 'difficult' word like '*obnoxious*' (because she heard her host-mother using it to describe her host-brother and it made her laugh when she looked up the meaning in a dictionary). On the basis of the 'sentimental value' of lexical items, the present study supports Barker's (2007:530) conclusion that "gut feelings, first impression and an understanding that words which provoke some kind of emotional reaction will be easier to learn are all factors worth considering when making decisions about vocabulary". This requires teachers to have substantial knowledge about students.

One of the tentative speculations I made regarding the participating teachers' selection of lexical items is that both seemed to have had particular experience with some lexical items they taught in previous or current classroom(s). The phenomenon of lexisperience was also evidenced in teachers' attributes about lexical items as well as their views on students' characteristics, their motivation, receptiveness, and willingness to learn certain lexis. The term 'lexisperience' is deliberately general in that experience could relate to individual students' and teachers' language learning, language teaching or social encounters. One interpretation could be that teachers' prior exposure and experience with certain lexical items triggers their memory to the extent that it surpasses the content-related or skills-focused-related concerns. It is important to note that they did not perceive this as time consuming but rather they thought that it was valuable in its own right. The notion of lexisperience may explain these 'arbitrary' choices of lexical items, as driven by some sort of personal association. They seemed to make their instructional decisions on the basis of their own intuitions due partly to phonological or orthographical characteristics of certain lexical items. The present study tentatively suggests that lexisperience of classroom members can account for departures from the actual focus of a language lesson partly due to a strong triggering effect of some lexical items.

Both participants expressed positive opinions about their students' characteristics including their willingness to learn lexical items that arise incidentally, but they had different approaches towards lexis teaching, particularly towards the issue of how much lexical knowledge needs to be provided to students. Vanci Osam and Balbay (2004) reported that both groups of teachers in their study, novice and experienced, were frequently motivated by pupil expectations and modified their teaching activity according to pupils' directions. These departures from lesson plans are explained by a number of principles such as teaching to the moment and promoting students' involvement (Bailey, 1996). With specific reference to FFI, for example, there is evidence to confirm that the issue of deviations from the lesson plan can be attributed partly to level of teachers' confidence in their subject-matter knowledge, a characteristic shared by experienced teachers (see Basturkmen *et al.* 2004; Borg, 2003ab; Mackey *et al.,* 2004). The present study, however, highlighted the interrelationship between school context variables, students' levels of tolerance for ambiguity and teachers' levels of tolerance for digression that were shaped by their perceptions about the characteristics of lexical items such as importance and difficulty. Teacher cognition research views teachers' diversions from lesson plans and tensions associated with them as the outcome of the interaction between teachers' pedagogical choices and their perceptions of the students (Phipps and Borg, 2009).

The participants' practice of comparing L2 lexical items led to what I call 'WWW (word-within-word) episodes' which involved attention to multiple lexical items to varying degrees (not exclusive to just one lexical item). This resonates with what Musumeci (1996) refers to '*where did I come from?',* a routine she explains as the teachers' being "so enthusiastic in their response to a rare student-initiated request that their responses became quite long and involved". The WWW phenomenon implies the possibility that the teachers might have overestimated students' lexical knowledge. A similar observation made by Tsang (2004) whose informant, a pre-service teacher, was inclined towards overestimating her students' lexical knowledge and found some of her interactive decisions inappropriate.

In the present study, a typical example would be a case in which the teacher explained not only the target lexical item but also a word within her explanation or a word in task instructions provided by the teacher or coursebook. Revision episodes where previously-

162

taught lexical items became the focus of classroom discourse constituted isolated vocabulary instruction as opposed to integrated vocabulary instruction. Still, they were preselected, pre-planned and pro-active, not pre-emptive. In terms of distribution of attention, they were a mix of intensive and extensive as they also involved "a repetitive exposure to a single preselected linguistic feature as well as a non-repetitive exposure to numerous linguistic features within a single lesson" (Ellis *et al*., 2001:411). It is interesting to note that it was Raci who welcomed the idea of a separate class allocated only to vocabulary and who thought that lexis should not otherwise be the focal point of classroom teaching. On the other hand, Hati raised no such concerns for having an independent vocabulary class, although she taught most of the lexical items to varying degrees of contextualisation including word or phrase level.

The participants' differences in their priorities of isolated and integrated vocabulary instruction can be attributed to their views on the means-ends or top down-bottom up relationship between lexis and the four skills. This finding suggest that the teachers, arguably, have a complex beliefs structure for integration of lexis into teaching given that teaching lexis is closely related to teaching content and concepts which at times blurs the means-ends relationship between lexis and skills areas. As a result, some difficulty arouse in pinpointing whether some belief statements related to their understanding of language content or to pedagogical concerns that apply to other facets of language teaching more generally. For instance, the treatment of the item *dilemma* in which they exchanged information about the precision of this particular item illustrates a case of the blurring line between lexical knowledge and CK due to its being a technical term in psychology. This can be explained by the fact that vocabulary entails academic content relating to psychology. This is also the case with Kuzborska's (2011) study of Lithuanian EAP teachers some of whom viewed reading as a decoding process and focused on the teaching of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation which they believe can facilitate students' reading comprehension.

A complex set of beliefs can be explained by the nature and function of lexis in the language teaching curriculum. Such complexity seems to stem from the 'hierarchical relationship' between global events and sub-events taking place in language classrooms

(Woods 1996, 1997). This is closely linked to the hierarchical structure of a language lesson, particularly when this applied to the relationship between the FonL and the four skills. Elicitation of lexical items, for example, served as a lower level event to achieve a higher level event like reading comprehension and the latter event constituted the goal of the former event. It is the same relationship just looked at from the point of view of the higher to the lower and from the lower to the higher (Woods, personal communication, 23 Feb 2010). This manifested in teachers coming up with both global and specific rationales for their classroom practices. The need for addressing the four skills is a major concern for Raci, which resonates with Wette's (2009:350) observation that "clusters of units at lower levels of the framework (e.g. linguistic content such as vocabulary items) were almost always taught in service of upper-level global curriculum goals (e.g. macro-skills development)". A point worth being made here is that the teachers' choices related to task completion, and perceiving lexical items as being more important, or less important constituted their priorities. If task completion was the teachers' overriding priority, they would be less concerned with elaborating on the meaning of lexical items, a finding that echoes Tang and Nesi's (2003:79) statement that "the tight teaching schedule and the expected role of the teacher perhaps help explain why elaboration was not favoured".

One of the key findings of the present study is that the teachers concerned themselves more with the amount of lexical input to be provided to students (i.e. *how much* to teach) than with other pedagogical considerations (i.e. *how* to teach). This indicates different degrees of provision of lexical knowledge, a finding which adds to previously identified pedagogical concerns surrounding lexical instruction such as "why should teachers teach vocabulary?, which words should teachers teach?, and how should vocabulary be practiced?" (Folse, 2011:362).

The variation in the participants' beliefs and practices can be attributed to the fact that the participating teachers have different perceptions about the present and future value of a particular lexical item, a principle proposed by Nation (2004). Focusing on the future value of lexical items entails directing attention to other lexical items outside the context of a given input. This seems to explain the teachers' somewhat dissimilar tendencies towards how much information about lexical items needs to be provided to students.

A lexical item previously treated as an end may assist learners in comprehending texts with which they are expected to deal in the future. This is because, as Coxhead (2010:3) succinctly put it, "the importance of a word is for tomorrows' comprehension of a text". Perhaps, teachers might feel the need to go beyond semantic aspects of lexis as they address both immediate and future needs of language learners. They diverge from the view that a few words and a small part of what is required to know a word can be dealt with at any one time during classroom instruction (Nation, 2005b; Tang and Nesi, 2003). The challenge, then, might be to consider which particular aspects of lexical items require more attention and to select lexical items worth being focused on in the classroom.

The point raised by Raci about a lesson allocated exclusively to vocabulary resonates with one of Niu and Andrews' (2012:141) informants who also expressed the view that "students should ideally have a separate lexicology course, so that they could have real contact with vocabulary and feel the fun of learning word meanings and usage". This perspective reveals the view that a vocabulary class in its own right would allow for increased exposure to lexis and enjoyment with various aspects of lexical knowledge.

The participants' verbal accounts suggest that their self-perceptions have a bearing on different dimensions of their language teaching in general. Their self-perceptions about lexis teaching, lexical difficulty, and pedagogical difficulties seem to be interconnected. With reference to self-confidence about grammar and lexis, Raci admitted that she had difficulty distinguishing whether a lexical item was a passive verb or an adjective in a sentence in the handout given during her lesson. Raci found the idea behind the lexical item *irony* difficult and she also found it harder to spend time on vocabulary in prep school. She sometimes explicitly mentioned the gaps in her knowledge about language, particularly spelling and grammar, pointing to the relationship between cognitions about vocabulary pedagogy and other factors like her knowledge about language and educational background. In this respect, Raci differed from Tsang's (2004) participants who considered that committing mistakes and concomitant self-correction would reduce teachers' credibility. Raci also felt that she could pull the vocabulary back but not grammar, implying a sense of confidence in re-directing the focus back to pre-planned content of the lesson by deferring to a later time students' lexis-related queries and by her perceptions of

the importance of other priorities, specifically skills development such as presentation and discussion. In this respect, she bears similarity with one of Borg's (2001b) informants who displayed a more sophisticated PCK in the teaching of vocabulary, reading and writing compared to grammar. With respect to Hati's self-perceptions, she was self-critical of her poor repertoire of vocabulary games and not being able to give very relevant examples. Hati also doubted the quality of her choice of examples to illustrate lexis as she thought they resulted in being somewhat misleading and ambiguous. This is similar to Andrews and McNeill's (2005) conclusion that teachers' awareness of their limitations constitute a characteristic of the TLA of 'good' language teachers.

The teachers' self-perceptions and their beliefs about lexical difficulty seem to be intertwined. The point is that the perceived difficulty of learning and that of teaching some lexical items blurs at times, particularly during teachers' soliloquy, a monologic form of discourse in which a teacher talks as if to herself revealing some thoughts without addressing any student. The teachers observed in the present study made comments about difficulty of some lexical items using attributes such as 'difficult'. Similar comments uttered during teacher-student(s) exchanges seemed to lead to confusion on the part of learners. It is hard to predict students' vocabulary repertoire due to its inherent idiosyncratic nature, unlike grammar which is relatively more predictable as far as the level of interlanguage development is concerned. To put it differently, teachers may not be prepared to provide explanations of certain lexical items although these items are initially perceived to be 'easy' or 'common'. In the case of pre-service ESL student teachers in Tsang's (2004) study, for example, the reason for unplanned actions (e.g. making sentences to explain lexical items like *beard* and *complexion*) lay in their unpreparedness to provide detailed explanation.

The participating teachers' self-perceptions seem to reinforce M.Borg's (2001) comment on the evaluative nature of teachers' beliefs. Besides, the accounts of teacher cognitions and practices provided in the present inquiry seem to expand on S.Borg's (2001) and Sanchez's (2010) conclusion that even within one curricular area of ELT, teachers' perceptions about and confidence in their ability to use particular instructional techniques, most notably

exemplification and maintaining the students' attention on content, do vary a great deal. These insights have been succinctly summarised by Andrews (2007a):

> Given the fact that these limitations become apparent in relation to one area of knowledge about language (i.e. vocabulary), it may be that expertise within TLA has parallels with expertise in teaching more broadly. Just as, in teaching generally, teachers may be 'experts' in some aspects of their professional activity and not others (Tsui, 2003), so in relation to the handling of language content L2 teachers may exhibit greater expertise in some areas than others. In other words, the apparently 'language-aware' teacher may not in fact be equally aware, equally proficient (or indeed equally confident) across all the language systems (Andrews, 2007a:128).

The present study suggests that the participants had some doubts about their ability to make language input more accessible to learners as well as about the effectiveness and acquisitional value of some lexis teaching techniques. This applies to Zimmerman's (2005) participants who were native teachers whose knowledge about lexis was examined. It has been well documented that teachers tend to prioritise some of their teaching beliefs over others, leading to the core-peripheral belief spectrum (see Green, 1971; Phipps and Borg, 2009). Doubts are an important part of teachers' thinking. The process of reflection in teacher development, after all, is about enabling teachers to become aware of their doubts about both personal and public theories.

5.2   Practices in teaching lexis

This section responds to the second research question - How do the teachers approach lexis teaching in their classrooms? - with reference to their actual lexis teaching practices as well as to the characteristics of the practices including drawing attention to lexis pre-emptively and treating lexical errors.

Firstly, as mentioned previously, pre-emptive treatment is considered to be preventive as it is meant to address a problem students may encounter, whereas reactive treatment is seen to be remedial as it serves to treat actual problems. The teachers' pre-emptive tendency towards lexis teaching, which involves anticipating students' difficulty, can be explained by their concerns of covering the coursebook within a certain period of time. In the case of the participants involved in the present research, it seems that pre-emption largely pertained to their anticipation skills, predicting difficulty, and students' level of curiosity. These factors

might account for the variation in the teachers' belief systems and classroom practices. What emerges from this study is that despite predominant occurrence of pre-emptive FonL, Hati and Raci were enthusiastic about student-initiated lexical queries, a shared tension already discussed in section 4.3.

The fact that the participants had more teacher-initiated episodes than student-initiated ones does not mean that teacher-initiated episodes were necessarily didactic, non-conversational or non-negotiated exchanges between classroom members. Some of these episodes were conversational and interactional as opposed to didactic in nature. The fact that both participants in the present study were receptive to lexical queries stands in contrast with teachers in the New Zealand private language school context who taught international students in Basturkmen *et al.*'s (2004) study. Teachers in their study were unenthusiastic about student-initiated focus-on-form episodes as they preferred to treat them only when they perceived these initiations to be necessary for communication. Similar concerns have been raised by Ellis *et al.* (2002) in their inquiry into ways of "doing focus on form":

> Teacher pre-emption of form is probably the option most likely to disrupt the communicative flow. It tells the students that the teacher is really concerned about form rather than meaning. Also, the forms teachers pre-empt may not constitute actual gaps in the students' L2 knowledge. Nevertheless, there may be occasions when the teacher pre-empting form is useful (e.g. when students are planning a communicative activity) (Ellis *et al.*, 2002:431).

The participants' beliefs and practices in pre-emptive focus on lexis in a classroom environment contribute to the body of studies which provide detailed accounts, including frequencies and percentages of pre-emptive and reactive language-related episodes (e.g. Ellis *et al.*, 2001; Farrokhi *et al.*, 2008; Gholami and Farrokhi, 2008; Mackey *et al.*, 2004).

Thirdly, the findings suggest that there were a number of similarities in the teachers' treatment of lexical errors committed by students during formal classroom instruction. These commonalities concern their provision of feedback. It seems that treatment of lexical errors was one of the areas in which both teachers had inconsistencies between their espoused beliefs and observed practices. A possible explanation for the reason why they employed recasts less frequently might lie in the type of lexical errors they had to deal with in classroom interaction and in the procedures through which they carried out activities.

With regard to the former, especially students' phonological errors triggered teachers' immediate explicit feedback. As for the latter, these types of errors and feedback moves took place within the context of students reading out glosses and paragraphs in the course book. The near absence of self-correction implies that it was a low priority for the participating teachers. This tendency is distinct from Basturkmen *et al.*'s (2004) participants' focus upon various types of linguistic forms (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, phonology and discourse) seemed to encourage students to correct their own errors without too much intervention. However, the above findings reflect that of Lyster (2001) in which teachers showed a low tolerance for lexical errors.

Different preferences for the treatment of lexical errors can be explained by the fact that observational focus of the current study was not limited to only incidental FonL instances, but rather, it also centred upon planned FonL. Hypothetically speaking, if the present study had been concerned with incidental FonL, then, the findings could have borne much resemblance to the teachers in the above mentioned FFI studies. Indeed, the relationship between the unpredictable and idiosyncratic nature of classroom interaction and the teaching of lexis should not be overlooked in order to arrive at sound conclusions. Perhaps the variations in the teachers' treatment of lexical items occurring in textbooks and teaching materials and the items unavailable in those materials might be taken up by further research. Further details can be found in section 6.1.1, where the implications of the study for lexis pedagogy are discussed.

Relating to correction of lexical errors, the findings of the present study also differ from those of Lyster (1998) which suggest that teachers responded to such errors by giving students prompts so that they could repair their own errors. The rationale behind teachers' preference for using recasts to handle students' lexical errors, as Lyster (2001:289) suggests, is that they "risk being perceived by learners as alternative yet equally correct forms". That is, when the teacher provided a precise and appropriate lexical item to the learner who made an error, this learner may regard the item given by teacher and the item he himself uttered or wrote as interchangeable. The reverse is the case with the teachers who seemed to be intolerant of those errors related to pronunciation of lexical items irrespective of the nature of activity, communicative or non-communicative. Such

difference might have derived from the fact that Lyster's research was conducted in elementary-level French immersion classes in Canada, whereas the present study took place in an EAP programme at EFL private university setting in Turkey.

Examining the manner in which lexical errors were handled by teachers in a natural classroom environment, the present study expanded on McNeill's (2005) and Zimmerman's (2005) studies whose scope was limited to the lexical nature of texts and to the area of reading through identifying difficulty as perceived by teachers. The present study therefore reinforces the idea that simply identifying errors in texts is different in nature from treating errors as they arise spontaneously. Both modes of communication, written and oral, need to be explored to arrive at a comprehensive account of teachers' declarative and procedural knowledge and to gain further insight into McNeill's (2000) finding that 'awareness of learners' language [mainly lexical] difficulties varies widely among teachers'.

5.3   Relationship between the teachers' cognitions and practices

This section seeks answers to the third and fourth research questions together, - What is the relationship between their cognitions and practices in relation to lexis teaching? and What are the contextual factors that influence the way in which the teachers treat lexis in their classrooms?

The relationship between the participants' stated beliefs and practices revealed a combination of congruence and incongruence in various dimensions of lexis pedagogy. Hati displayed consistencies between her beliefs and practices in the following areas of lexis teaching: pre-teaching lexis, providing range/variety, word use, summarising and word formation. Raci showed consistencies in such areas as making use of visualisation, repeating dictionary definition, encouraging students correct each other's mistakes, and allocating more time to the words glossed in the course book. On the other hand, Hati and Raci manifested some shared tensions in some aspects of lexical instruction including teacher-fronted vs. student-centred instruction, selection of lexical items (e.g. teaching lexical items that have relevance to topic vs. the temptation to elaborate on lexical items that are less relevant to topic). The underlying influences on the correspondence and between their cognitions and practices vary. For instance, language and instruction-related

concerns explain Hati's choices while institution-related concerns account for Raci's actual practices. One possible explanation for the divergence between teachers' theories and classroom behaviour, therefore, is related to the internal structure of their personal theories. These findings lend some support to the idea that teachers may frame their work in terms of a hierarchy of core and peripheral beliefs, an issue raised by Green (1971).

There is parallelism between Hati's pedagogical practices and those of the teachers in Niu and Andrews (2012) who taught words more for lexical learning than for message transfer. Hati's similarities with one of the instructors in Niu and Andrews' study are particularly striking as they both emphasised the importance of teaching lexical items productively and providing varieties of phrases and expressions. Their beliefs were borne out in their actual classroom practice of selecting potentially unknown items and phrases from the input material and providing the students with explanations about different senses of those items and proceeding to other related words. The above-mentioned congruence between espoused beliefs and observed practices is much more salient in the study by Li and Walsh (2011). One of their informants' strong beliefs in the primacy of lexis seemed to affect the manner in which she interacted with her students whilst focusing on the meaning and pronunciation of unfamiliar lexical items. The fact that the "practice of going over new words took up quite a big chunk of her lesson" (Li and Walsh, 2011:53) suggests the degree to which she perceived this activity to be of pedagogical value.

In terms of incongruence between cognitions and practices, both teachers had a number of tensions that revolved around student-centred lexis teaching. They did not implement their espoused belief in the value of learners' working out lexical items for themselves. Their tensions were however different in nature. For example, Hati had instruction-related concerns regarding presentation of lexis, provision of examples and collocation while Raci has institution-related concerns regarding the use of a particular coursebook. This supports Burns' (2009) statement that "where cognitions are incompatible there may be other social, institutional, instructional factors exerting more powerful influences". Considering the nature of the contexts they previously worked in, it is perhaps unsurprising that their concerns varied with regard to their treatment of lexis. Contextual factors therefore should be part of any analysis of the linkage between teachers' espoused beliefs and observed

practices (Phipps and Borg, 2009). Burns (1996 cited in Borg, 2006) mentioned three interacting contextual levels of teacher thinking: thinking about the institutional culture, teachers' beliefs about language, learning and learners and thinking about specific instructional activities. One of the most salient contextual factors that impinged on the participants' beliefs and practices is students' characteristics, to which I now turn my attention.

Raci and Hati had distinct approaches to lexis pedagogy, but they both talked favourably about their students with high motivation. It is interesting to note, however, that both teachers made mention of their students' L1 dependency as affecting the interaction between the teachers and students negatively. Both participants provided accounts that reflect the influence of the characteristics of classroom members, both individually and collectively. Regarding the contextual and pedagogical dimensions of instruction, they made reference to individual students in their classrooms (see sections 4.1.4 and 4.2.4). Students' reactions and queries, particularly "word-savvy" students who dominate the group, seem to account for the teachers' perceptions of the role that individual students play in the process of lexis teaching. Particularly, the nature of students' questions seemed to affect the classroom interaction. These findings coincide with Li and Walsh's (2011) conclusion that the complex relationship between teachers' espoused and enacted beliefs are closely associated with contextual factors such as students' attitudes and desired language level, and teachers' observation of students' learning.

It seemed that the classroom dynamics (e.g. a friendly classroom environment) had a major role in Raci's pedagogical choices (using games with some degree of competition). Besides, Hati's views on the relative role of teacher and learner, particularly their contribution to the interaction in the classroom is notable. Although they both expressed a preference for feedback that could provide learners with correct rephrasing of students' deviant utterances of varying length rather than with signals or prompts, the analysis of the observational data suggested that they could not always adhere to their stated beliefs. She was in favour of students' contributions but at the same time she herself chose the items to elicit. The findings of the present study seem to echo Borg's (1998a) finding in regard to grammar that teachers expressed the primacy of meeting learners' expectations grammar

even if they did not believe in the acquisitional value of the explanations. As Borg (1998a) concluded,

> Affective issues–e.g. that students enjoy thinking about grammar– had an important bearing on the teacher's decisions. His beliefs about students' expectations had a powerful influence on his behaviour and did in fact emerge in the study as a pervasive influence on his approach to grammar teaching…This illustrates how the teacher's behaviour was interactively shaped by his perceptions of the students' cognitive/affective state during grammar teaching. (Borg, 1998a:17)

In terms of approaching lexis, both teachers concerned themselves with the characteristics of the students as a group, not just individual students. As Senior (2006:282) argues, "experienced language teachers are driven by a desire to keep their classes functioning as groups, they engage in pedagogically-oriented behaviour one moment and socially-oriented behaviour the next". This is manifested in the participating teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices about lexis teaching in different ways. For example, Raci justified the use of vocabulary games by referring to the competitive characteristic of her students. When asked about the reason why she opted for competitive games in the classroom and about whether Raci thought this might have negative influences, she expressed her trust in her students' ability to have a "friendly" competition. It is also interesting to note that the rationale for the use of games as a tool for vocabulary revision was related to the nature of students in the case of Raci and the need for variety in the case of Hati. The latter devised vocabulary games as she believed in the necessity of offering variety in instructional techniques while the former utilised different vocabulary games which were competitive.

The current study partially supports Folse's (2010) conclusion that it is the teachers who seem to play a crucial role in their instructional decisions regarding the treatment of lexis, particularly the selection and initiation of lexical items. However, this does not necessarily mean that the participating teachers did not have any concerns at all about curriculum factors such as syllabus, course book, examinations, or the type of the course (e.g. reading, grammar, speaking). In the case of Hati, the Input lists as a part of the vocabulary syllabus had a major impact on her classroom practices as she made extensive use of these lists in different ways, suggesting her belief in the need for variety. Raci expressed her priorities for focusing more on the lexical items which helped prepare students towards exams and mentioned the influence of her lack of familiarity with the course book she used at the time

of the study. As for the focus of the lessons delivered by these two teachers, Hati did not concern herself with lexical items at *while* and *post* reading stages while Raci dealt with lexical items at both of these stages. Raci also bears a resemblance to Popko's (2005) informants who also preferred a focus on *pre*, *during* and *post* activities in which they integrated vocabulary into skills-based EAP teaching. The variation in their approaches to reading instruction, particularly widespread use of pre-reading strategies can be explained by factors such as perceived lack of time and limited number of activities in the books. Raci's reliance on the pre-reading glosses in the coursebook is similar to the instructors at preparatory schools of three universities based in Turkey (Cabaroglu and Yurdaisik, 2008).

The data gathered from these two teachers lend support to Ellis' (2010) argument that the same limited view of word knowledge in teaching materials, particularly in course books, may not be found in the teachers' classroom actions. On the other hand, the findings provide evidence against Brown's (2011:83) assumption that "teachers seem to follow the common-sense view that equates learning words with learning meanings and to mostly ignore other aspects of word knowledge". Nonetheless, the magnitude of the effects of the curriculum variables such as materials on the teachers' thinking and classroom actions should not be overlooked.

It is worth noting that while Hati was in favour of elicitation, this was a technique that Raci thought she could not employ due to the perceived limitation associated with her current institution. Despite the similar nature of their institutions (i.e. private university-based Schools of Languages), they exerted an influence on the teachers' cognitions and practices in different ways. In Raci's case, institutional-level contextual variables (i.e. her transition from language school to preparatory school) might have determined the way she perceived elicitation in classrooms situated in her current institution (a university setting) in contrast to her previous workplace (a language school) where she enjoyed a considerable amount of freedom. But her current context was bounded with time constraints on meeting the demands of syllabus and curriculum. The fact that Raci was relative newcomer to teaching EAP and that she displayed certain attitudes towards her institution seem to back up Alexander's (2012) point that when teachers with considerable CLT experience begin teaching EAP, they seem to

174

effectively revert to pre-service status in terms of what language to teach and how best to teach it. Reflective teachers who become aware of the challenges to their personal constructs of teaching can experience a loss of confidence and disruption to their normal teaching routines (Alexander, 2012:108).

These findings can also be explained by a classification of teachers' working contexts with varying levels of constraints. Such contextual influence has been referred to as high, medium and low levels of constraints (Wette, 2009). Hati's set of personal theories of her institution seems to represent low-constraint teaching context, whereas Raci's set of personal theories of teaching is a representative of high-constraint teaching context. These findings further reinforce Wette's (2011:143) point that "irrespective of the degree of constraint in their particular teaching context, teachers were clearly makers of the instructional curriculum rather than transmitters of externally developed plans and prescriptions". This point is reminiscent of Borg's (2009:2) proposition that teachers are by no means "mechanical implementers of external prescriptions, but active decision-makers".

Contextual features peculiar to the institutions in which the participating teachers worked at the time of the study are of prime importance to understand their personal beliefs and practices of teaching lexis. Hati referred to word lists or explicit vocabulary syllabus when justifying her lexis teaching practices. On the other hand, Raci did not refer to either the AWL or in-house syllabus and she seldom made mention of the word lists at the end of each unit, although there were cases when both teachers' selection of lexical items for classroom teaching was shaped by their intuitive judgements. The vocabulary syllabus or lack thereof may be counted as the contextual factor exerting substantial influence on their practices, instructional techniques and classroom activities.

The participants' use of word lists inside and outside of the classroom shows that neither of them is dismissive of the role of decontextualised or semi-contextualised type of lexical instruction. In this respect, they bear resemblance to those teachers in Zimmerman (1997) who required learners to make weekly word lists in daily revision of previously introduced vocabulary. This also holds true for Wette's (2009:352) study in which teachers reported that they assigned "homework exercises on 10 words per week from a word frequency list". Revision of topic vocabulary is a minor curriculum component (lower-level conceptual content) that runs parallel with topic (higher-level conceptual content). This corroborates

Folse's (2011:364) argument against the myth that "using word lists to learn L2 vocabulary is unproductive". Since Raci and Hati perceived lexis teaching as in-classroom and outside-the-classroom activity, their practices seemed to be dissimilar to Kuzborska's (2011) participants' (EAP instructors) vocabulary teaching practices that "involved assigning the students words for their homework and just checking them in class" (e.g. post-reading activities including matching of words with their definitions, word formation and finding the odd word out). The difference in methodological stance between Kuzborska's study and the present study is derived from the fact that the former evaluated teachers' practices and beliefs against the established norms of good or effective practice advocated in the research literature. The existence of a research-informed framework of pre-established categories prior to the conduct of research seemed to have led Kuzborska to adopt an evaluative rather than only an interpretative paradigm (see Grotjahn, 1987 cited in Nunan, 1992).

To conclude this chapter, it is important to acknowledge the ubiquity of lexis in language classrooms at different proficiency levels and instructional contexts. Indeed, lexis seems to be a theme interspersed throughout teachers' views on different facets of language teaching in general. Within the teachers' personal theories about the curricular area of lexis are abundant references to general teaching. This highlights the intertwined relationship between the subject matter and language pedagogy. For instance, Raci's description of "friendly competition" when talking about the use of games in her class made me think whether it was solely related to lexis teaching pedagogy or language teaching pedagogy more generally. It is therefore important to be cognisant of the points and moments where the participants talk about their cognitions relating to teaching in general and the points where they talk about teaching language and lexis.

6   CONCLUSION

6.1   Implications

The findings of the study presented in the previous chapter have important implications for L2 lexis pedagogy, SLTE, and future research on language teachers' and learners' cognitions.

6.1.1   Implications for lexis pedagogy

The participating teachers' accounts of their thinking and actions in relation to lexical instruction revolved around one major concern: the amount of input to be provided to learners (i.e. how much to teach about a lexical item). This should not necessarily be equated with the number of lexical items to be presented to students (i.e. how many lexical items). The concerns relating to the amount of lexical input to be provided to the students override any other concerns. Given the demands placed upon the EAP teachers (both at linguistic and content level), another dilemma facing them is whether to focus on more lexical items with limited attention to their knowledge dimensions or on a limited number of lexical items with elaborated attention. It is therefore important that teachers consider how many lexical items in a given lesson and how much they teach about a particular lexical item. Learners' mental representation of a word can be biased, depending on the nature and the amount of input they get, which leads to either 'overgeneralisation' or 'undergeneralisation' of the meaning (Taylor, 1975 cited in Morimoto and Loewen, 2007:352). Nation (1990:88) put forward an interesting idea of 'vocabulary control' which can be utilised by teachers as a basis for introducing new lexical items. Guiding teachers to be able to speak within a limited vocabulary serves to enable teachers to make explanations of lexical items as clear as possible. This, however, should not be interpreted as sacrificing a lexically rich environment. Nor should it mean that other skills should take a backseat to lexis teaching, for exposing learners to more words and thus reinforcing the lexical items they have already learnt is equally important for vocabulary development. Perhaps this proves the need to incorporate such concerns as "how much", "when" and "how long" into "how to teach".

Secondly, there is a need for a balanced integration of lexis-focused and skills-focused activities. The need for such a balance both in the curriculum and in language classrooms has been advocated by researchers (e.g. Coxhead, 2000; Nation, 2001, 2007; Wette, 2009). Wette (2009) describes such a balanced approach as follows:

> the professional knowledge and experience of the study teachers was apparent in their ability to weave a coherent curriculum from a variety of components and sources, taking into account conflicting demands and not losing sight of its global structure". […] curriculum components need to be combined in such a way that balance, variety,overall coherence and continuity between items of conceptual content (lower-higher) are achieved (Wette, 2009:359-360).

Teachers should give consideration to the effects of combining reading and interactive vocabulary instruction (cf. File and Adams, 2010). Designing lessons requires making decisions as to the extent to which lexis is treated in its own right or as an integral part of skills-work (see Borg and Burns, 2008; File and Adams, 2010). This requires meticulous planning which can be facilitated by episodes, and awareness of and reflection on previous lexis teaching instances.

Careful planning is not the same as overplanning or losing sight of emergent lexical needs of EAP students. Alexander's (2010:5) point that "student needs in EAP relate to the performance of academic tasks rather than knowledge of the language system" can be challenged because students might have lexis-related needs in various curricular areas (e.g. *listening*: Goh, 2000; Graham, 2006; *speaking*: Gan, 2012; *writing*: Leki and Carson, 1997; Zhou, 2009). The needs analysis of 'performance of academic tasks' should be extended to include linguistic needs analysis in EAP contexts. In fact, linguistic knowledge (both grammar and lexis) cannot be considered in isolation from academic tasks as it is the resource that enables the students to carry out these tasks. As Kirkgoz (2009:85-91) advocates, an attempt needs to be made to identify learners' lexical needs because lexis appeared to be a shared source of difficulty for university students who are expected to read extensively. For example, difficult lexical items as perceived by the teachers and students can be flagged up in teachers' manuals and coursebooks. Transcribed classroom interactions that comprise FonL episodes recorded throughout the study could be highlighted with the heading "what might happen in an actual classroom environment".

6.1.2   Implications for SLTE

One should not be looking for a new knowledge base for SLTE, but, rather, deeper insights into diverse ways in which teachers interpret the profession of language teaching and how they access this knowledge base in their instructional environment (Erdogan, 2005:231). The EAP teachers' areas of concerns, doubts and tensions emerged from the analysis of their lexis teaching beliefs and practices, which might overlap with other EAP teachers working within similar settings. I traced some teachers' cognitions and practices to their sources. Yet, this was not possible with some of the accounts in which teachers could not remember details. More research is therefore needed into the development of personal theories and more systematic enquiries need to be carried out into the sources of teachers' theories. As Ellis (2012:146) suggests, a key issue for teacher education is how technical knowledge about language pedagogy informs teachers' espoused beliefs and their personal practical knowledge. Teachers can be encouraged to adopt a critical stance to the ideas they are introduced to in their teacher education courses (e.g. Andon and Eckerth, 2009; Feryok, 2008; Mangubhai *et al.,* 2004; Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999; Woods and Çakır, 2011). As Wyatt and Borg (2011:236) suggest, a variety of input (e.g. readings, videos of classroom practice, role-plays and scenarios of classroom situations) can be used to help teachers to make connections between theoretical ideas and their respective pedagogical views and experiences. As Wright (2010:289) acknowledges, it should be borne in mind that accounts of teacher educators' practice in SLTE lead us to question those practices and the assumptions behind them.

The present study can be followed up by adopting a teacher development perspective and set out to investigate the way in which teachers' behaviours can be changed by developing their understandings of the inter-connectedness between lexis and major skills of listening, reading, writing, speaking. A useful teacher development task would be provision of a set of scenarios to prospective teachers to identify what aspects of lexical knowledge should be attended to in the chosen classroom interaction extracts. Teachers can then be assigned to categorise these interactions according to two major types of integrated and isolated vocabulary instruction. They might also reflect on the lexis teaching points or episodes which do not fall into either of the categories. These classroom exchanges where the focus

is on one or two lexical items can help EAP teachers working in similar contexts anticipate some learners' possible responses. Since there has been relatively little research on the development of teachers' cognitions in SLTE (Borg, 2006), research on on the developmental aspects of pre-service teachers' mental lives in relation to vocabulary instruction, that is, differences in vocabulary teaching beliefs held by teachers and teacher educators is valuable (e.g. Macalister's (2012) study of Malaysian teachers' cognition and vocabulary teaching). The findings of the present research can inform the language classroom if they are reflected in specific teaching materials that teachers find useful. The question "how much guidance does the teachers' manual need to give on techniques for teaching lexis?" merits a great deal of attention.

Regarding the aspects of lexis and its learning and teaching that need attention in teacher development programs, Zimmerman (2005) suggests that teacher-training courses should be giving teachers the skills to deal with lexis in classrooms in a principled way. Researchers (Folse, 2010; Nation, 1990) suggest that teachers need training in the multiple ways that vocabulary can be taught. Such training would include explicit teaching techniques such as writing words on the board for all students to see and doing short drills or other activities to recycle vocabulary items, as well as implicit vocabulary focus through reading and listening tasks that include recycling vocabulary items. The training could also involve some strategies of how to treat lexical items across skills, rather than merely in the context of reading skills alone.

In the case of grammar teaching, for example, the reciprocity of research and practice in the teaching of language has been highlighted by Borg (1998a):

> The relationship between research and practice in grammar teaching … is thus no longer the unidirectional one assumed by process-product studies of this area of L2 instruction (i.e. that research informs practice); rather, it becomes a reciprocal relationship in which research is grounded in the realities of classroom practice but at the same time provides teachers with insights into teaching through which they can critically examine, and hence improve, their own practice (Borg, 1998a:32).

As far as teacher development resources and activities are concerned, data-based teacher development is concerned with the manner in which teachers' cognitions develop (see Borg, 1998b). The FonL episodes in the classroom transcript can be utilised as data in

teacher development activities in which teachers are encouraged to predict the pedagogical situations which potentially pose difficulty to learners. Borg (1998b) argued that language teacher development can be promoted through tasks where teachers study transcripts which document the thinking behind other teachers' classroom practices. Thanks to classroom transcripts (see Cullen, 1998), these teachers can benefit from analysing the manner in which the participating teachers dealt with certain lexical items and how the pre-service or in-service teachers reflect on how they would handle them in their own classrooms.Figure 7 outlines a sample procedure for teacher development.


Phase 1
- A lexical item is provided to teachers
- Teachers are asked how they would introduce this item to students

Phase 2
- Teachers are provided with the episodes where this particular lexical occurred (alongside both transcipt and audio recording)
- Teachers compare their way of teaching this item with that of the participating teachers

Phase 3
- Teachers speculate why the participating teacher treated the lexical item this way
- Teachers confirm ordisconfirm their speculation based on the stimulated-recall data

Figure 7: A procedure for teacher development in teaching lexis

Awareness-raising tasks can be devised to help teachers re-examine their beliefs and practices relating to the teaching of lexis in classroom. The same data can be used as a means by which to elicit teachers' views on how the teacher dealt with lexical items in the episodes transcribed and captured by audio recorder. Actually, this also attests to the fact that the process of conducting these interviews, especially the process of conducting stimulated recall, can have a developmental function in raising teachers' awareness of priorities and contradictions that they had not been previously aware of. The above mentioned ideas about language teacher development are in line with Ellis' (2010) views on the SLA, teacher education and language pedagogy nexus.

The present study illustrated a wide range of lexical situations (conceptualised under the term 'FonL episodes') in which lexical items come up during real classroom interaction. This provided valuable insights into the process of vocabulary learning and teaching

particularly to the teachers' judgements as to the selection of lexical items to be handled in EAP classrooms. The point of interest of the present study was in the range of facets of teacher cognitions which involve not only general views but also contextual views about lexis teaching. The teachers' perspectives that emerged throughout the present research challenge the dichotomies associated with the presentation of lexis (e.g. semantic sets vs. thematic sets) in experimental studies. The discrepancy between the results of experimental studies and that of descriptive teacher cognition studies suggests a further avenue for further research on the link between SLA theories and the practising teachers' personal theories. For example, their views on advantages and disadvantages of presenting semantically-related and semantically-unrelated words could be a starting point given its being a contentious issue.

6.1.3 Implications for exploring language teachers' and learners' cognitions

The present study revealed the way in which teachers dealt with lexical difficulties encountered by individual students. This implies the extent to which these individual students might exert an influence on the way they conduct their lessons. Regarding whether certain lexical items and teachers' explanations of these items confuse students, Raci often expressed her doubts ("Do they know that word now? I would say 30% will know it but we should ask the students themselves"). These can be confirmed by research on learner cognitions about lexis instruction. Students' confusion caused by certain lexical items has important implications for second language classroom teaching practices. It is therefore important to be mindful of the extent to which individual students might affect the teachers' enactment of their beliefs in classrooms. The activity of language teaching, as (Feryok, 2010:277) notes, "involves a number of complex systems: not only language teacher cognitions, but student cognitions, language itself, and educational systems". Future studies can continue to examine the effects of individual students' characteristics across proficiency levels (elementary, intermediate, advanced) in order to examine the extent to which the present findings may hold for intermediate-level students. Research into lexis teaching from learners' perspective provides a promising baseline (e.g. Basturkmen and Lewis, 2002; Block, 1994; Coxhead, 2008; Leki and Carson, 1997).

Now that the present research has identified some attributions for difficulty of lexical items, and sources of difficulties from the perspectives of the EAP teachers, it might be useful to find out whether, or the extent to which, the students' and teachers' perceptions of lexical difficulty share commonalities. As observed in Raci's class (Episode: *anxious*), the students might not be sure whether the teacher referred to utility of a lexical item (i.e. useful lexical item that meets students' communicative needs) or its semantic content (i.e. positive meaning). Students' confusion as a consequence of the attributions espoused by the teacher was partly because these generic utterances (e.g. "it is a good/strong word") also serve other interactional and pedagogical functions such as praising students and expressing emotional reactions utilised by the teacher. Inappropriate use of evaluative comments about lexical items made by the teacher may misdirect students' attention from the items the teacher intends to teach in the first place. The generic expressions do not enable students to get at the meaning of lexical items, but rather misdirect their attention to some extent. Attributive statements should therefore be employed with caution in the language classroom and teachers need to be selective when it comes to making comments about characteristics of lexical items. Teachers' use of language, in this context, is quite important since it can either facilitate or obstruct students' learning (see Walsh, 2003; 2006 for the link between pedagogical goals and interactional features).

An inquiry into whether lexical items are deemed to be difficult or important by the teacher and the students might generate further insights into pedagogical principles and practices. The research questions to be formulated could include: "to what extent are teachers' perceptions of lexical difficulties different from that of students?" and "in what ways would the teachers' attitude towards difficulty influence the learners' perceptions about difficulty associated with certain items?" Comparison of teachers' and students' expectations of what to do with lexical items helps us to identify whether they have similar tendencies towards lexical instruction could be another purpose of future research. Following a line of investigation similar to Ma and Kelly (2009) and McNeill (2005) could provide evidence for the areas of convergence and divergence in their tendencies towards the teaching of lexis.

Further investigation of teachers' treatment of lexis might identify distinctive observable patterns in the episodes where the teachers made mention of difficulty and importance of certain lexical items during reflection on their classroom practices. If their treatments differ from the instances in which no mention is made of lexical difficulty, then, it is important to investigate the manner in which teachers' perceptions of difficulty relate to their actual classroom practices (see Smith and Tajino, 2003). Teachers might benefit from 'hard-to-learn/teach' lexical items as perceived from the perspectives of learners or teachers. The question as to whether some words are 'harder' to learn than others is considered to be dependent on word class; more specifically nouns are the easiest to learn, adjectives next, whereas verbs and adverbs are the most difficult to learn (Nation, 2001). However, these conclusions may not serve language teachers' immediate pedagogical concerns because they are based on the results gathered in laboratory settings. Promoting an awareness of the nature of academic lexis is therefore crucial (see Chung and Nation, 2004; Coxhead, 2011; Coxhead and Nation, 2001).

Experienced teachers' development through other data generation instruments such as repertory grids and conceptual maps can be investigated (see Erdogan, 2005; Meijer *et al.,* 1999). Another issue that can be explored by repertory grid (see Donaghue, 2003) is the extent to which the participating teachers' concerns are similar to other teachers in different educational settings. This may spur further research in other contexts with different classroom cultures and language backgrounds. In so doing, typical characteristics of students that account for certain cognitions underlying the teachers' actions can be identified. Future investigations might use repertory grid by which teachers and students' perceived 'importance' and 'difficulty' relating to lexical items can be tracked. Using more than one research instrument in tandem could yield richer and broader insights into teachers' professional lives.

The teachers involved in the present study tended to provide alternatives which could have been utilised during their reflection upon their observed lexis teaching practices. That is why exploring teachers' personal understandings and comparing them to expert principles about the teaching of lexis is valuable. Similar to Borg and Burns' (2008) survey about integration of grammar teaching in skills-based classrooms, one might investigate the

beliefs held by teachers working in various institutions across the world. As Borg (2003a:105) suggests, despite the fact that teacher cognition studies are largely qualitative, "there is evidence of the contribution that quantitative work can make to this domaing of inquiry". Researchers might consider turning teachers' own belief statements during pre-observation and stimulated recall sessions into items in a questionnaire so as to increase the level of generalisability. This would provide a large scale snapshot of teachers' personal principles and practices of lexis instruction. The large sample size and wide variety of teachers' cultural and professional background add to the dynamic nature of the inquiry of language teacher cognition.

In conclusion, as a crucial component of language curriculum, lexis might be a good place to start for the research on the relationship between teacher and student cognitions because it is the curricular area where there are divergences in their views about lexis (Graham, 1997). Graham (1997) found that the students tend to 'listen out for key words', their most-frequently used strategy, by which they referred to the lexical items they were able to recognise. Those items, however, might not necessarily be crucial for understanding of a given aural text. How students' views and attitudes compare to those of teachers concerning the teaching of lexis in second language classrooms can be a potentially fruitful area for research. This line of inquiry is adopted in previous studies (e.g. Berry, 1997; Kumaravadivelu, 1991; Mathews-Aydinli and Elaziz, 2010; Schulz, 1996; Yoshida, 2010).

6.2   Limitations

The limitations of the present inquiry need to be recognised. With regard to methodological limitations, although I initially planned to use more sources of evidence such as documents including syllabus specifications, curriculum guidelines and lesson plans, I could not present them in the thesis. Regarding documents, the handbook of Raci's institution was not as relevant and detailed as that of Hati. Another methodological weakness concerns its sample size given the number of participating teachers is confined to two cases only. The data gathered in the participants' teaching contexts does not enable me to extend my findings to other practitioners working elsewhere. That is why, the limited generalisability does not allow for creating taxonomies of the teachers' beliefs and practices. Further, that the data generation process took about three months and that the exact amount of time spent

185

on lexis teaching in the teachers' lessons was not calculated need to be acknowledged. Limited information was available about the way in which revisited and consolidated lexical items were taught previously, an observational issue already explained in section 4.2 where Hati's general approach to lexis teaching is described.

Longitudinal studies can perhaps better identify differences in lexis pedagogy across curricular areas where observations are conducted over a long period of time. Not only do longitudinal studies further reveal patterns of observed regularities, they can also capture teachers' attitudinal characteristics concerning their treatment of lexical errors in classroom contexts. Otherwise, it would be too quick to arrive at conclusions on the basis of scant evidence relating to the way lexical items are treated in language classrooms. Future research could therefore examine the manner in which different teachers deal with lexis as they teach the same units of a coursebook. It would be interesting to observe variations in the practices of teachers who teach the same themes or the same set of lexical items covered in the teachers' lessons and coursebooks. A more detailed account of the 'past' of the previous classes could be provided if those teachers use the same coursebook throughout an academic term. This would give insight into teachers' rationales for their instructional decisions they make throughout the entire process of treating particular lexical items.

6.3   Final Remarks

Adopting a teacher cognition perspective, the findings that emerged from the present inquiry developed our current understanding of how lexis teaching takes place in EAP classrooms from the teachers' perspective. The present study offered further insights into FFI and classroom interaction as it revealed a set of contextual factors that play a role on teachers' lexis pedagogy, one of which is the impact of individual students on the teachers' cognitions and practices. The study also shed light on what is involved in the teaching of lexis by contributing to our understanding of the nature of lexis as perceived by EAP practitioners in EFL university settings.

The strength of the present study is that it offers a somewhat holistic account of the process in which teachers are engaged with lexis teaching that involves a wide range of aspects of lexical knowledge, not merely word meanings as in descriptive studies. The current study went beyond reporting the frequency with which a particular linguistic focus occurred in language classrooms by offering a more contextualised view of teachers' cognitions about their treatment of lexis. Thanks to the employment of various research instruments such as classroom observations and stimulated recalls, aspects of lexical difficulty on the basis of attributions that the teacher made about lexical items were identified. Furthermore, the current study was considered to be beneficial to the participants' professional learning by allowing them to articulate their personal theories as they reflect on different dimensions of lexis teaching throughout the research. The teachers' verbalisation did not strictly concentrate on a particular episode only but they could also give an elaborated account of their beliefs about their actions in general. This served to reveal the teachers' beliefs beyond the 'how' of teaching and into the 'why'. Their comments on what, how, and why they did things function as a departure point to explore their goals and the intentions underlying their instructional practices which would otherwise remain implicit during teaching.

REFERENCES

Ainley, J. and Luntley, M. (2007). Towards an articulation of expert classroom practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 23(7), 1127-1138.

Akbari, R. and Tajik, L. (2009). L2 teachers' pedagogic knowledge base: a comparison between experienced and less experienced practitioners. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education,* 34(6), 52-73.

Akyel, A. (1997). Experienced and student EFL teachers' instructional thoughts and actions. *Canadian Modern Language Review,* 53(4), 677-704.

Alexander, O. (2012). Exploring teacher beliefs in teaching EAP at low proficiency levels. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes,* 11, (2), 99-111.

Alexander, O. (2010). English for academic purposes in university settings: teacher and learner competencies. IATEFL English for specific purposes SIG Bilkent University School of English Language Faculty Academic English Program. *The Leap into TEAP: the role of the BALEAP competency framework in the professional development of new EAP teachers,* 18-19 June, 2010 2010, 1-7.

Allen, L. Q. (2013). Teachers' beliefs about developing language proficiency within the context of study abroad. *System,* 41(1), 134-148.

Allwright, R.L. (1984). The importance of interaction in classroom language learning. *Applied Linguistics,* 11 (1), 17–39.

Allwright, R.L. and Bailey, K.M. (1991). *Focus on the language classroom: an introduction to classroom research for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Alptekin, C. and Tatar, S. (2011). Research on foreign language teaching and learning in Turkey (2005-2009). *Language Teaching,* 44(3), 328-353.

Andon, N. and Eckerth, J. (2009). Chacun à son gout?: Task-based L2 pedagogy from the teacher's point of view. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 19(3), 286-310.

Andrews, R. (2003). *Research Questions,* London: Continuum.

Andrews, S. (2007a). *Teacher language awareness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Andrews, S. (2007b). Researching and developing teacher language awareness: developments and future directions. In Davison, C and Cummins, J (Eds.), *The Handbook of English Language Teaching.*New York, Springer.

Andrews, S. (2003). Teacher language awareness and the professional knowledge base of the L2 teacher. *Language Awareness,* 12(2), 81-95.

Andrews, S. (2001). The language awareness of the L2 teacher: Its impact upon pedagogical practice. *Language Awareness.* 10(2-3), 75-90.

Andrews, S. (1999). Why do L2 teachers need to 'know about language? Teacher metalinguistic awareness and input for learning. *Language and Education,* 13(3), 161-177.

Andrews, S. and McNeill, A. (2005). Knowledge about language and 'good' language teacher. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Applied Linguistics and Language Teacher Education.* USA: Springer, 159- 178.

Argyris, C. and Schön, D. (1974). *Theory in practice: Increasing professional effectiveness.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Arioğul, S. 2007. Understanding foreign language teachers' practical knowledge: What's the role of prior language learning experience? *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies,* 3(1), 168-181.

Atay, D. (2004). Collaborative dialogue with student teachers as a follow-up to teacher in-service education and training. *Language Teaching Research,* 8(2), 143-162.

Bailey, K.M. (1996). The best laid plans: Teachers' in-class decisions to depart from theirlesson plans. In D. Nunan and K.M. Bailey (Eds.), *Voices from the language classroom,* Cambridge: 15-40.

Barcelos, A.M.F. (2003). Teachers' and students' beliefs within a Deweyan framework: Conflict and influence. In P. Kalaja and A. M. F. Barcelos (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New research approaches* Dordecht, Netherlands: Kluwer, 171-200.

Barcroft, J. (2007). Effects of word and fragment writing during L2 vocabulary learning. *Foreign Language Annals,* 40(4), 713-726.

Barcroft, J. (2006). Can writing a new word detract from learning it? More negative effects of forced output during vocabulary learning. *Second Language Research,* 22(4), 487-497.

Barcroft, J. (2004). Second language vocabulary acquisition: A lexical input processing approach. *Foreign Language Annals,* 37(2), 200-208.

Barcroft, J. (2003). Effects of questions about word meaning during L2 Spanish lexical learning. *The Modern Language Journal,* 87(4), 546-561.

Barcroft, J. (2002). Semantic and structural elaboration in L2 lexical acquisition. *Language Learning,* 52(2), 323-363.

Barcroft, J., Sunderman, G. and Schmitt, N. (2011). Lexis. In James Simpson (Ed.), *The Routledge Handbook of Applied Linguistics.* Oxford: Routledge, 571-583.

Barker, D. (2007). A personalized approach to analyzing 'cost' and 'benefit' in vocabulary selection. *System,* 35(4), 523.

Barnard, R and D. Scampton (2008). Teaching grammar: A survey of EAP teachers in New Zealand. *New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics,* 4(2), 59-82.

Bassey, M. (1991). On the nature of research in education. *Research Intelligence,* 38 (1), 16-18.

Basturkmen, H. and Lewis, M. (2002). Learner perspectives of success in an EAP writing course. *Assessing Writing,* 8(1), 31-46.

Basturkmen, H. Loewen, S. and Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics,* 25(2), 243-272.

Basyurt Tuzel, A. E., and Akcan, S. (2009). Raising the language awareness of pre-service English teachers in an EFL context. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(3), 271-287.

Bax, S. (2003). The end of CLT: a context approach to language teaching. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 57(3), 278-287.

Beglar, D. and Hunt, A. (2005). Six principles for teaching foreign language vocabulary: A commentary on Laufer, Meara, and Nation's "Ten Best Ideas", *The Language Teacher,* 29(7), 7-10.

Bell, N. (2011). Comparing playful and nonplayful incidental attention to form. *Language Learning,* 62(1), 236-265.

Bensoussan, M. and Laufer, B. (1984). Lexical guessing in context in efl reading comprehension. *Journal of Research in Reading,* 7(1), 15-32.

BERA (2004). Revised ethical guidelines for educational research. *British Educational Research Association,* Retrieved on 15 August 2009 from
http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications/pdfs/ETHICA1.PDF?PHPSESSID=1703538bec5cd46797030b3185273ad1

Berry, R. (1997). Teachers' awareness of learners' knowledge: The case of metalinguistic terminology. *Language Awareness,* 6(2-3), 136-146.

Block, D. (1994). A day in the life of a class: teacher/learner perceptions of task purpose in conflict. *System,* 22(4), 473-486.

Block, D. (2000). Learners and their meta-pedagogical awareness. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 10(1), 97-123.

Bogdan, R.C. and Biklen, S.K. (2007). *Qualitative research for education.* 5th edit. New York: Prentice Hall.

Borg, M. (2001). Teachers' beliefs. *English Language Teaching Journal.* 55(2), 186-188.

Borg, S. (2012). Language teacher cognition bibliography. Retrieved on 10 June 2012 from
http://www.education.leeds.ac.uk/people/staff.php?staff=29.

Borg, S. (2009) *Introducing language teacher cognition.* Retrieved on 10 December 2010 from
http://www.education.leeds.ac.uk/research/files/145.pdf.

Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice,* London: Continuum.

Borg, S. (2003a). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research of what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching,* 36(2), 81-109.

Borg, S. (2003b). Teacher cognition in grammar teaching: A literature review. *Language Awareness,* 12(2), 96-108.

Borg, S. (2001). Self-perception and practice in teaching grammar. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 55 (1), 21-29.

Borg, S. (1999). Studying teacher cognition in second language grammar teaching. *System,* 27 (1), 19-31.

Borg, S. (1998a). Teachers' pedagogical systems and grammar teaching: A qualitative study. *TESOL Quarterly,* 32(1), 9-38.

Borg, S. (1998b). Data-based teacher development. *English Language Teaching Journal, 52*(4), 273–281.

Borg, S. and Burns, A. (2008). Integrating grammar in adult TESOL classrooms. *Applied Linguistics,* 29(3), 456-482.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology,* 3(2), 77-101.

Breen, M.P. Hird, B. Milton, M. Oliver, R. and Thwaite, A. (2001). Making sense of language teaching: Teachers' principles and classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics,* 22(4), 470-501.

Briggs, S.T. (2007). Review of K. S. Folse, *Vocabulary myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching*. Ann Arbour: The University of Michigan Press, 2004, *TESOL Quarterly,* 41(1), 216-219.

Broady, E. (2008). Fragmentation and consolidation: Recent articles on vocabulary acquisition, *The Language Learning Journal*, 36 (2), 259-265.

Brown, D. (2011). What aspects of vocabulary knowledge do textbooks give attention to?. *Language Teaching Research,* 15(1), 83-97.

Brutten, S.R. (1981). An analysis of student and teacher indications of vocabulary difficulty. *RELC Journal,* 12 (1), 66-71.

Burgess, J. and Etherington, S. (2002). Focus on grammatical form: explicit or implicit?. *System,* 30(4),433-458.

Burns, A. (2009). Teacher cognition and beliefs: teaching grammar. *ALANZ-ALAA Conference, Auckland,* 2009.

Burns, A. (1996). Starting all over again: From teaching adults to teaching beginners. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 154-177.

Busch, D. (2010). Pre-service teacher beliefs about language learning: The second language acquisition course as an agent for change. *Language Teaching Research,* 14(3), 318-337.

Cabaroglu, N., and Yurdaisik, A. (2008). University instructors' views about and approaches to reading instruction and reading strategies. *The Reading Matrix,* 8(2), 133-154.

Calderhead, J. (1981). Simulated recall: a method for research on teaching. *British Journal of Educational Psychology,* 51(2), 211-217.

Chang, A. C-S., and Read, J. (2006). The effects of listening support on the listening performance of EFL learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(2), 375-397.

Chung, T.M. and Nation, P. (2004). Identifying technical vocabulary. *System,* 32(2), 251-263.

Clachar, A. (2000). Opposition and accommodation: An examination of Turkish teachers' attitudes toward western approaches to the teaching of writing. *Research in the Teaching of English,* 35(1), 66-100.

Clark, C.M. and Peterson, P.L. (1986). Teachers' thought processes. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching*. New York: Macmillan, 255-296.

Cobb, T. (2008). Commentary: Response to McQuillan and Krashen (2008). *Language Learning & Technology,* 12(1), 109-114.

Cobb, T. and Horst, M. (2001). Reading academic English: Carrying learners across the lexical threshold. In J. Flowerdew and M. Peacock (Eds.), *Research perspectives on English for academic purposes* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 315-329.

Cohen, L. Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education,* London: Taylor and Francis Group.

Collie Graden, E. (1996). How language teachers' beliefs about reading are mediated by their beliefs about students. *Foreign Language Annals,* 29(3), 387-395.

Corson, D. (1997). The learning and use of academic English words. *Language Learning,* 47(4), 671-718.

Corson, D. (1995). *Using English words.* New York: Springer.

Coxhead, A. (2011). Academic vocabulary, writing and English for academic purposes: Perspectives from second language learners. *RELC Journal,* 43(1), 137-145.

Coxhead, A. (2010). Grabbed early by vocabulary: Nation's ongoing contributions to vocabulary and reading in a foreign language. *Reading in a Foreign Language,* (22), 1-14.

Coxhead, A. (2008). Phraseology and English for academic purposes: Challenges and opportunities. In F. Meunier and S. Granger (Eds.), *Phraseology in language learning and teaching,* Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 149-161.

Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly,* 34(2), 213-238.

Coxhead, A. and Byrd, P. (2007). Preparing writing teachers to teach the vocabulary and grammar of academic prose. *Journal of Second Language Writing,* 16 (3), 129-147.

Coxhead, A. and Nation, I.S.P. (2001). The specialised vocabulary of English for academic purposes. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Research perspectives on English for academic purposes,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 252-267.

Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods and approaches,* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J.W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among the five approaches,* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cross, R. (2010). Language teaching as sociocultural activity: Rethinking language teacher practice. *The Modern Language Journal,* 94(3), 434-452.

Crotty, M. (2003). *The Foundations of social research: meaning and perspective in the research process*. Sage, London.

Cullen, R. (1998). Teacher talk and the classroom context. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 52(3), 179-187.

Denscombe, M. (2007). *The good research guide: For small-scale social research projects,* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dikilitas, K. and Akcali, K. (2011). Classroom applications of teachers' vocabulary instruction through reading lessons. *"Deep into ELT" Conference,* 2011.

Dobinson, T. (2001). Do learners learn from classroom interaction and does the teacher have arole to play?. *Language Teaching Research.* 5(3), 189–211.

Dogancay-Aktuna, S., and Kiziltepe, Z. (2005). English in Turkey. *World Englishes* , 24(2), 253-265.

Donaghue, H. (2003). An instrument to elicit teachers' beliefs and assumptions. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 57(4), 344-351.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics,* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Doughty, C. and Williams, J. (Ed.). (1998). *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Duff, P. (2008). Case study research in applied linguistics. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dunkin, M. and Biddle, B. (1974). *The study of teaching.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Durrant, P. (2009). Investigating the viability of a collocation list for students of English for academic purposes. *English for Specific Purposes,* 28(3), 157-169.

Ellis, N.C. and Beaton, A. (1993). Psycholinguistic determinants of foreign language vocabulary learning. *Language learning,* 43(4), 559-617.

Ellis, R. (2012). *Language teaching research and language pedaogy,* Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Ellis, R. (2011). Editorial, *Language Teaching Research,* 15 (1), 7-9.

Ellis, R. (2010). Editorial, *Language Teaching Research,* 14(4), 351-353.

Ellis, R. (2005). *Instructed second language acquisition a literature review.* New Zealand: Research Division, Ministry of Education.

Ellis, R. (2001). Introduction: Investigating form-focused instruction. *Language Learning,* 51(1), 1-46.

Ellis, R. Loewen, S, and Basturkmen, H. (2006). Disentangling focus on form. A Response to Sheen and O'Neill (FORUM). *Applied Linguistics,* 27(1), 135-141.

Ellis, R. Loewen, S. and Basturkmen, H. (2003). Focussing on form in the classroom. *Journal for Language Teaching,* 37(2), 149-163.

Ellis, R., Tanaka, Y. and Yamazaki, A. (1994). Classroom interaction, comprehension, and the acquisition of L2 word meanings. *Language Learning,* 44 (3), 449-491.

Ellis, R. Basturkmen, H. and Loeewen, S. (2001). Pre-emptive focus on form in the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly,* 35(3), 407-432.

Ellis, R. Basturkmen, H. and Loewen, S. (2002). Doing focus-on-form. *System,* 30(4), 419-432.

Engber, C. (1995). The relationship of lexical proficiency to the quality of ESL compositions. *Journal of Second Language Writing,* 4(2), 139-155.

Eraut, M. (2000). Non-formal learning and tacit knowledge in professional work. *British Journal of Educational Psychology,* 70(1), 113-136.

Erdogan, S. (2005). *Experienced EFL teachers' personal theories of good teaching: a PCT-based investigation,* Unpublished PhD Thesis. University of Warwick.

Evans, S. and Green, C. (2007). Why EAP is necessary: A survey of Hong Kong tertiary students. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes,* 6(1), 3-17.

Evans**,** S., and Morrison, B. (2011). The first term at university: Implications for EAP. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 65(4), 387-397.

Fang, Z. (1996). A review of research on teacher beliefs and practices. *Educational Research,* 38(1), 47-65.

Farrokhi, F., Ansarin, A., and Mohammadnia, Z. (2008). Pre-emptive focus on form: teachers' practices across proficiencies. *The Linguistics Journal,* 3(2), 7-30.

Fenstermacher, G. (1994). The knower and the known: The nature of knowledge in research on teaching. *Review of Research in Education,* 20(1), 3-56.

Feryok, A. (2010). Language teacher cognitions: Complex dynamic systems. *System,* 38(2), 272-279.

Feryok, A. (2008). An Armenian English language teacher's practical theory of communicative language teaching. *System,* 36(2), 227-240.

File, K. A. and Adams, R. (2010). Should vocabulary instruction be integrated or isolated?. *TESOL Quarterly,* 44(2), 222-249.

Flowerdew, J. and Peacock, M. (2001). The EAP curriculum: Issues, methods and challenges. In J.Flowerdew and M. Peacock (Ed.), *Research perspectives on English for academic purposes,* Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, 177-194.

Folse, K. (2004a). *Vocabulary myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching.* Ann Arbor: Michigan University Press.

Folse, K. (2004b). Myths about teaching and learning second language vocabulary: What recent research says. *TESL Reporter,* 37(2), 1-13.

Folse, K. (2011). Applying L2 lexical research findings in ESL teaching. *TESOL Quarterly,* 45(2), 362.

Folse, K. (2010). Is explicit vocabulary focus the reading teacher's job?. *Reading in a Foreign Language,* 22(1), 139–160.

Fortune, A. (2005). Learners' use of metalanguage in collaborative form-focused L2 output tasks. *Language Awareness,* 14 (1), 21-38.

Fortune, A. and Thorp, D. (2001). Knotted and entangled: New light on the identification, classification, and value of language-related episodes in collaborative output tasks. *Language Awareness,* 10(2-3), 143-160.

Foster, P. (1998). A classroom perspective on the negotiation of meaning. *Applied Linguistics,* 19(1), 1-23.

Freeman, D. (2002). The hidden side of the work: Teacher knowledge and learning to teach. *Language Teaching,* 35(1), 1-13.

Freeman, D. (1993). Renaming experience/reconstructing practice: developing new understandings of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 9(5-6), 485-497.

Freeman, D. and Johnson, K. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly,* 32(3), 397-417.

Gan, Z. (2012). Understanding L2 speaking problems: Implications for ESL curriculum development in a teacher training institution in Hong Kong. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education,* 37(1), 43-59.

Gao, X. and Ma, Q. (2011). Vocabulary learning and teaching beliefs of pre-service and in-service teachers in Hong Kong and mainland China. *Language Awareness,* 20(4), 327-342.

Gass, S.M. and Mackey, A. (2000). *Stimulated recall methodology in second language research,* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gatbonton, E. (2008). Looking beyond teachers' classroom behaviour: Novice and experienced ESL teachers' pedagogical knowledge. *Language Teaching Research,* 12(2), 161-182.

Gatbonton, E. (1999). Investigating experienced ESL teachers' pedagogical knowledge. *The Modern Language Journal,* 83(1), 35-50.

Gholami, J. and Farrokhi, F. (2008). Reactive and pre-emptive language related episodes and uptake in an EFL class. *The Iranian EFL Journal,* 1(1), 50-83.

Gieve, S. and Miller, I.K. (2006). What do we mean by quality of classroom life?. In Gieve, S and Miller, I.K (Eds.), *Understanding the Language Classroom,* Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 18-46.

Goh, C. (2000). A cognitive perspective on language learners' listening comprehension problems. *System,* 28(1), 55-75.

Goodson, I.F. (1992). Studying teachers' lives: An emergent field of enquiry. In I.F. Goodson (Ed.), *Studying teachers' lives,* London: Routledge, 1-17.

Graham, S. (2006). Listening comprehension: The learners' perspective. *System,* 34(2), 165-182.

Graham, S. (1997). Effective language learning. positive strategies for advanced level language learning. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Green, A.J.K. (1998). *Verbal protocol analysis in language testing,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Green, T.F. (1971). *The activities of teaching,* New York: McGraw Hill.

Grotjahn, R. (1987). On the methodological basis of introspective methods. In C. Faerch and G. Kasper (Eds.), *Introspection in second language research*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 54-81.

Hamp-Lyons, L. (2011). English for academic purposes. In Eli Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning, Volume 2,* Oxon: Routledge.

Hancioglu, N. and Eldridge, J. (2007). Texts and frequency lists: some implications for practising teachers. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 61(4), 330-340.

Harlech-Jones, B. (1983). ESL proficiency and a word frequency count. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 37(1), 62-70.

Harwood, N. (2002). Taking a lexical approach to teaching: principles and problems', *International Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 12(2), 139-155.

Haastrup, K. and Henriksen, B. (2001). The interrelationship between vocabulary acquisition theory and general SLA research. *Eurosla Yearbook*, Vol.1**.** pp. 69-78.

Henry, A. and Metussin, D.R.P.H. (1999). An investigation into the levels of difficulty of certain semantic word classes in a bilingual setting, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism,* 2(1), 13-29.

Hobbs, V. and Kubanyiova, M. (2008). The challenges of researching language teachers: What research manuals don't tell us, *Language Teaching Research,* 12(4), 495-513.

Holliday, A. (2007). Response to 'ELT and ''the spirit of the times'', *English Language Teaching Journal,* 61(4), 360-366.

Horst, M., Collins, L, and Cardoso, W. (2009) *Focus on vocabulary in ESL teacher talk,* Unpublished Paper. Denver, CO.: Annual conference of the American Association for Applied Linguistics.

Hulstijn, J., and Laufer, B. (2001). Some empirical evidence for the involvement load hypothesis in vocabulary acquisition. *Language Learning,* 51(3), 539-558.

Hunt, A. and Beglar, D. (2002). Current research and practice in teaching vocabulary. In J. Richards and W.A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching*. Cambridge:Cambridge University Press, 258-264.

Hyland, K. (2006). *English for academic purposes: An advanced resource book.* London: Routledge.

Jiang, N. (2000). Lexical development and representation in a second language. *Applied Linguistics,* 21(1), 47-77.

Joe, A. (1998). What effects do text-based tasks promoting generation have on incidental vocabulary acquisition?. *Applied Linguistics,* 19(3), 357-377.

Johnson, D. (2005). Review of K. S. Folse, *Vocabulary myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching*. Ann Arbour: The University of Michigan Press, 2004, *TESL EJ,* 8(2), 1-2.

Johnson, K.E. (2009). *Second language teacher education: A sociocultural perspective,* London: Routledge.

Johnson, K. E. (1999). *Understanding language teaching: Reasoning in action,* Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Johnson, K. E (1996). The role of theory in L2 teacher education, *TESOL Quarterly,* 30(4), 765-771.

Johnson, K.E. (1994). The emerging beliefs and instructional practices of preservice English as a second language teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 10(4), 439-452.

Johnson, K.E. (1992). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices during literacy instruction for non-native speakers of English. *Journal of Reading Behavior,* 24(1), 83-108.

Johnston, B. and Goettsch, K. (2000). In search of the knowledge base of language teaching: Explanations by experienced teachers. *Canadian Modern Language Review,* 56(3), 437-468.

Kagan, D.M. (1990). Ways of evaluating teacher cognition: Inferences concerning the Goldilocks principle, *Review of Educational Research.* 60(3), 419-469.

Keating, G.D. (2008). Task effectiveness and word learning in a second language: The involvement load hypothesis on trial. *Language Teaching Research,* 12(3), 365-386.

Kelly, P. (1991). Lexical Ignorance: the main obstacle to listening comprehension with advanced foreign language learners. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching,* 29(2), 135-149.

Kelly, P. (1990). Guessing: No substitute for systematic learning of lexis. *System,* 18(2), 199-207.

Kessels, J. P. and Korthagen, F. A. (1996). The relationship between theory and practice: Back to the classics, *Educational Researcher,* 25(1), 17-22.

Kim, Y. (2008). The role of task-induced involvement and learner proficiency in L2 vocabulary acquisition. *Language Learning,* 58(2), 285-325.

Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Students' and lecturers' perceptions of the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English-medium university in Turkey. *Teaching in higher education,* 14(1), 81-93.

Kırkgöz, Y. (2008). A case study of teachers' implementation of curriculum innovation in English language teaching in Turkish primary education. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 24(7), 1859-1875.

Klingner, J. K. and Vaughn, S. (2004). Strategies for struggling second-language readers. In T. L. Jetton and J. A. Dole (Eds.), *Adolescent literacy research and practice,* New York: The Guilford Press, 183-209.

Knight, S. (1994). Dictionary use while reading: The effects on comprehension and vocabulary acquisition for students of different verbal abilities. *The Modern Language Journal,* 78(3), 285-299.

Konopak, B. C., and Williams, N. L. (1994). Elementary teachers' beliefs and decisions about vocabulary learning and instruction. *Yearbook of the national reading conference*, 43, 485-495.

Kömür, Ş. (2010). Teaching knowledge and teacher competencies: A case study of Turkish preservice English teachers. *Teaching Education,* 21(3), 279-296.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1991). Language-learning tasks: teacher intention and learner interpretation. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 45(2), 98-107.

Kuzborska, I. (2011). Links between teachers' beliefs and practices and research on reading, *Reading in a Foreign Language,* 23(1), 102-128.

Laufer, B. (2009). Second language vocabulary acquisition from language input and from form-focused activities. *Language Teaching,* 42(3), 341-354.

Laufer, B. (2006). Comparing focus on form and focus on forms in second-language vocabulary learning. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 63* (1), 149-166.

Laufer, B. (2005a). Ten best ideas for teaching vocabulary, *The Language Teacher,* 29(7), 3-4.

Laufer, B. (2005b). Instructed second language vocabulary learning: The fault in the 'default hypothesis". In A. Housen and M. Pierrard (Eds.), *Investigations in instructed second language acquisition,* Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 311-332.

Laufer, B. (2003). Vocabulary acquisition in a second language: Do learners really acquire most vocabulary by reading? Some empirical evidence. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 59* (4), 567-587.

Laufer, B. (1997a). What's in a word that makes it hard or easy? Intralexical factors affecting the difficulty of vocabulary acquisition. In N. Schmitt and M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 140-155.

Laufer, B. (1997b). The lexical plight in second language reading: Words you don't know, words you think you know, and words you can't guess. In J. Coady and T. Huckin (Ed.), *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 20-34.

Laufer, B. (1989). A factor of difficulty in vocabulary learning: Deceptive transparency, *AILA Review,* 6(1), 10-20.

Laufer, B. and Girsai, N. (2008). Form-focused instruction in second language vocabulary learning: A case for contrastive analysis and translation. *Applied Linguistics,* 29(4), 694-716.

Laufer, B. and Rozovski-Roitblat, B. (2011). Incidental vocabulary acquisition: The effects of task type, word occurrence and their combination. *Language Teaching Research,* 15(4), 391-411.

Laufer, B. and Hulstijn, J. (2001). Incidental vocabulary acquisition in a second language: The construct of task-induced involvement. *Applied Linguistics,* 22(1), 1–26.

Lee, I. (2009). Ten mismatches between teachers' beliefs and written feedback practice. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 63(1), 13-22.

Leeser, M.J. (2004). Learner proficiency and focus on form during collaborative dialogue. *Language Teaching Research,* 8(1), 55-81.

Leki, I. and Carson, J. (1997). "Completely different worlds": EAP and the writing experiences of ESL students in university courses. *TESOL quarterly,* 31(1), 39-69.

Lewis, M. (1997b). Pedagogical implications of the lexical approach. In J. Coady and T. Huckin (Ed.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition:A rationale for pedagogy,* Cambridge:Cambridge University Press, 255-270.

Lewis, M. (1997a). *Implementing the lexical approach: Putting theory into practice.* Hove: Language Teaching Publications.

Lewis, M. (1993). *The lexical approach: The state of ELT and a way forward.* Hove: Language Teaching Publications.

Li, L. and Walsh, S. (2011). 'Seeing is believing': Looking at EFL teachers' beliefs through classroom interaction. *Classroom Discourse,* 2(1), 39-57.

Liang, S. (2006). *Teaching English vocabulary in the primary classroom in Taiwan: A case study,* Ph.D. dissertation, University of Essex.

Lightbown, P.M. (2000). Anniversary article. Classroom SLA research and second language teaching. *Applied Linguistics,* 21(4), 431-462.

Lincoln, Y.S. and Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Long, M.H. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective,* 2(1), 39-52.

Luk, J. and Wong, R.M.H. (2010). Sociocultural perspectives on teacher language awareness in form-focused EFL classroom instruction. *Linguistics and Education,* 21(1), 29-43.

Lyster, R. (2002). Negotiation in immersion teacher–student interaction. *International Journal of Educational Research,* 37(3), 237-253.

Lyster, R. (2001). Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. *Language Learning,* 51((Suppl. 1)), 265-301.

Lyster, R. (1998). Form in immersion classroom discourse: In or out of focus. *Canadian journal of applied linguistics,* 1(1-2), 53.

Ma, Q. and Kelly, P. (2009). Overcoming hurdles to Chinese students' learning of English lexis?, *Changing English,* 16(4), 405-412.

Macalister, J. (2012). Pre-service teacher cognition and vocabulary teaching, *RELC Journal,* 43(1), 99-111.

Macalister, J. (2010). Investigating teacher attitudes to extensive reading practices in higher education: Why isn't everyone doing it?. *RELC Journal,* 41(1), 59-75.

Mackey, A., Polio, C. and McDonough, K. (2004). The Relationship between experience, education and teachers' use of incidental focus-on-form techniques. *Language Teaching Research,* 8(3), 301-327.

Mak, S.H. (2011). Tensions between conflicting beliefs of an EFL teacher in teaching practice. *RELC Journal,* 42(1), 53-67.

Mangubhai, F. Marland, P. Dashwood, A. and Son, J.B. (2004). Teaching a foreign language: one teacher's practical theory. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 20(3), 291-311.

Martinez, R. and Schmitt, D. (2012). A Phrasal expressions list. *Applied Linguistics,* 33(3), 299-320.

Marton, F. (1981). Phenomenography: describing conceptions of the world around us. *Instructional Science,* 10(2), 177-200.

Mathews-Aydinli, J. and Elaziz, F. (2010). Turkish students' and teachers' attitudes toward the use of interactive whiteboards in EFL classrooms. *Computer Assisted Language Learning,* 23(3), 235-252.

McCrostie, J. (2007). Investigating the accuracy of teachers' word frequency intuitions, *RELC Journal,* 38(1), 53-66.

McDonough, J. (2005). Perspectives on EAP - an interview with Ken Hyland. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 59 (1), 57-64.

McKay, S.L. (2006). *Researching second language classrooms*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

McNeill, A. (2011). Teacher language awareness: insights from vocabulary knowledge profiles and individual teaching philosophies. *Proceedings of the 16th conference of pan-pacific association of applied linguistics,* 8th - 10th August, 2011, 44-47.

McNeill, A. (2005). Nonnative speaker teachers and awareness of lexical difficulty in pedagogical texts. In E.Llurda (Ed.), *Non-Native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession,* New York: Springer, 107-128.

McNeill, A. (2000). Language awareness and L2 teachers: what exactly should teachers be aware of?. Retrieved on 8 June 2010 from http://www.lexically.net/ala/2000Conf/McNeill.htm.

McNeill, A. (1996). Vocabulary knowledge profiles: evidence from Chinese-speaking ESL teacher. *Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 1(1), 39-57.

McNeill, A. (1992). Helping ESL learners to read: Teacher and student perceptions of vocabulary difficulties. *Quilt and quill: Achieving and maintaining quality in language teaching and learning,* Hong Kong: Education Department, 150-165.

McNeill, A. (1990). Second language vocabulary: problems caused by the formal representation of words. *Perspectives,* 21(2), 104-122.

Meara, P. (2005). Ten best ideas for teaching vocabulary. *The Language Teacher.* 29(7), 3-6.

Meara, P. (2002). The rediscovery of vocabulary. *Second Language Research.* 18(4), 393-407.

Meara, P. (1996). The dimensions of lexical competence. G. Brown, K.Malmkjaer, and J. Williams. (Eds.), *Performance and competence in second language acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1996: 35-53.

Meara, P. (1980). Vocabulary acquisition: A neglected aspect of language learning. *Language Teaching and Linguistics: Abstracts.* Cambridge Univ Press 221-246.

Meijer, P. (1999). *Teachers' practical knowledge: Teaching reading comprehension in secondary education.* PhD Thesis, Leiden University.

Meijer, P. C., Verloop, N., and Beijaard, D. (1999). Exploring language teachers' practical knowledge about teaching reading comprehension. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 15(1), 59-84.

Merriam, S.B.A. (1988). *Qualitative approach: Case study research,* London: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Milton, J. (2006). Review of K. S. Folse, *Vocabulary myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching.* Ann Arbour: The University of Michigan Press, 2004. *The Language Learning Journal,* 33, 75-80.

Morimoto, S. and Loewen, S. (2007). A comparison of the effects of image-schema-based instruction and translation-based instruction on the acquisition of L2 polysemous words. *Language Teaching Research.* 11(3), 347-372.

Morris, L. and Cobb, T. (2004). Vocabulary profiles as predictors of the academic performance of teaching english as a second language trainees. *System,* 32(1), 87.-87.

Mukoroli, J. (2011). *Effective vocabulary teaching strategies for the English for academic purposes ESL classroom,* Vermont: SIT Graduate Institute. Retrieved on 11 February 2012 from http://digitalcollections.sit.edu/ipp_collection/501.

Mullock, B. (2006). The pedagogical knowledge base of four TESOL teachers. *The Modern Language Journal,* 90(1), 48-60.

Musumeci, D. (1996). Teacher-learner negotiation in content-based instruction: Communication at cross-purposes?. *Applied Linguistics,* 17(3), 286-325.

Nassaji, H. (2010). The occurrence and effectiveness of spontaneous focus on form in adult ESL classrooms. *Canadian Modern Language Review,* 66(6), 907-933.

Nation, I.S.P. (25 January 2011). Personal Communication.

Nation, I.S.P. (2007). The four strands. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching,* 1(1), 1-12.

Nation, I.S.P. (2005a). Ten best ideas for teaching vocabulary. *The Language Teacher,* 29(7), 5-6.

Nation, I.S.P. (2005b). Teaching Vocabulary. *Asian EFL Journal,* 7(3). Retrieved on 20 May 2009 from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/September_05_pn.php.

Nation, I.S.P. (2004). Vocabulary learning and intensive reading. *EA Journal,* 21(2), 20–29.

Nation, I.S.P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nation, I.S.P. (2000). Learning vocabulary in lexical sets: dangers and guidelines, *TESOL Journal,* 9(2), 6-10.

Nation, I.S.P. (1990). *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary.* New York: Newbury House.

Nation, I.S.P. and Moir, J. (2008). Vocabulary learning and the good language learner. In Carol Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from Good Language Learners.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Newton, J. and Nation, I.S.P. (1997). Vocabulary and teaching. In J. Coady and T. Huckin (Eds.) *Second language vocabulary acquisition,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 238-254.

Nisbett, R. and Wilson, T. (1977). Telling more than we can know: Verbal reports onmental processes. *Psychological Review,* 84(3), 231-259.

Niu, R. and Andrews, S. (2012). Commonalities and discrepancies in l2 teachers' beliefs and practices about vocabulary pedagogy: A small culture perspective. *TESOL Journal,* 6(1), 134-154.

Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Önalan, O. (2005). EFL teachers' perceptions of the place of culture in ELT: A survey study at four universities in Ankara/Turkey. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies.* 1(2), 215–235.

Ooi, D. and Kim-Seohi J.L. 1996. Vocabulary teaching: Looking behind the word. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 50, 52-58.

Orton, R.E. (1996). How can teacher beliefs about student learning be justified?. *Curriculum Inquiry,* 26(2), 133-146.

Oxford, R.L. and Scarcella, R.C. (1994). Second language vocabulary learning among adults: State of the art in vocabulary instruction. *System,* 22(2), 231-243.

OSYM (2009). YOK (Higher Education Council) 2006 Universities. Retrieved on 24 July 2006 from http://www.yok.gov.tr/english/index_en.htm. The 2008-2009 Academic year higher education statistics. Ankara: OSYM Publications.

Pajares, M.F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research. *Review of Educational Research,* 62(3), 307-332.

Patton, M.Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System,* 29(2), 177-195.

Phipps, S. (2009). The relationship between teacher education, teacher cognition and classroom practice in language teaching: A case study of MA Students' beliefs about grammar teaching, PhD Thesis, University of Leeds.

Phipps, S., and Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices, *System,* 37(3), 380-390.

Pinker, S. (1989). *Learnability and cognition: The acquisition of argument structure. Learning, development, and conceptual change,* Cambridge, MA, US.: The MIT Press.

Poole, A. (2005a). The kind of forms learners attend to during focus on form information: A description of an advanced ESL writing class. *Asian EFL Journal,* 7(3), 1-13.

Poole, A. (2005b). Focus on form instruction: foundations, applications, and criticisms. *The Reading Matrix,* 5(1), 47-56.

Popko, J. (2005). How MA-TESOL students use knowledge about language in teaching ESL classes. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Applied linguistics and language teacher education.* USA: Springer, 387-404.

Read, J. (2004). Research in teaching vocabulary. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics,* 24(1), 146-161.

Richards, J.C. and Lockhart, C. (1994). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001). Approaches and methods in language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards**,** J.C. (2010). Competence and performance in language teaching. *RELC Journal*, 41(2), 101–122.

Richards, J.C. (1998). *Beyond training,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C. (1976). The role of vocabulary teaching. *TESOL Quarterly,* 10(1), 77-89.

Richards, K. (2009). Interviews. In Heigham, J. and Croker, R. A. (Eds.), *Qualitative research in applied linguistics: a practical introduction.* Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 182-199.

Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL,* Basingstoke: Palgrave.

Richards, K. (1994). From guessing what teachers think to finding out what teachers know: the need for a research agenda. *TESOL Quarterly,* 28(2), 401-404.

Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. In J. Sikula (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education.* New York: Simon & Schuster Macmillan, 102-119.

Richardson, V. Anders, P. Tidwell, D. and Lloyd, C. (1991). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in reading comprehension instruction. *American Educational Research Journal,* 28(3), 559-586.

Robson, C. (2002). *Real world research.* 2nd Edition. Oxford: Blackwell.

Saigh, K. and Schmitt, N. (2012). Difficulties with vocabulary word form: The case of Arabic ESL learners. *System,* 40(1), 24-36.

Sanaoui, R. (1996). Processes of vocabulary instruction in 10 French as a second language classrooms. *The Canadian Modern Language Review,* 52(2), 179-199.

Sanchez, H.S. (2010). *An investigation into the relationships among experience, teacher cognition, context and classroom practice in EFL grammar teaching in Argentina,* Unpublished PhD Thesis. University of Warwick.

Saraç, S. (2007). Teacher knowledge on grammar teaching: A case study. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education.* 32, 255–265.

Sato, K. and Kleinsasser, R.C. (1999). Communicative language teaching (CLT): practical understandings. *The Modern Language Journal,* 8(4), 494-517.

Schmitt, D. (2006). Review of K. S. Folse, *Vocabulary myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching.* Ann Arbour: The University of Michigan Press, 2004. *Language Teaching Research,* 10(4), 457-459.

Schmitt, N. (2008). Instructed second language vocabulary learning. *Language Teaching Research,* 12(3) 329-363.

Schmitt, N. (2007). Current trends in vocabulary learning and teaching. In J. Cummins, J. and C. Davison (Eds.), *The International handbook of English language teaching,* Springer, 827-841.

Schmitt, N. and Zimmerman, C.B. (2002). Derivative word forms: What do learners know?, *TESOL Quarterly,* 36(2), 145-171.

Schulz, R.A. (1996). Focus on form in the foreign language classroom: Students' and teachers' views on error correction and the role of grammar. *Foreign Language Annals,* 29(3), 343-364.

Schwandt, T. (1994). Constructivist, interpretivist approaches to human inquiry. In Y.S. Lincoln and N.K. Denzin (Eds.), *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues,* CA: Sage, 221-259.

Seedhouse, P. (1997). Combining form and meaning. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 51(4), 336-344.

Seferoğlu, G. Korkmazgil, S. and Ölçü, Z. (2009). Gaining insights into teachers' ways of thinking via metaphors. *Educational Studies,* 35(3), 323-335.

Sendan, F. and Roberts, J. (1998). Orhan: A case study in the development of a student teacher's personal theories. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice,* 4(2), 229-244.

Senior, R. (2006). *The Experience of language teaching.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Silverman, D. (2000). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook,* Thousand Oaks,CA: Sage.

Simpson-Vlach, R. and N. C. Ellis (2010). An academic formulas list: New methods in phraseology research. *Applied Linguistics,* 31(4), 487-512.

Singleton, D. (1999). *Exploring the second language mental lexicon.*Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Singleton, D. (1997). Learning and processing L2 vocabulary: State of the art article. *Language Teaching,* 30(4), 213-225.

Slimani, A. (1991). Evaluation of classroom interaction. In J.C. Alderson and A. Beretton (Eds.), *Evaluating language education.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, .

Smith, C. and Tajino, A. (2003). *Teachers' perceptions of learner difficulty in vocabulary learning.* Retrieved on 5 January 2010 from http://www.developingteachers.com/articles_tchtraining/tchvocabpf_craigakira.htm

Sökmen, A. (1997). Current trends in teaching second language vocabulary. In N. Schmitt and M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sonbul, S. and Schmitt, N. (2010). Direct teaching of vocabulary after reading: Is it worth the effort?. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 64(3), 253-260.

Spada, N. and Lightbown, P.M (2008). Form-focused instruction: Isolated or Integrated?. *TESOL Quarterly,* 42(2), 181-207.

Speer, M.N. (2005). Issues of methods and theory in the study of mathematics teachers' professed and attributed beliefs. *Educational Studies in Mathematics,* 58(3), 361-391.

Stæhr, L.S. (2009). Vocabulary knowledge and advanced listening comprehension in English as a foreign language. *Studies in second language acquisition,* 31, 577-607.

Stake, R.E. (1995). *The art of case study research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stapleton, P. (2013). Using conference submission data to uncover broad trends in language teaching: A case study of one conference over 30 years. *Language Teaching Journal*, 17(2), 144-163.

Svalberg, A.M.L. (2009). Engagement with language: Interrogating a construct, *Language Awareness,* 18(3-4), 242-258.

Swain, M. and Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *The Modern Language Journal,* 82(3), 320-337.

Tajino, A. (1997). Learner difficulty: what is it and how well do we understand it?. *Teacher Trainer,* 11(1) 12-14.

Tajino, A. (1995). Learner difficulty: Self evident or elusive? *TESOL '95. Long Beach, California, USA.* 1995.

Tang, E. and Nesi, H. (2003). Teaching vocabulary in two Chinese classrooms: schoolchildren's exposure to English words in Hong Kong and Guangzhou. *Language Teaching Research,* 7(1), 65-97.

Taylor, B. (1975). The use of overgeneralization and transfer learning strategies by elementary and intermediate students in ESL. *Language Learning,* 25(1), 73-107.

Tercanlioglu, L. (2001). Pre-service teachers as readers and future teachers of EFL reading. *TESL-EJ,* 5(3).

Thornbury, S. (2002). *How to teach vocabulary.* Harlow: Longman.

Thornbury, S. (1998). The lexical approach: A journey without maps?. *Modern English Teacher,* 7 (1), 7-13.

Thomas, D. (2006). A general inductive approach for analysing qualitative evaluation data. *American Journal of Evaluation,* 27(2), 237-246.

Tian, L. and Macaro, E. (2012). Comparing the effect of teacher codeswitching with English-only explanations on the vocabulary acquisition of Chinese university students: A Lexical Focus-on-Form study. *Language Teaching Research,* 16(3), 367-391.

Tsang W. K. (2004). Teachers' personal practical knowledge and interactive decisions. *Language Teaching Research,* 8(2), 163-198.

Tsui, A.B.M. (2003). *Understanding expertise in teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tudor, I. (2003). Learning to live with complexity: towards an ecological perspective on language teaching. *System,* 31 (1), 1-12.

Tudor, I. (2002). Exploring context: Localness and the role of ethnography. *Humanising Language Teaching,* 4(2), 1-6.

Tudor, I. (2001). *The dynamics of the language classroom.* Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

Tudor, I. (1998). Rationality and rationalities in language teaching. *System,* 26(3), 319-334.

Van Canh, L. and Barnard, R. (2009). A survey of Vietnamese EAP teacher's beliefs about grammar teaching. In Zhang, L.J., & Rubdy, R., & Alsagoff, L. (Eds.) *Englishes and Literatures-in-English in a Globalised World: Proceedings of the 13th International Conference on English in Southeast Asia* 2009, National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University 246-259.

Vanci Osam, U.V. and Balbay, S. (2004). Investigating the decision-making skills of cooperating teachers and student teachers of English in a Turkish context. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 20(7), 745-758.

VanPatten, B. (Ed.). (2004). *Processing instruction: Theory, research, and commentary.* Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Verloop, N., Van Driel, J. and Meijer, P. (2001). Teacher knowledge and the knowledge base of teaching. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 35(5), 441-461.

Walsh, S. (2006). Talking the talk of the TESOL classroom. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 60(2), 133-141.

Walsh, S. (2003). Developing interactional awareness in the second language classroom through teacher self-evaluation. *Language Awareness,* 12(2), 124-142.

Watts, S.M. (1995). Vocabulary instruction during reading lessons in six classrooms. *Journal of Literacy Research,* 27(3), 399-424.

Wenden, A. (1999). An introduction to metacognitive knowledge and beliefs in language learning: Beyond the basics. *System,* 27 (4), 435-441.

Wette, R. (2011). Process-product distinctions in ELT curriculum theory and practice. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 65(2), 136-144.

Wette, R. (2009). Making the instructional curriculum as an interactive, contextualized process: Case studies of seven ESOL teachers. *Language Teaching Research,* 13(4), 337-366.

Williams, J. (2001). The effectiveness of spontaneous attention to form. *System,* 29 (3), 325-340.

Williams, J. (1999). Learner-generated attention to form. *Language Learning,* 49 (4), 583–625.

Woods, D. (23 February 2010). Personal Communication.

Woods, D. (2009). Review of teacher cognition and language education: research and practice. *The Canadian Modern Language Review,* 65 (3), 511-513.

Woods, D. (1997). Decision-making in language learning: A lens for examining learner strategies', 19 October, 1997. Retrieved on 5 April, 2010 from (http://www.jalt-publications.org/tlt/files/97/oc/woods.html).

Woods, D. (1996) *Teacher cognition in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Woods, D. and Çakır, H. (2011). Two dimensions of teacher knowledge: The case of communicative language teaching. *System,* 39(3), 381-390.

Wright, T. (2010). Second language teacher education: Review of recent research on practice, *Language Teaching,* 43(3), 259-296.

Wyatt, M. and Borg, S. (2011). Development in the practical knowledge of language teachers: A comparative study of three teachers designing and using communicative tasks on an in-service BA TESOL programme in the Middle East. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching,* 5(3), 233-252.

Xue, G. and Nation, I.S.P. (1984). A University word list. *Language Learning and Communication,* 3(2), 215-229.

Yin, R.K. (1994). *Case study research: Design and methods, applied social research methods series.* London: Sage.

Yin, R.K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods.* Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Yin, R.K. (2008). *Case study research: Design and methods,* Sage Publications.

YOK (2012). Retrieved on 3 September 2011 from http://www.yok.gov.tr/content/view/527/222/lang,tr.

Yoshida, R. (2010). How do teachers and learners perceive corrective feedback in the Japanese language classroom?. *The Modern Language Journal,* 94(2), 293-314.

Yoshikawa, M. (1998). Vocabulary acquisition by advanced learners: factors that cause difficulty for advanced learners. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics Series*, 15, 169-182.

Zhang, W. (2008). *In search of English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' knowledge of vocabulary instruction.* Unpublished PhD Thesis. Washington: Georgia State University.

Zhou, A.A. (2009). What adult ESL learners say about improving grammar and vocabulary. *Language Awareness,* 18(1), 31-46.

Zimmerman, C.B. (2008). *Word knowledge: The vocabulary teacher's handbook.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Zimmerman, C.B. (2005). Teachers' perceptions of lexical anomalies. In D. Atkinson P.Bruthiaux W.Grabe and V.Ramanathan. (Eds.), *Directions in applied linguistics: Essays in honor of Robert Kaplan,* Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters, 131-145.

Zimmerman, C.B. (1997). Do reading and interactive vocabulary instruction make a difference? An Empirical study. *TESOL Quarterly,* 31(1), 121-140.

APPENDICES

Sökmen, 1997:

1. Integrate new words with old
2. Provide a number of encounters with a word
3. Promote a deep level of processing.
4. Use a variety of techniques
5. Encourage independent learning strategies

Barcroft, 2004:

1. Present new words frequently and repeatedly in input.
2. Use meaning-bearing comprehensible input when presenting new words.
3. Limit forced output during the initial stages of learning new words.
4. Limit forced semantic elaboration during the initial stages of learning new words.
5. Progress from less demanding to more demanding vocabulary-related activities.

Laufer, 2005:

1. Do not rely too much on uninstructed acquisition
2. Create your own lexical syllabus
3. Do not count on guessing strategies to replace vocabulary knowledge
4. Increase learners' vocabulary size
5. Recycle words that have been introduced earlier in the course
6. Give frequent vocabulary tests
7. Draw learners' attention to "synforms"
8. Pay attention to interlingual semantic differences
9. Do not ban the L1 translation of words
10. Practice the use of collocations that differ from the learners' L1

Meara, 2005:

1. Teach your students to use a mnemonic system
2. Set demanding vocabulary targets for your students
3. Teach words in context
4. Get the students to read something new every day
5. Get your students to write something every day

6. Get students to review their vocabulary regularly

7. Play word association games

8. Watch videos with subtitles

9. Listen to songs

10. Learn a book by heart

Nation, 2004:

1. High frequency words

2. Focus on strategy development for low frequency words

3. Give attention to a range of aspects that are involved in knowing a word

4. Make sure that teaching considers the future rather than present value of a particular item

Nation, 2005a:

1. Apply principles of teaching and learning

2. Approach high and low frequency words differently

3. Use the four strands

4. Implement an extensive reading program

5. Carefully design speaking and writing activities

6. Use a variety of activities aimed at fluency development

7. Provide extended training and practice in guessing unknown vocabulary from context

8. Train students to use word cards

9. Teach the high frequency affixes of English

10. Encourage learner autonomy

Nation, 2005b:

1. Keep the teaching simple and clear. Don't give complicated explanations.

2. Relate the present teaching to past knowledge by showing a pattern or analogies.

3. Use both oral and written presentation - write it on the blackboard as well as explaining.

4. Give most attention to words that are already partly known.

5. Tell the learners if it is a high frequency word that is worth noting for future attention.

6. Don't bring in other unknown or poorly known related words like near synonyms, opposites, or

members of the same lexical set.

Beglar and Hunt, 2005:

1. Provide access to decontextualised and contextualised input.

2. Encourage communicative output.

3. Provide form-focused instruction.

4. Promote fluency development.

5. Enhance student motivation.

6. Develop effective strategy use.

Hunt and Beglar 1998 (cited in Schmitt 2008)

1. Provide opportunities for the incidental learning of vocabulary.
2. Diagnose which of the 3000 most common words learners need to study.
3. Provide opportunities for the intentional learning of vocabulary.
4. Provide opportunities for elaborating word knowledge.
5. Provide opportunities for developing fluency with known vocabulary.
6. Experiment with guessing from context.
7. Examine different types of dictionaries and teach students how to use them.

Zimmerman, 2008

1. Be selective in the words they target for instruction and the info they present about these words
2. Provide opportunities for adequate repetition and effective practice of vocabulary items
3. Monitor their students' understanding.

Folse, 2004: (*Vocabulary Myths*)

1. Using word lists to learn second language vocabulary is unproductive.
2. Presenting new vocabulary in semantic sets facilitates learning.
3. The use of translations to learn new vocabulary should be discouraged.
4. Guessing words from context is an excellent strategy for learning second language vocabulary.

APPENDIX 2: Episode: *agony aunt* (Pilot study in which the teacher elaborated a culturally-specific word and checked whether learners took in the meaning).

T: agony

S: agony?

T: agony what's agony?...does anybody know what agony is?

S: (no reply)

T: gesturing ..touching his stomach..aching…and 'ah..'…real real pain

S: yeah

T: but agony aunt ...you all understand 'aunt'? …uncle…agony…you could contact your agony aunt …

T: **agony aunt…**

S: agony aunt

T: agony aunt

S: agony

T: Where is the stress?

S: first one

T: first one isn't it?

T: agony aunt

S: agony aunt

S: agony

T: aunt

S: aunt

T: can anybody guess or does anybody know what that is?

S: we have a in a newspaper

T: magazine possibly on the radio or TV…agony aunt with your personal problems..

T: do you see what I mean?

S: yes

T: agony aunt

S: agony aunt

S-S: you tell your problem he/she has column

T: so agony aunt..

S: agony aunt

T: is that all right, ok.

T: it is a …a…usually as I said you find them in newspapers don't you or magazines…they answer letters …if you have a personal problem…you write a personal problem…

S: maybe phone call…like slipless in siitle

T: Seattle…

S: seattle

T: is that right? I have never seen that film…I don't know…is that the same thing they ringing for their problems

S: yes

T: you have this in Libya

S: no..no

T: no

T: Saudi

S: yes yes…we have…but (pointing to the 'citizen advice center' on the board)…the same I think

S: no it's not the same

T: this is a private… advisor .. this is a government..council organization..

S: you have to pay or?

T: no … agony aunt…this is you find it in newspaper …magazine

Topic: Lexis instruction

Researcher: Sukru Nural, *PhD Student, School of Education, University of Leicester*

Dear Participant,

I wish to invite you to be one of the participants in the above mentioned research study. This research seeks to explore the role of lexis instruction in EAP classrooms with a reference to your actual teaching practices. Your participation in the study is of immense importance to the success of the study and could result in our mutual understanding of the topic under study.

The research is conducted with respect to your rights, interests and dignity in conformity with rules and regulations of the British Educational Research Association (BERA), Revised Ethical Guidelines (2004). Any information given by you will be used for research purposes only, will be reported with utmost integrity and objectivity and will be treated with extreme respect to privacy, confidentiality and anonymity. No participant in the study or the institution in which they work will be identified in the final outcome of the study, be it in the form of publication (book chapter; article) or in the form of a PhD thesis.

Your participation will be in the form of interview which is to be conducted following each classroom observation (approximately 20 hours in total). You will be interviewed face-to-face for about one hour during which you are asked to reflect on classroom transcript. Further information about the procedure will be provided at the time of interview. Information will be recorded both in written and audio-taped form with your permission at the time of the interview. As a participant you are free to withdraw from the exercise at any time if you wish to. Written transcripts of interviews conducted will be given back to you for any possible omissions/corrections or reconsiderations and only then will they be included in the study for further analysis.

Should you agree to take part in this research study keeping in view the above information, please complete the following together with your signature.

Thank you.

Name_____

Position/status _____

I Agree / Disagree to participate (Please circle your choice)

Signature _____ Date _____

Episodes referred to in passing throughout the thesis (in alphabetical order)

Episode: *affective/effective*

T: **Affective**

S: neutral

T: what is the meaning of **affective** here? Often it's actually confused with another word. [writing on the board: affective / effective]

S: emotional

T: Alper what did you say? [nominating a student to repeat he's said]

S: emotional

T: we learnt this before, did not we? affective… erm factors, about your feelings Effective means how well you do something, but affective is emotional … affective is not very clear, Cagil [asking a student if he has problem with it]?

S: verimli?

T: is it verimli? [Aside] is it efficient I wonder. They are close aren't they? Effective and efficient are close they seem to be about verimli, what is effective? If your plan is an effective plan for example it is a plan that works well so is…'etkili' is good or 'ise yarar'. Is it clear Cagla? [Confirming if the student understood this time]

Episode: *adolescence*

S: 'changes in our body during adolescence/'ædolesi:ns/ ... can cause ...' (reading out the sentence in the T/F comprehension task, student got stuck on pronouncing the word while reading)

T: adolescence, adolescence ok, **adolescence** what's that?

S: Yasemin: I'm an adult.

T: You're an adult ok so am I. So, hands up if you're over 20. Those of us who are above 20 are either adolescents. **Adolescence** is usually your teenage years when you're growing and changing ok so growing up, physical and mental yeah..also emotional, mental and physical changes so all of you are still adolescent …13-17. So adolescent..so Yusuf…obviously.

T: (writing on the board) s..c…, woww a difficult word adolescence, adolescence OK., so it's the time, the time you're growing, teenage years, your teenagers.

T: do you think adolescence, it's a difficult time or easy time.

S: difficult

S: no very easy

T: easy? So let's ask then…. Personally did you find it difficult or OK?

S: OK.

S2: very easy

T: do some people …find difficult and some people easy. Some ADOLESCENTS are having hard time maybe they…they become rebellious they..they fight their parents. Do your daughters do they find difficult or easy adolescence?

Yasemin: one is difficult, second one is OK. Maybe I have more experienced,

T: yes, that's true. Parents usually fear this..they look and hoowwww adolescence what do I do?

S: -asking about a question about you--- inaudible

T: yes, I have a sister who is a year older than me and for my parents she was difficult and I was easy because we took different roles, my sister became the rebel she was rebellious and I became a good girl.

S: (laughter)

Yasemin: different roles

T: yes…

Episode: *anxiety*

T: OK you are getting the idea….the difference between and but, how to use the transitions.

T: Today I feel really worried, ok really really worried. This feeling I have there's another word in English.

S: excited

T: excited? No excited is good, I'm not nervous coz I don't have an exam or anything. You get nervous about an exam I just feel very worried.

S: /æŋˈziːtə/

T: who's looking at their books?

S: notebook

T: what's the word?

S: /æŋˈziːtə/

T: **anxiety** /æŋˈzaɪ.ə.ti/, ok, anxiety. You're feeling anxiety ok which is a noun, ok which is a noun. So there's an adjective there's a better of saying I feel or I am…

S: anxiety

T: anxious, I feel anxious. Are you feeling anxious today Ebrar (asking a student)?

S: no

T: no you're not anxious, I don't know I feel really anxious, ok it's a very GOOD word in English.

S: really?

T: it's really a good word in English.

S: no…are you anxious today?

T: No, I just made it up. I just tried to think about something worrying. So anxious, this is a really good word in English we would use it all the time. When there is something that worries you making you feel stressed you're anxious OK. Anxiety is the noun, and less used than the adjective. Anxious is used most often. I'm feeling anxious today ok which means I'm really worried.and it's an extreme worry. Anxiety is a strong word.

S-yasemin: this one…is a strong word? (looking quizzically)

T: it's not a little bit worried it is actually VERY worried, something that makes you feel very worried. OK…So…good it is good to mimic..

S: how do you say an…?

T: anxious

S: no the other one [referring to *anxiety*]

T: anxiety; anxiety. I'm feeling anxiety. Ok good, so…

Episode: *ambiguity/ambition*

T: We gonna start with the listening after the break but Listening is about teams in the workplace. As far as you know you probably took part in teams not in work but maybe sports maybe projects or other things in your past experiences. What do you think are the most important characteristics of a good team? Just a couple of ideas

S: ambiguity

T: ambiguity ha …

S: noun form is ambitious right?

T: no…so ambition

Ss: [laughing]

T: that would be ambition, do we remember what **ambiguity** is? We did have ambiguity in our list. You remember?

S2: yeterli [meaning adequate]

T: no that is adequate

S3: not very clear

T: yes if we have ambiguity it is not very clear like some laws are ambiguous you can stretch them to this side you can stretch them to the other side and they can still work, but you think **ambition** is important for a good team. What else?

Episode: *deformity*

T: Changing the original shape, it is not original shape anymore

S: (remembers the word) hae deformity

T: distort is slightly different. How about if I distort some facts? I have facts and I distort them. Yes I made them look like something else. I twist them I change them in such a way that they are not true anymore OK so distortion is a slightly different. This is sort of physical is not it deformity. It is not in the original shape anymore but in distortion. It is a sort of actually you sort of breaking the shape, aren't you? Let's say I am a politician and I say something…gave a long speech, 15 min long, but what media sometimes does is they just pick one sentence they make it look completely different as if I have said something different. They just take that sentence. They don't have what I said before and what I said afterwards. So this sort of distort my message because they only look at the tiny bit of what I said. When you look at the films how they portray the history and information OK so let me give this for now because we will come back to this later.

T: And deformity…what is example for deformity?

S: not in its own original form any more

T: Broken nose is sort of visible … thing or what else?

S: Which one are we looking at? So we can visualise it a bit more

T: I don't know what is the other example in your mind?

S: Deformity in a machine [...]

Episode: *divert, deviate distort*

[...]

T: it is actually similar. [let me write it on the top of it close] **Deviate** and **divert** are actually very similar. You can even you use them as snynonyms for each other. You deviate you divert in many cases you can even use them synonymously … let me see what else anything else i need to say about them deviate…is also a departure from standard OK so it is also worth putting that down it is the same you change the direction but it is also … like a departure from norms or standards OK we always doing the same thing there is a routine way of doing it if you deviate you do it differently. does that make any sense does that help you to differentiate a bit more the difference between them?

Distort is actually quite different but i think these two are very close also mean the same thing it may change if there is a specific context but for you I think at the moment you could think them as synonymous. I did expect that you have a difficulty especially I think when you translate from Turkish they have similar meaning so it is difficult to know when do I use which one. Erm… Were there any other ones that you had difficult ones? You didnt ask me individually but anything that comes to your mind?

S: no

T: no OK now lets see then erm… we'll do a bit of a revision can you …[what was the seating plan] Emre and Ebru [grab these chairs sit around this group].

Episode: *dub*

T: Dub?, what's **dub** mean?

S: giving a good name

T: yes, to give a familiar name or another word, so called 'global epidemic'… what's an epidemic?

Ss (3 students): disease.

StD: change from body to body … some people are affected.

T: close… there's may be a stronger meaning

S (Y): like a flu, it can be epidemic so everyone get …erm…flu.

T: yeah, so there's a huge…benefit or huge…

S (Y): no not benefit (laughing)

T: …problem

Ss: yes,

T: if something is epidemic it becomes a huge problem… so a global epidemic is a global problem or something huge or a negative problem, epidemic yeah.

T: so…stress, if you think about is a global epidemic. Last year, what was the epidemic illness?

S: swine flu?

T: yes, that was the global epidemic but stress is … every year. OK number 5, Sumeyra (calling a student to read out the next sentence).

Episode: *financial*

S1: financial /faɪˈnæn.tʃəjʌl/

S2: financial

Notes: from time to time, the students in the other group corrected the speaker's pronunciation

---

Episode: *insist/consist*

T: What does consist mean?

S: Not consist

T: But you said it, what was the other word? I think you were going to say insist

---

Episode: *mysterious*

S: (S read out a small extract about folktales in the coursebook)

T: (after S finished reading the extract, T gave feedback about his pronunciation)... **Mysterious**, mysterious... OK. It belongs to mystery, mysterious events, mystery. So this is folktales, they could be magical or they might be mysterious. OK...we going to listen to a folktale ''How Raven Gave Light'', what do you think a raven is.... it's a bird, it is a character in the story OK. Look at the bottom of the page... you've got two words...Yusuf, can you read the first one.

Episode: *multitasking*

T: Yasemin, the next one

S: reading from the book (I do one thing at a time). I have to do many things at a time.

T: women can do a lot of things one at a time like my mother can be making dinner, ironing, watching TV at the same time.

S1: The same as me, I do ironing and watch TV so I don't waste any time. (laughter). It relaxes me.

T: the word for this is actually multitasking, **multitasking**…

St1: so most women are multitasking persons.

T: yes, we…erm…the general idea is that women can multitask, OK…so… multitask noun (writing on the board) multitasking verb….

StD2: what about men?

T: supposedly men cannot multitask

S: why?

T: …according to research…

S: I'm like this…

T: you are like this OK…so some men can then multitask. women can multitask, but men cannot… according to research. Supposedly, women we tend to use different part of our brain so we are able to do many things at once.

S: why?

T: research says that, not me. I read this somewhere I cannot remember…

S: I think single men can do …

T: you think single men can do, yeah maybe they can learn, my brother cannot though. My brother, for example…if he tries to do that he will burn the ironing or the TV will blow up or something. He has to do one thing at a time.

S: he would get nervous when he has to do a lot of things.

T: my brother does, definitely. So I don't know we cannot say that for all men, OK. 'I do one thing at a time'.

T: who does one thing at a time…? Who sometimes, never, ?

Episode: *selfish*

S: 'selfish'... (dictionary definition in the book)

T: selfish, who in the room is **selfish**?

S: ...I'm not...

T: (laughing) ohh...nobody. aa do you think you are selfish (talking to another student who said she was selfish) Actually, I read an article in a newspaper, we should be selfish because we should protect ourselves but it doesn't mean we stop caring about others ...I don't know. OK

Episode: *spoken-oral/pass down*

T: do you think in Ireland we have folktales, ...

S: yes,

T: of course, we do. Let's look at the folktales, what are they? OK, are they stories we read in books or are they stories we hear...

S: we hear...

T: yes, we hear...so they're ...spoken. What's another word for **spoken**? For example, spoken exam... it tests...

S: speaking

T: OK, yes... it tests your...

StD: **oral**...

T: yes, it tests your oral skills. If it's spoken, that means it's oral, somebody tells it not writes it. So folk tales are often oral tales...Maybe a grandmother tells her daughter, and daughter tells her daughter... they get passed down ... which means handed from generation to generation. ...Does anyone have any memories of your granddad or grandma told you...?

S: yes, I remember the memories...but I cannot tell.

T: OK, we won't challenge you.

APPENDIX 5: Glosses in the coursebook

1

Preview

For online assignments, go to

myacademicconnectionslab

Key Words

emotional *adj* related to feelings

manage *v* to succeed in doing something difficult, such as dealing with a problem

respond *v* to react to something that has been said or done

stress *n* the feeling of being worried because of difficulties in your life; **stressed** *adj*; **stressful** *adj*

stressor *n* a situation that causes a stress reaction

Previewing the Academic Content

Every day we experience different kinds of problems—some small, some big. For some people, getting to work might be the most difficult part of the day. Others experience real dangers to their physical and emotional happiness—an accident, the sickness of a loved one, or the loss of a job. Stress is how our bodies and minds respond to these situations. Stress is a normal part of life, but too much stress can seriously affect our health. Scientists and health professionals study how stress affects the human body, and they suggest ways to lower stress. They also study new kinds of stress that people are experiencing in today's world. You will examine these issues in this unit.

1. Look at the pictures. Discuss the questions in small groups.

1. What is the cause of stress in each picture?

2. What are some other common causes of stress?

3. Do you think life today is more or less stressful than life 50 years ago? How about life 5,000 years ago? Explain.

38 Unit 3 ■ Health

APPENDIX 6: The handout in which the lexical item '*neglect*' appeared

Are you stressed? Find out by taking the test below.

(This test is not meant to replace a clinical assessment but to help you judge how you are doing. If you score as stressed you may need to seek help.)Answer these twenty questions: Yes or No.

1. Do you frequently neglect your diet?

    ○ Yes

    ○ No

2. Do you frequently try to do everything yourself?

    ○ Yes

    ○ No

3. Do you frequently blow up easily?

    ○ Yes

    ○ No

4. Do you frequently seek unrealistic goals?

    ○ Yes

    ○ No

5. Do you frequently fail to see the humor in situations others find funny?

    ○ Yes

    ○ No

6. Do you frequently get easily irritated?

    ○ Yes

    ○ No

7. Do you frequently make a "big deal" of everything?

    ○ Yes

    ○ No

8. Do you frequently complain that you are disorganized?

    ○ Yes

    ○ No

APPENDIX 7: INPUT list

Intermediate Teaching & Learning Programme Unit 3 –HEALTH & MEDICINE: Perspectives on Illness

	INPUT 1 Listening The Common Cold	INPUT 2 Reading The Placebo & Nacebo Effects	INPUT 3 Listening Disease Hunting	INPUT 4 Reading The Oracle of DNA	OUTPUT 1 Writing The First Step to Healthy Paragraphs	OUTPUT 2 Speaking Genetic Dilemmas
LEXIS	recover alleviate congestion feed tremendous	attain authority bother commonplace confront dismiss evolve emperor expose fake hint influential intervene invoke mankind obstruction outcome poison release relieve remarkably removal rush skeptical solely trigger undergo witness advocate assign	adequate suspicious coordinate hunter incidence organization population	ambiguity arrogance astonishing beforehand characterize commitment consent constructively consult defective downfall ensure ethical fatal inevitable indeterminate mission policy provoke pursue prospective riot seek slip status subsequent sustain terminate terrified unbearable viable wealthy withhold	conclusive countless initiate large-scale revenge tribe	tease proponent
USEFUL PHRASES	to take effect to have a good understanding of to come in(to) contact with sth to have (more) to do withsSth when it comes to sth to be in (closer) contact with sb	in advance to respond to a drug/treatment to take an oath in the name of so-called to come to the general public's attention to have contact with sth in relation to	to be concerned with to have a better chance of to identify with to keep up-to-date to run a test a turning point in one's career/life could not help doing sth to pay attention to sth let alone on top of this/that to keep a watchful eye out for sth to watch out for	to place importance on sth to take courses of action to have sth in common at large to cope with to be free from to turn away from sth	to be made up of	

223