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Teachers' Beliefs and Practices: ESL Teachers' Perceptions of Vocabulary Instruction

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**Teachers' Beliefs and Practices: ESL Teachers' Perceptions of
Vocabulary Instruction**

by

Danhua Lu

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of

St. Cloud State University

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Abstract

This objective of this study is to explore ESL teachers' perceptions and practices about vocabulary instruction. The research also aims to explore whether teachers' beliefs are congruent with their practices. Twenty-five ESL teachers took part in this study. They completed a survey, which could reflect teachers' belief on vocabulary instruction. Then the researcher observed three of participants' classes for one month. The observation may provide insights into how teachers actually teach vocabulary in class. At the end of the study, the researcher collected all teaching materials of three observed teachers and had a focus group discussion with them. The results show that participants held a positive attitude towards explicit vocabulary instruction in general but they also supported implicit teaching. From the class observation and focus group study, it can be concluded that some teachers act differently from what they believe. Finally, some pedagogical implications, like suggestions for supervisor, can be drawn from this study.

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Chapter I: Introduction

For most English language learners, writing can be a daunting subject to them compared to listening, reading, and speaking. After entering college study, students still feel stressed as academic study puts more emphasis on writing. So, how to assist second language learners to improve writing may not be only an urgent issue for writing teachers but also for more teachers who teach other subjects. “Unfortunately, traditionally vocabulary has received less attention in second language (L2) pedagogy than any of these other aspects, particularly grammar” (Folse, 2004a, p. 28). The researcher randomly visited 10 United States-based English program websites and found seven of the 10 intensive programs do not include vocabulary classes. Listening, speaking, grammar, writing, and reading are commonly regarded as core language skills by these programs. Also, from this researcher’s own learning experience, if vocabulary class does exist in some programs, the possible learning objective is merely to expand vocabulary size rather than teach word knowledge. Hinkel (2015) claimed that “basic written prose can begin to emerge only when the learner’s vocabulary range exceeds 2,000 words” (p. 84). This suggests that lower level students’ writing may possibly be more influenced by vocabulary learning than higher level students’ writing. Hence, it is possible that the lack of vocabulary instruction disadvantages the development of writing, especially for second language beginners. I think this matter is worthy of attention. It is necessary to investigate how teachers give students vocabulary instruction.

Problem Statement

Learning vocabulary has been regarded by some teachers to be the students’ own work. These teachers claim that they have done enough work to teach writing so vocabulary should be the students’ job. Additionally, Muncie (2002) mentioned that most teacher training programs do

not include vocabulary-teaching methods in the curriculum. Some teachers and even language programs seem to be unclear about the central role of vocabulary in language acquisition in general, and specifically in terms of writing. In other words, it is very necessary to explore the relationship between productive knowledge of vocabulary and writing. In order to achieve this goal, I want to identify teachers' vocabulary instruction. It may also occur that teachers claim that they give students explicit instruction; however, they actually do not act like what they said. The disconnection between teachers' beliefs and practices might result in some teaching problems, such as the failure to achieve the learning objectives for a course.

Aim of the Study

As writing is an essential but also challenging language skill, teachers need to find efficient ways to help students improve it. If students want to study in English-speaking countries, they not only have to pass language proficiency tests such as TOEFL or IEFLTS, in which writing tasks always occupy important scales, they also need to be equipped with proficient writing skills for their future academic study. So, it is essential to figure out how to efficiently help students with developing students' vocabulary for writing. Teachers are suggested to give explicit vocabulary teaching in writing class so that students can focus on vocabulary knowledge, which can be beneficial on improving writing performance (Hinkel, 2011a). Teachers' beliefs on vocabulary teaching need to be investigated. Additionally, it is important to see if teachers' beliefs are congruent with their practices.

Chapter II: Literature Review

To study how prior vocabulary acquisition affects writing, this chapter will include five separate subsections of relevant research: second language vocabulary acquisition, explicit instruction and implicit instruction, second language vocabulary teaching, the relationship between second language writing and explicit vocabulary instruction, and teachers' beliefs and practices.

Definition of Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition

For some second language learners, vocabulary acquisition seems to be just knowing the meaning of a word. By contrast, vocabulary acquisition actually is a complex process which involves many aspects. As Nation (2013) summarized, knowing a word should include knowledge about “form (spoken/written/word parts), meaning (form and meaning/ concept and referents/ associations), and use (grammatical functions/ collocations/ constraints on use) from the general level” (p. 60). For instance, students need to learn a new lexis “medical.” At first, they will encounter and remember the word form of “medical” is adjective. Then students continue learning the word meaning and know the definition is relating to illness and injuries and to their treatment or prevention. The last stage of word knowledge “use” involves producing sentences with the word “medical” correctly. Students may often feel challenged to use the target word in a sentence. But using the target vocabulary may involve a deep processing activity of the word, enhancing vocabulary acquisition. For instance, in the following sentence, “Medical research has led to better treatment for diabetes patients” students need to consider word meaning (something to do with medicine), grammatical form (adjective), and use of collocation (adjective + noun: medical research) in composing this sentence. In addition, some students

normally may make errors in this process. Take the following student' sentences as an example.

“When I am sick I use some traditional medical.” “Medical,” as an adjective, cannot be used after the transitive verb “use” and should be substituted by its noun form “medicine.” This student obviously did not pay close attention to grammatical function of the word “medical” here nor the need for an object noun to follow a transitive verb. Feedback would persuade the student to reflect this mistake, strengthening the deep processing of a word as well.

What's more, the concept of vocabulary does not just mean a single word but also includes word families, set phrases, variable phrases, phrasal verbs and idioms (Folse, 2004b). Take “medical” as an example again. Its word families contain “medicine (noun),” “medicate (verb),” “medically (adverb).” Additionally, there are fixed phrases or collocations, that occur with the word medical, such as “medical care,” “medical service,” “medical treatment,” “a medical center,” “the medical profession,” “medical information” and so on. According to Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom, 1956), knowledge, including word knowledge, is acquired from basic level of remembering and understanding basic rules or principles to highest level of producing original utterances. Figure 1 shows that there are six phases to experience when people acquire new knowledge: remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating.

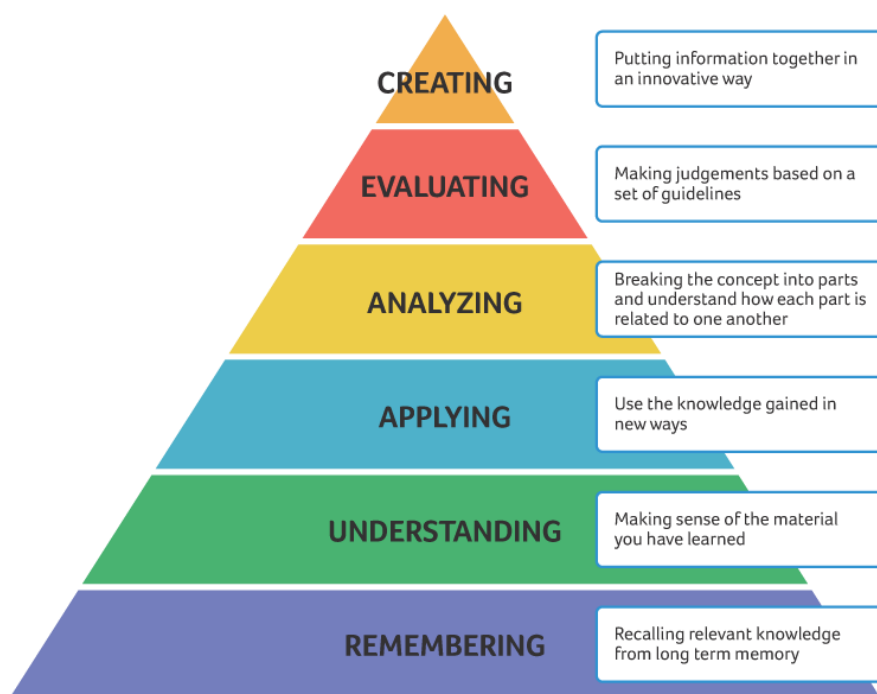


Figure 1. Bloom's Taxonomy (Newsela Blog, 2015)

I will continue using the example “medical” to illustrate the Bloom's Taxonomy. The word knowledge about the form of “medical” should be acquired in the “remembering” stage. Learners will be exposed to the form of the word “medical” for 10 to 16 times and the acquisition of form includes spoken form (how to pronounce “medical”), written form (how to spell “medical”), and word part (“medical”: adjective) (Hinkel, 2015). The learning of form has been mentioned previously when talking about the definition of knowing a new word too. After that, students need to connect form and meaning in the “understanding” stage. Learners can connect the form of “medical” with meaning relating to illness and injuries and to their treatment or prevention. A higher skill is to “use” the word in a sentence during the “applying” stage. Students need to consider how to use “medical” in sentences. Then students need to link other word knowledge with the word in the “analyzing” stage, like distinguishing medical from some

of its word family words such as medicine. Students review feedback from teachers in the “evaluating” phase. They can be clear about the grammatical function of the lexis “medical,” such as “Where, when, and how often can we use this word” (Hinkel, 2015, p. 49). Finally, in the “creating” phase they try to produce original works like essays by using new words. Therefore, vocabulary acquisition is actually an extremely complicated process which is associated with deeper and wider learning.

Vocabulary learning is a truly fundamental subject which can affect the learning of all second language skills. As Hinkel (2015) stated, vocabulary teaching can occur in a variety of language courses, from listening and speaking to reading and writing. In fact, Sonbul and Schmitt’s (2010) study shows that direct instruction on vocabulary helps students deal with the deepest level of knowledge during the reading activity, greatly improving reading proficiency. Among these language courses, vocabulary knowledge can be further divided into two categories: receptive or input knowledge (understood in reading or listening) and productive or output knowledge (used in writing or speaking). There is a long standing argument over the relationship between input and output in second language acquisition. Krashen’s (1982) Monitor Model suggests that second language acquisition results from comprehensible input. Under the influence of this model, communicative language teaching became increasingly popular in second language class, which stresses the role of input in L2 acquisition (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). However, some researchers criticized the input hypothesis, including Swain and Lapkin (1995). They believe that input is not the only source to acquire second language and output can promote language acquisition too. “When producing the target language, learners may have a chance to notice a problem, which stimulates learners to engage in a linguistic analysis leading to

modified output” (Swain & Lapkin, 1995, p. 386). More recent research shows that input and output may be in a more complicated relationship. According to MacWhinney’s Competition Model (2001), “language comprehension is based on the detection of a series of cues and the reliability and availability of these determines the strength of cues in comprehension” (p. 70). In other words, the model claims that input controls language learning and language processing and output is the chosen results of competition among the possible cues (Saville-Troike, 2006). To conclude, it is possible that the interplay of input and output contributes to the development of second language acquisition. Thus, knowledge of vocabulary may be acquired through both receptive and productive activities.

When it comes to vocabulary, however, some researchers believe the learning of receptive knowledge in some degree precedes the learning of productive knowledge (Lee & Muncie, 2016). For this reason, students sometimes recognize words in reading and listening but feel more hesitant to produce the same words in speaking and writing. The possible gap may be that “productive knowledge of vocabulary requires more learning than receptive knowledge” (Nation, 2013, p. 271). In order to fill the gap between receptive and productive vocabulary, Hinkel (2015) suggested learners need to make special efforts to convert receptive word knowledge into productive word knowledge. A “depth of word knowledge learning is necessary because it can offer learners a rich meaning representation of words, leading to precise comprehension necessary for recognition vocabulary to become active or productive vocabulary” (Lee, 2003, p. 538).

Explicit Instruction and Implicit Instruction

Explicit instruction is one type of method of instruction which is teacher-centered. Explicit instruction or teaching can direct students to identify rules from input in a structured teaching environment (Hulstijn, 2005). Simmons (1995) believes that “explicit teaching involves the direct, systematic presentation of critical information by teacher to students” (p. 388). Knowledge would be taught by demonstration, explanation, and practice (Wiki Spaces, 2006). According to Ellis (2005), “this clear and guided instruction enables students to accelerate language acquisition” (p. 329). Since vocabulary teaching entails complicated acquisition of many aspects, which was proposed by Nation (2013) in the previous chapter, it might be more suitable for teachers to give explicit vocabulary instruction.

Implicit instruction, on the contrary, discourages learners from accessing rules directly (Hulstijn, 2005). This type of instruction enables students to be exposed to several examples containing a desired topic; however, they will never be asked to learn any specific rules. For example, if teachers give students several sentences in simple past tense without explaining the rules for forming or using the English past tense, the students must find their own mode for understanding simple past tense. Furthermore, the teachers would not make them memorize specific rules because the students have not been taught any specific rules. The students, though, are expected to produce their own original simple past tense sentences. Implicit instruction helps students unconsciously acquire rules in implied manner instead (Wiki Spaces, 2006). That is to say, students acquire new vocabulary and grammar structures through contextualized materials and communicative activities. Many researchers have explored the efficacy of implicit and explicit instruction. McCandless and Winitz’s (1986) study found that students learning German

through implicit activities performed better on speech-production task than students who receive traditional explicit instruction. While results of another study conducted by Scott (1989) showed that the performance of students receiving explicit instruction exceeded that of students learning from implicit activities. The two studies indicated that both teaching strategies could promote second language acquisition. Another study investigated the role of explicit instruction in English-Ukrainian cross-script cognate recognition. The results showed that the group receiving “explicit instruction with elaborate processing has beneficial results in terms of acquisition of both cognate meaning and sentence-level use” (Helms-Park & Perhan, 2016, p. 27), while the group that learned cognates from reading exclusively did not outperform explicit instruction group. It means that it is meaningful to give repeated encounters with forms of cognates in the L2 scripts, even if decontextualized. What’s more, although it seems that implicit instruction contradicts explicit instruction, they are interfaced with each other in some degree (Ellis, 2005). All in all, it is important to determine which type of vocabulary learning strategy can benefit an individual student’s vocabulary acquisition and provide the appropriate instruction.

Second Language Vocabulary Teaching

Since part of a vocabulary teacher’s job is to push students to acquire deeper word knowledge, teachers’ beliefs about how to teach vocabulary need to be taken into consideration. One of the questions has been whether to teach vocabulary explicitly, which has long been argued about by researchers. Flick and Anderson’s study (1980) pointed out that learners think implicit word definitions are more difficult to be understood than explicit word definitions. For example, from the researcher’s own teaching experience, students who were required to understand vocabulary meaning from context usually wanted to use a bilingual dictionary to

verify the meaning. It seems that they had become accustomed to know a word's definition from dictionary directly. Folse (2008) stated that teaching specific vocabulary explicitly is an essential vocabulary learning strategy. Nation (2013) also argued that "it is worth spending time on a word explicitly in intensive reading" (p. 129). It means that Nation believes teachers should teach vocabulary explicitly in class. Hinkel (2015) further stated that "teaching vocabulary deliberately and persistently can make a great deal of difference for vocabulary growth and the development of the foundational vocabulary base for reading and writing" as well (p. 186).

However, some researchers have suggested that second language learners, like children acquiring their first language, can learn a lot of vocabulary without effort (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Research shows that incidental learning is the dominant path of vocabulary acquisition in the L1 (Nagy, 1997). Zhou (2009) argued that learning vocabulary incidentally can complement vocabulary acquisition for L2 learners. Horst's (2005) study indicated that extensive reading may result in substantial vocabulary growth, leading Horst to believe that vocabulary learning can be achieved through reading incidentally. He further explained that students may infer new vocabulary meanings from context and remember them after a large number of exposures in reading. Brown, Waring and Donkaewbua (2008) found vocabulary can be acquired unconsciously through reading, reading-while listening, and listening to stories, which are by-products of three implicit ways to learn vocabulary.

The Relationship Between Second Language Writing and Explicit Vocabulary Instruction

Unlike listening and speaking, reading and writing skills are not acquired naturally. Humans need to learn these two skills through formal education in school, which requires

intentional and sustained practice and attention. So, writing is truly a demanding task for a lot of second language learners. As mentioned above, vocabulary closely relates to all core language skills. There is some research that shows how vocabulary can influence writing performance in detail.

Knowledge of Lexical Quality

As Folse (2008) stated, “vocabulary is a good predictor of the overall score that an essay receives (p.7). Vocabulary plays an important role in assessing the quality of second language written work (Nation, 2013). Lexical usage is a sophisticated process, even for native writers who equally have difficulty with vocabulary use in the writing process. Heji (2005) argued that:

Lexical access could be characterized as complex access, simple selection. That is, lexical selection is based on a complex preverbal message that contains all relevant information to arrive at the correct word. Lexical selection can then be a simple process that selects one word from the set of activated words on the basis of activation levels only. (pp. 304-305)

For example, when learners need to produce an adjective + noun utterance, the words they could select would be grammatically constrained to adjectives and nouns. Then the production is based on the lexical selection which is influenced by the activation level of lexical representation. So, both native writers and second language writers need to spend much time and effort improving the quality of vocabulary use in writing. And according to Nation (2013), the quality of productive vocabulary in writing is largely determined by lexical frequency and lexical richness or variation.

The Lexical Frequency Profile is defined by Nation (2013) as an “analysis of the percentage of word families at various frequency levels in a piece of written work” (p. 264). That is to say the Lexical Frequency Profile can reflect vocabulary frequency level in writing.

Sometimes the lower level lexical frequencies can bring problems of frequently using simple vocabulary in writing, which might make writers' ideas sound simple or elementary (Folse, 2008). L2 writers have an obvious disadvantage of vocabulary size compared with L1 peer writers. There is relatively little research comparing the productive vocabulary of ESL writers and native writers. But receptive vocabulary size can be a hint for productive ones. In Lee's (2003) study, ESL students and native speaker students were assessed by a vocabulary test to see their receptive vocabulary volume. The results showed that ESL learners got significantly lower scores than NS learners, which means the vocabulary L2 learners recognized was much less than their NS counterparts. What's more, according to Hinkel's (2015) summary of research, the vocabulary size of native junior high school students is similar to that of graduate/post-doctoral non-native students. These studies suggest that lacking vocabulary can be a long-time problem for L2 writers, which might correspondingly constrain the development of writing. For instance, when learners need to express content in the L2 but cannot find target vocabulary to use, the expression shown in writing may not be as clear and fluent as what native writers can produce. Writers may feel challenged to express the depth of their ideas because they lack productive knowledge of lower frequency vocabulary.

Besides lexical frequency, lexical richness or variation is another factor which can influence productive vocabulary use in writing. Exhibiting less lexical variety and sophistication in writing is one of the differences between second language writers and native writers (Hinkel, 2011b). If L2 learners just know word meaning but never experience a deeper level of processing, it is more likely that they prefer to repeatedly use vocabulary to convey meaning. For instance, beginning learners often repeatedly use the same transition words to signify time

sequence such as firstly, secondly, and thirdly, which makes writing monotonous and wordy. The key is to convert more passive receptive vocabulary into active productive vocabulary. Muncie (2002) compared Japanese students' process writing drafts and timed composition and found lexical variation improved during the process writing. The study shows that "during the process of revising their work, students do indeed use a greater proportion of more sophisticated words than in their normal writing" (p. 232). That is to say, process writing gives students time to turn receptive knowledge of vocabulary into productive knowledge, improving the complexity of vocabulary and enhancing lexical quality in writing. On the other hand, lexical variation can be increased by expanding vocabulary knowledge in terms of "fixed expressions, collocations, or other formulaic phrases," which can make writing sound more advanced (Folse, 2008, p. 4).

The last problem resulting from the influence of vocabulary on writing is inaccurate lexical usage, such as changing word collocations arbitrarily, the wrong way to use words in target language context and so on. Hinkel (2015) claimed that "limited vocabulary and grammar are the most frequently cited properties of L2 text" (p. 529). Texts containing insufficient grammar can still be accessible to readers while limited vocabulary will severely affect reading comprehension. For instance, L2 writers who do not know how to find an expression in the target language tend to transfer the expression from their native language, which confuses readers who do not share the same language background with L2 writers and makes writing unintelligible to them. "This type of lexical error makes our writing sound awkward because we have either misused words or we have not used the words that native speaker writers would use" (Folse, 2008, p. 4).

Lexical Use in Academic Writing

Despite successfully passing a standard language proficiency test such as TOEFL-ibt or IELTS, second language learners may still have problems with academic writing. Depending on students' major, they could be asked to write various types of texts like reflective journals, essays, laboratory reports, research papers, and case studies. These different text types are normally referred to as genres (Hinkel, 2015). Also, how to use vocabulary accurately is another concern for L2 students in academic writing.

Investigations on native English writers show that “they need to rely on others for vocabulary selection with genre writing” to facilitate ease of text production (Clendon, Sturm, & Cali, 2013, p. 61). The same problem occurs in second language writers too. Chen and Su (2012) carried out an experiment in which students learned summary writing through a genre-based approach. Comparing statistical results of pre-tests and post-tests, researchers found that the lexical pattern is directly relevant to genre writing. The study also showed it is harder to improve lexical diversity than the content development of genre writing. That is to say, improving the academic lexicon of second language (L2) learners is a challenge.

Besides lexical frequencies and lexical variation, L2 writers often feel frustrated when they cannot deliver their ideas with accurate vocabulary, in particular for academic writing. In a study by Santos (1988), professors were given non-native students' academic essays containing different types of errors. The error types fell into three main categories: lexical, content, and grammar. Professors were then asked to rank the errors according to the level of interference they created in terms of comprehension. One sentence written by a Korean student is “a hot and chilly taste of vegetables” which contains a lexical error. “Chilly (adjective)” means “cold but

not freezing,” which creates a semantic error when it is combined together with another adjective “hot” to modify the noun “taste.” The following sentence, “He agree with this contract” which does not apply the subject-verb agreement rule for third- person singular present, contains a grammatical error. And then the content errors in social science and physical science were identified from three perspectives which are holistic impression, development and sophistication. After analysis, one of the professors’ overall perceptions is that lexical error is the most serious problem in two academic essays because they considered these sentences with this type of errors incomprehensible to them. The study also found content was rated much lower than language, while analysis indicates that “it is precisely with the lexical error that language impinges directly on content; when the wrong word is used, the meaning is very likely to be obscured” (Santos, 1998, p. 84). Hence, the ability to express content is relevant to lexical knowledge in academic study, which cannot be ignored during L2 writing development.

L2 Learners’ Perceptions of Vocabulary Use in Writing

Vocabulary teaching is often dismissed by some teachers. Sometimes, “vocabulary has even been academically excluded from or at best limited within L2 curricula and classroom teaching” (Folse, 2008, p. 28). By contrast, students hold a more positive attitude towards vocabulary acquisition. Folse summarizes that L2 learners view vocabulary as an essential key to successful L2 learning and deem lack of vocabulary knowledge as a daunting obstacle in language learning. Zhou (2009) carried out an interview to identify ESL learners’ goals for writing. The results indicate that students particularly value the role of vocabulary in writing and are eager to seek improvement under teachers’ guidance. Also, in Basturkmen and Lewis’s (2002) research about three learners’ perspectives of success in a writing course, one student

mentioned that vocabulary should not prevent one from expressing thoughts, which confirms the role of vocabulary in writing as well. Students' perspectives on language acquisition are of great importance to affect teachers' future decision-making in teaching. "Knowledge of learner beliefs about language learning should increase teachers' understanding of how students approach the tasks required in language class and, ultimately, help teachers foster more effective learning strategies in their students" (Horwitz, 1988, p. 293). Therefore, writing teachers should emphasize vocabulary acquisition in writing in addition to general vocabulary instruction.

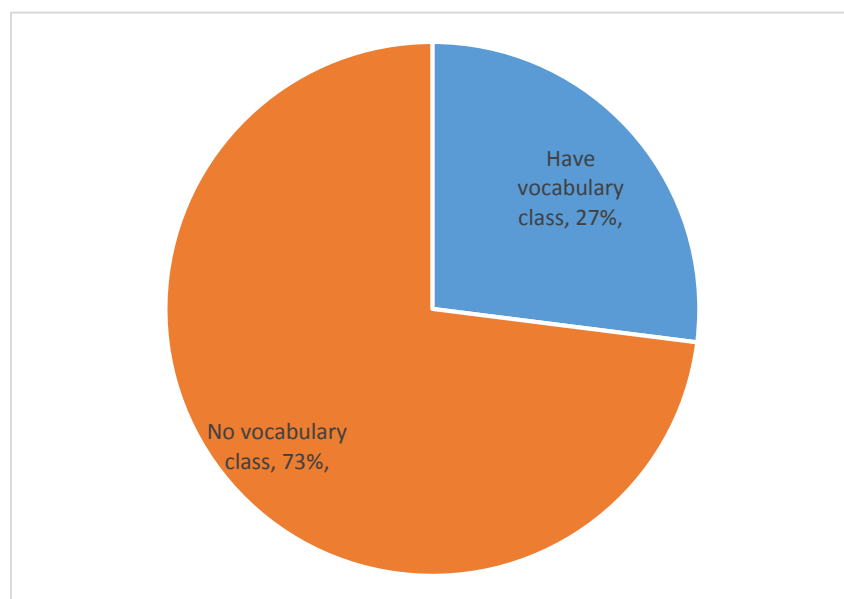
Vocabulary Instruction in L2 Writing

Based on the above discussion, it is necessary to consider how to improve productive vocabulary in writing. However, even though most teachers realize vocabulary should be taught explicitly, Nation (2013) stated "writing is the one where we know the least about the relationship between the skills and vocabulary knowledge," which means more research on the correlation writing and vocabulary is needed (p. 262). Even worse, "vocabulary is not systemically covered in most curricula" (Folse, 2004a, p. 10). To support Folse's claim, the researcher randomly visited the websites of 30 Intensive English programs (IEPs) in the United States and found the majority of programs' curriculums center on listening, speaking, reading and writing and do not offer a specific class for vocabulary. According to Figure 2, only 27% of IEPs provide a vocabulary class.

Table 1

Vocabulary Class and IEPs in the United States

Region in United States	Have Vocabulary Class	No Vocabulary Class
Northeast	1	4
South	1	5
Midwest	2	3
Southwest	2	4
West	2	6
Total	8	22

*Figure 2. Percentage of Vocabulary Classes in IEPs*

When it comes to vocabulary instruction, a lot of research supports explicit instruction on vocabulary in writing courses as well. Muncie (2002) believes the process approach to writing cannot only improve students' writing skills but also benefits the development of vocabulary acquisition as process writing allows more time for students to be exposed to additional vocabulary instruction than timed composition. Lee (2003) concluded that "learners do not

automatically put their recognition vocabulary to productive vocabulary, but are able to expand their active controlled vocabulary after explicit vocabulary instruction” (p. 550). Zhou (2009) further stated that vocabulary should be taught in context in order to take advantage of students’ interests so that vocabulary instruction in writing courses can motivate students to use the new vocabulary in follow up writing activities. In IEPs teachers can utilize things happening around them. For instance, smart phones are widely used by people all over the world these days. Teachers can lead a discussion about the advantages and disadvantages of using smart phones in class. Students would be more willing to take part in this topic discussion and share their experiences. The vocabulary list about technology can be introduced to the class at the same time. To be more specific, the teacher can say “App is short for application program and people can install apps in their smart phones. My favorite smart phone **app** is Google because I can use Google to find answers quickly.” The teacher may display a picture of the Google app on video screen to show students the app. Then the teacher may ask, “What is your favorite **app** in your phone?” By doing this, students can understand the meaning and form of **app**, and they can acquire how to use the word app in sentences by answering the teacher’s question.

Teachers’ Beliefs and Practices

From the above research, it can be concluded that explicit vocabulary instruction is essential for students’ language development, especially for writing. Even though some teachers are aware of the importance of explicit vocabulary instruction, a number of studies indicate that teachers’ beliefs may not be congruent with their practices (Phipps & Borg, 2009). As Borg (2003) stated, “teachers’ beliefs are concerned with what teachers know, believe, and think” (p. 81). Teacher beliefs can reflect their own teaching philosophy in actual teaching activity. Several

studies, however, suggest that teachers' self-expressed teaching beliefs that they claimed before do not always match with their practice (Farrell & Bennis, 2013). Zheng and Borg (2014) investigated "three teachers' understanding of Task-based learning and teaching (TBLT) as well as their implementation of TBLT in class" (p. 205). The results implied that even though teachers state they are in favor of TBLT, their actual instructions diverge from TBLT. This raises a key issue regarding teacher education if teachers who support explicit vocabulary instruction do not teach in the same way as they state accordingly. Put simply, if teachers do not practice what they preach, then that is problematic. Dobson and Dobson (1983) believe that "any real improvement in schooling will occur only when teachers are experiencing beliefs-practice congruency" (p. 21). For instance, the awareness of the congruency of beliefs and practices may better help teachers who put teaching training they received into practice, improving teaching efficiency. So, it is of great importance to explore whether there is a discrepancy between vocabulary teachers' perception and practice and to try to find strategies to reduce this discrepancy.

It can be concluded from the literature review that vocabulary should be taught explicitly so that students are able to apply productive knowledge of vocabulary successfully. And it is more obvious in writing courses. Teachers should give more explicit vocabulary instruction in order to improve students' writing performance. However, some writing teachers and supervisors of Intensive English programs are unaware of the necessity of giving vocabulary instruction in class. Some studies also reveal that teachers' perceptions may not match their practices. That is to say, teachers who believe in explicit vocabulary instruction may not actually follow their beliefs and teach differently in class. So, investigating teachers' beliefs and practices on

vocabulary instruction may be enlightening to future teacher education on promoting explicit vocabulary instruction to improve writing.

Research Questions

My primary questions for this research are:

1. What are ESL teachers' perceptions of vocabulary teaching?
 - a. Is there any difference between the beliefs of native English speakers (NES) ESL teachers and the beliefs of non-native English speakers (NNES) ESL teachers?
 - b. Is there any difference between the beliefs of novice ESL teachers and the beliefs of more experienced ESL teachers?
2. Do ESL teachers' beliefs on vocabulary instruction correspond to their practices?

Chapter III: Methodology

Participants

The participants were 25 ESL teachers from an Intensive English Program (IEP program) and an English as a Second Language Program (ESL program) at a university in the Midwest of the United States. Most of 25 ESL teachers were graduate teaching assistants who were also pursuing a master's degree in Teaching English as a Second Language program (TESL). To be qualified to teach in two programs, non-native teachers need to achieve at least 100 points on the TOEFL-ibt test.¹ So, teachers in the IEP and ESL programs learned or were learning how to teach ESL learners English and were engaging in practical teaching tasks at the same time. Their demographic information is presented in Table 2.

¹ TOEFL-ibt test is one of the most well-known standard English language proficiency tests in the world, measuring the English language ability of non-native speakers of English who want to enroll in universities in English-speaking countries. People who score 100 or above on the TOEFL-ibt are commonly regarded as highly proficient English users. The NNES teaching assistants are required to have a 100 or above to receive a graduate teaching assistantship.

Table 2

Participants' Demographic Information

Participants	Country	First Language	Program	Years of Teaching Experience
1	Puerto Rico	Spanish	IEP	2 years
2	Kazakhstan	Russian	IEP	3 years
3	U.S.	English	ESL	4 years
4	U.S.	English	IEP	2 years
5	U.S.	English	IEP	2 years
6	El Salvador	Spanish	IEP	9 years
7	Argentina	Spanish	IEP	7 years
8	Thailand	Thai	IEP	2-3 years
9	Chile	Spanish	IEP	4 years
10	Russia	Russian	IEP	1 years
11	Mexico	Spanish	IEP	5 years
12	U.S.	English	IEP	2 years
13	U.S.	English	ESL	2.5 years
14	South Korea	Korean	ESL	5 years
15	U.S.	English	ESL	2 years
16	El Salvador	Spanish	ESL	7 years
17	U.S.	English	ESL	Half a year
18	U.S.	English	ESL	1 year
19	Sri Lanka	Sinhala	IEP	2 years
20	El Salvador	Spanish	IEP	10 years
21	Sudan	Anyuak	IEP	2 years
22	U.S.	English	ESL	2 years
23	Lithuania	Lithuanian	IEP	3 years
24	South Korea	Korean	ESL	17 years
25	U.S.	English	IEP	25 years

Sixteen participants came from the IEP (see Figure 3). The IEP offers a wide variety of language courses including reading, writing, listening and speaking, conversation, grammar, vocabulary, culture classes, note-taking and so on. Various levels of English instruction are provided in this IEP, from real-beginner (learning the alphabet) to high advanced (conducting

library research). Students in the IEP must attend full-time, 23 hours of ESL classes a week, to successfully move up to the next level or to matriculate into the university. ESL teachers in this program are responsible for creating an intensive English learning environment by teaching all subjects in English so that students are able to succeed in learning English. In addition, ESL teachers in the IEP teach up to six hours per week.

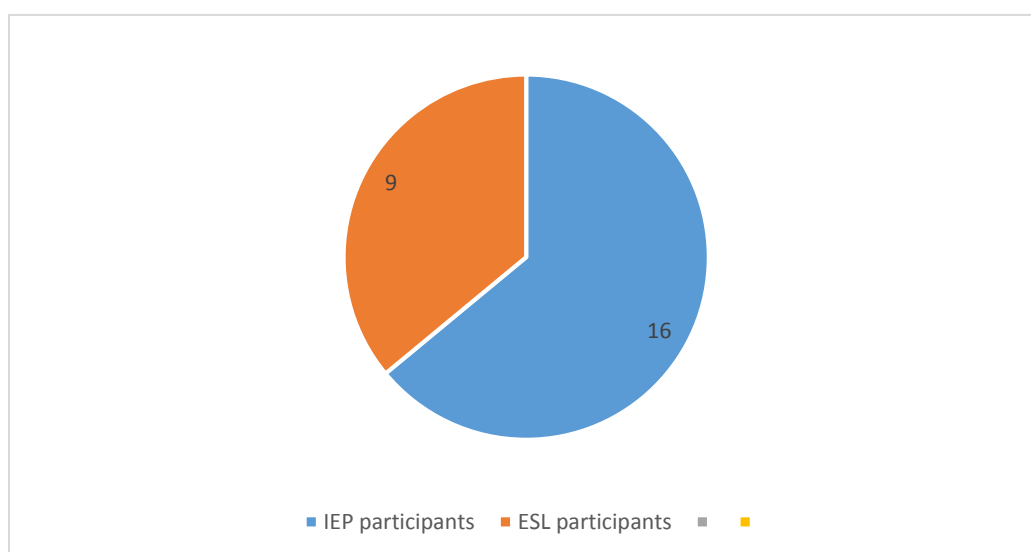


Figure 3. Number of Participants in the IEP and ESL Programs

Nine participants were from the English as a Second Language program (ESL). The ESL program provides English courses for international students or US residents who have been admitted into the university but who still require academic English language support. To be specific, they need to take four hours of listening and speaking classes and/or reading and writing classes every week in order to be better prepared for their academic study in the university. The teachers in the ESL program are teach up to four hours per week.

As all students in enrolled in either the IEP or the ESL program are ESL learners, it can be expected that they would encounter new vocabulary in their university classes and may want

clarification about these new words. Also, vocabulary as well as grammar are bases for all language skills (Folse, 2004a). So, the ESL teachers in both programs were expected to teach vocabulary in their writing classes, making them suitable participants in this study. All participants volunteered to join this study. In addition, three participants who supported explicit vocabulary instruction were chosen from the 25 participants for the researcher to conduct class observations. The researcher observed four classes for each participant over the course of one month. The three participants were each given a pseudonym for this study. Further information about the three participants can be found in the following results and finding chapter.

They were also asked about whether they had received any types of training on how to teach vocabulary. Amy replied that she took a related MA TESOL class and several workshops on teaching vocabulary. Jessie also gave a similar answer and added that she had also learned more vocabulary teaching methods from TESOL conferences. Monica claimed that she did not truly pay attention to vocabulary teaching and she had not applied teaching techniques that she learned from previous MA TESOL classes yet.

Procedures

The study lasted one month. Initially 25 participants completed a survey investigating their perceptions of how to teach vocabulary and three common vocabulary instruction techniques they often used in class. After that, three participants who believed explicit vocabulary instruction is necessary were chosen and invited to join the second stage of data collection. The researcher observed their classes then. To guard against a teacher preparing “special lessons” for the study, the research did not inform the teachers about when they would be observed. In other words, the researcher randomly visited each class four times over one

month for a total of 12 observations. Additionally, the researcher collected the teaching materials, including syllabus, lesson plans, tests, homework, and so on for each teacher for each class observed. At the end of the study, three observed participants and the researcher had a focus group study discussion and the researcher took notes to record useful key information at the same time.

Materials

The materials included a survey, three participants' teaching materials, and post-study questions of a focus group discussion.

In the first phase of this study, the researcher gave all 25 participants a survey (see Appendix A). This survey was divided into two parts. The first part of the survey was a questionnaire aimed at finding out about participants' perception of vocabulary teaching. A 6-point Likert scale was applied in the questionnaire so that the researcher could collect participants' responses. Number 6 represented "strongly agree" and Number 1 represented "strongly disagree." The mean and standard deviation of questionnaire results were calculated to reveal participants' general attitudes on each question. The 15 questions were divided into two parts. Ten questions were designed by explicit vocabulary teaching methods and five questions were common explicit and implicit teaching activities.

The second part of the survey posted an open-ended question: List three common ways that you often use to teach vocabulary in class. This question was used to illicit participants' actual practice, which could shed light on the difference between teachers' perception and their practice, reflecting participants' true beliefs of vocabulary instruction comprehensively.

The researcher invited three specific participants to take part in the second phase of the study. To fully investigate how participants gave vocabulary instruction during one month of observation, the researcher collected all their teaching materials, including course syllabus, worksheets, lesson plans, homework, and tests. These materials assisted the researcher to further identify participants' actual practices in class.

Additionally, the researcher had a focus group discussion at the end of this study. The three participants and the researcher discussed eight questions in total (see Appendix B). These questions helped the researcher and three participants to clarify their vocabulary instruction practices in class and find out if and why teachers' perception of vocabulary instruction was different from their actual teaching practice. Also, we discussed how they might modify their teaching practices. The purposes of this focus group study include the following:

1. To investigate the reasons for the disconnect between teachers' beliefs and practices.
2. To discuss strategies that can help teachers reconcile the differences between their beliefs and practices.

Chapter IV: Results and Findings

Four sets of data were analyzed for this study. The first one was a Likert questionnaire serving as the first part of a survey during the first phase of this study. This questionnaire investigated participants' perception of vocabulary instruction. The second part of the survey which contained an open-ended question. Short answers for this question were used to reveal participants' practical vocabulary instruction in class. Class observations on three participants as well as their teaching materials, which addressed the second research question, were used as the third set of data. Finally, a focus group discussion was the last set of data in this study.

From these sets of data, I hope to find ESL teachers' opinions on vocabulary teaching as well as whether their perception was accordant with their practice. This may help reveal teachers' underlying ideas of vocabulary teaching, which could indicate how to use explicit vocabulary teaching to improve students' writing.

Likert Scale Questionnaire Results

The results of the questionnaire are presented in the tables and figures below.

ESL Teachers' Perceptions On Vocabulary Teaching

The questionnaire consists of 15 questions designed to illicit opinions on the teaching of vocabulary. In order to ensure the validity of the questionnaire results, some of questions were designed similarly on purpose. For instance, Question 1 was "It is necessary to translate vocabulary meaning to students' native language." This question was paraphrased into Question 10, that is "It is negative for teachers to teach vocabulary by using bilingual vocabulary lists in class." Thus, if a participant strongly agreed with Statement 1, then it could be expected that the same participant would strong disagree with Statement 10. There were several other

corresponding questions, Questions 3 and 8, Questions 4 and 14, and Questions 5 and 15. The mean and mode for each question were used to reveal participants' overall response. For some of questions, the perceptions between NES and NNES were compared and the perceptions between the more experienced teachers group (3+ years of teaching experience) and the novice teachers group (1-2 years of teaching experience) were compared as well.

Table 3

Translation

Question 1 and 10 (1 represents Strongly Disagree, 6 represents Strongly Agree)			
Q	Survey Questions	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	It is necessary to translate vocabulary meaning to students' native language.	3.16	1.43
10	It is negative for teachers to teach vocabulary by using bilingual vocabulary lists in class. (Grammar translation)	3.24	1.3

According to the table results above, there is a tendency (Q1: Mean = 3.16, SD =1.43; Q10: Mean = 3.24, SD = 1.3) that participants slightly agree to use translation in class, which implies that these participants like to teach new vocabulary by giving a bilingual dictionary or allowing students to translate the words into their L1. Also, the bar chart below (see Figure 4) compares the perceptions of NES and NNES. It can be seen that there is a slight trend with 70% of the NES group holding positive attitudes toward translation while only 60% of the NNES group agree with translation.

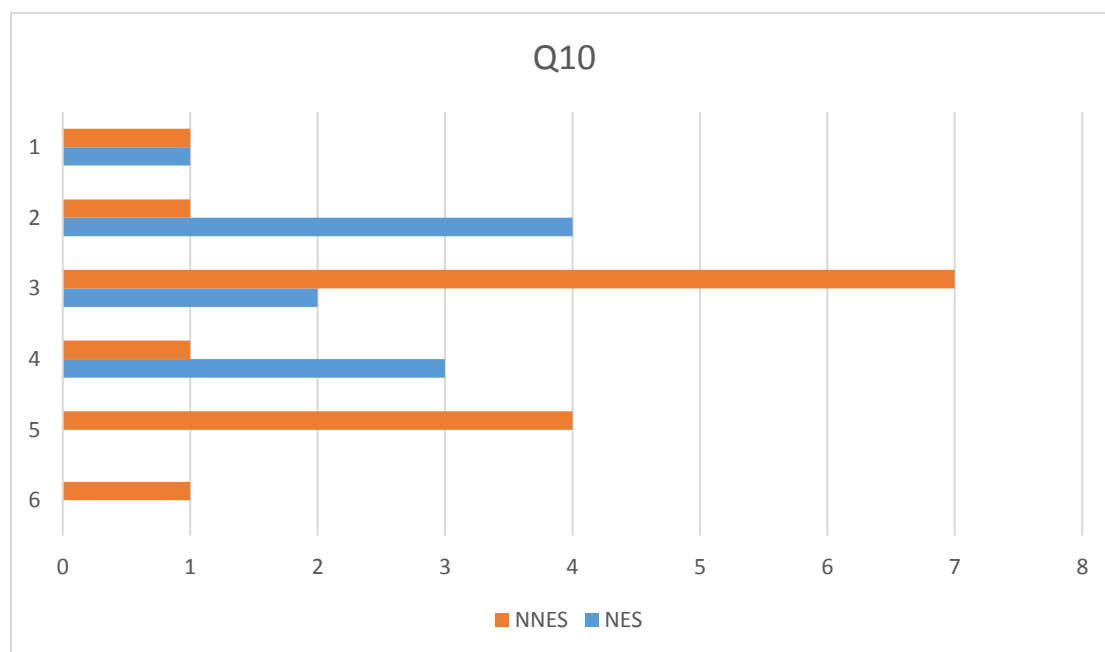


Figure 4. Question 10. It is negative for teachers to teach vocabulary by using bilingual vocabulary lists in class. (1 represents Strongly Disagree, 6 represents Strongly Agree)

Figure 5 shows that 70% of the experienced teachers do not prefer translation while 58.3% of the novice teachers agree, showing more positive attitudes towards translation. Figure 6 also shows that 53.8% of the experienced teachers disagree with translation while only 33.3% of the novice teachers disagree with translation.

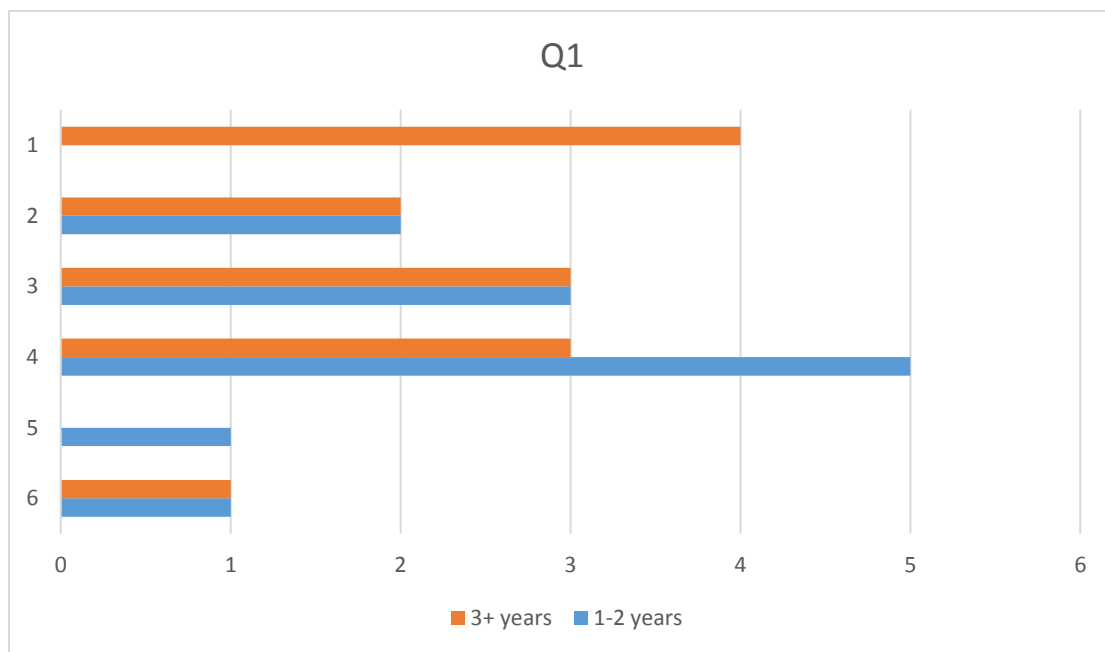


Figure 5. Question 1. It is necessary to translate vocabulary meaning to students' native language.

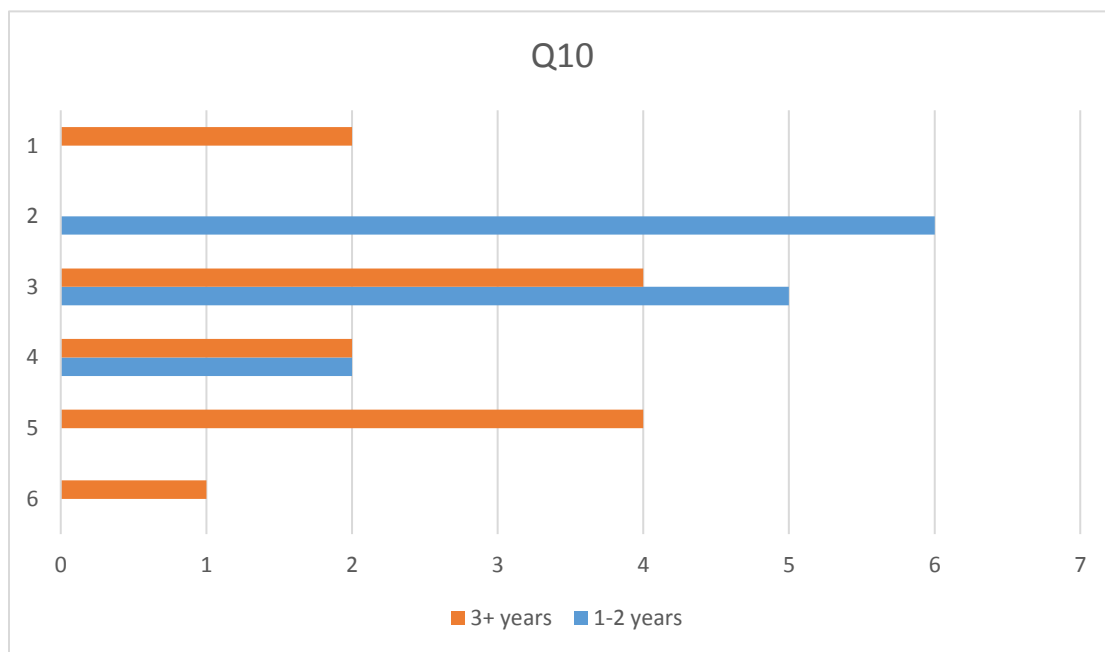


Figure 6. Question 10. It is negative for teachers to teach vocabulary by using bilingual vocabulary lists in class.

Table 4

Communicative Language Teaching Method

Questions 4, 11, and 14			
Q	Survey Question	Mean	Standard Deviation
4	It is necessary to help students understand vocabulary through active interaction like role play, information gap	4.92	.95
14	Active interaction like role play, information gap is not important while teaching vocabulary	1.68	.95
11	Vocabulary should be taught in discourse	4.76	.88

Table 4 indicates that participants feel it is necessary to use communicative language teaching to teach vocabulary (Q4: Mean = 4.92, SD = .95; Q14: Mean = 1.68, SD = .95). The mean 4.76 and standard deviation .88 of a similar question, Q11, further support this result.

Table 5

Rote Memorization

Questions 3 and 8			
Q	Survey Question	Mean	Standard Deviation
3	Students must memorize vocabulary	3.8	1.32
8	There is no need to take time to memorize words because students can acquire vocabulary naturally	2.68	1.38

Table 5 illustrates that participants slightly agree with the importance of memorizing vocabulary (Q1: Mean = 3.8, SD = 1.32; Q10: Mean = 2.68, SD = 1.38)

What's more, Figure 7 shows that 84.6% of the more experienced teacher group disagree with the statement that there is no need to take time to memorize words while 75% of the novice teacher group, which is slightly smaller than the former group, disagree with memorization.

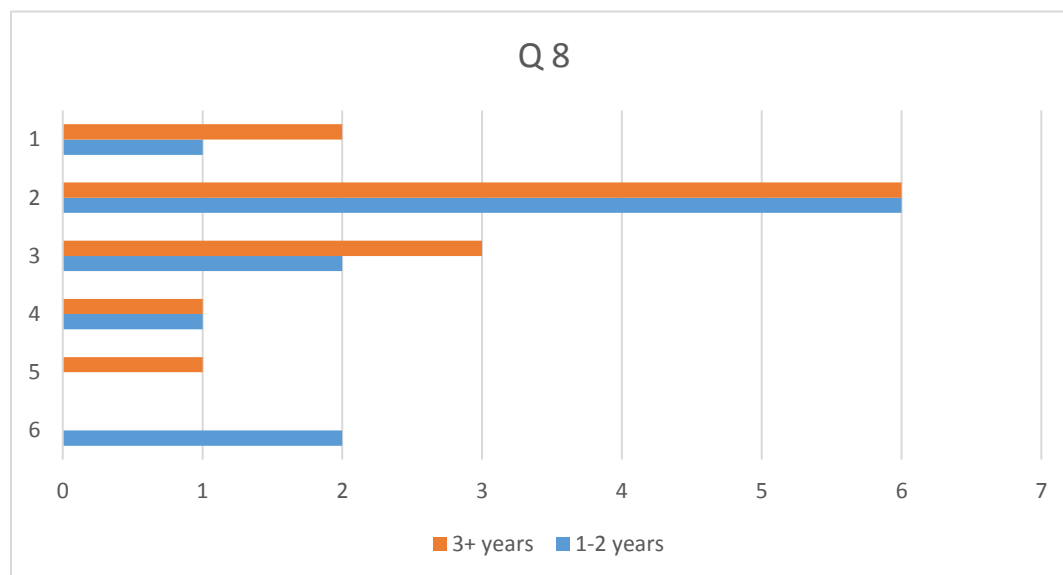


Figure 7. Questions 8. There is no need to take time to memorize words because students can acquire vocabulary naturally.

Table 6

Audio-Lingual Method and Direct Method

Questions 5, 15, and 13			
Q	Survey Question	Mean	Standard Deviation
5	Students must repeat new vocabulary after teachers to learn a word	2.92	1.53
15	Audio repetition activities that teachers use in class to help students learn vocabulary is ineffective	1.91	1.11
13	Vocabulary should be taught through pantomiming, real-life objects and other visual materials	4.96	1.08

The results of Questions 5 and 15 suggest that participants seem to have vague attitudes toward the audio-lingual method (Q5: Mean = 2.91, SD = 1.53; Q10: Mean = 1.91, SD = 1.11).

Question 13 was designed to illicit opinions about the effectiveness of the direct method for vocabulary learning. The mean “4.96” and standard deviation both clearly reveal that participants like using the direct method for explicit vocabulary teaching.

When comparing perceptions of NES and NNES on Question 12, I found that although both NES and NNES show positive attitudes toward the direct method. However, Figure 8 indicates that 50% of the NNES strongly agree with direct method, showing an obvious preference. By contrast, only 13.3% of the NES strongly agree with this method.

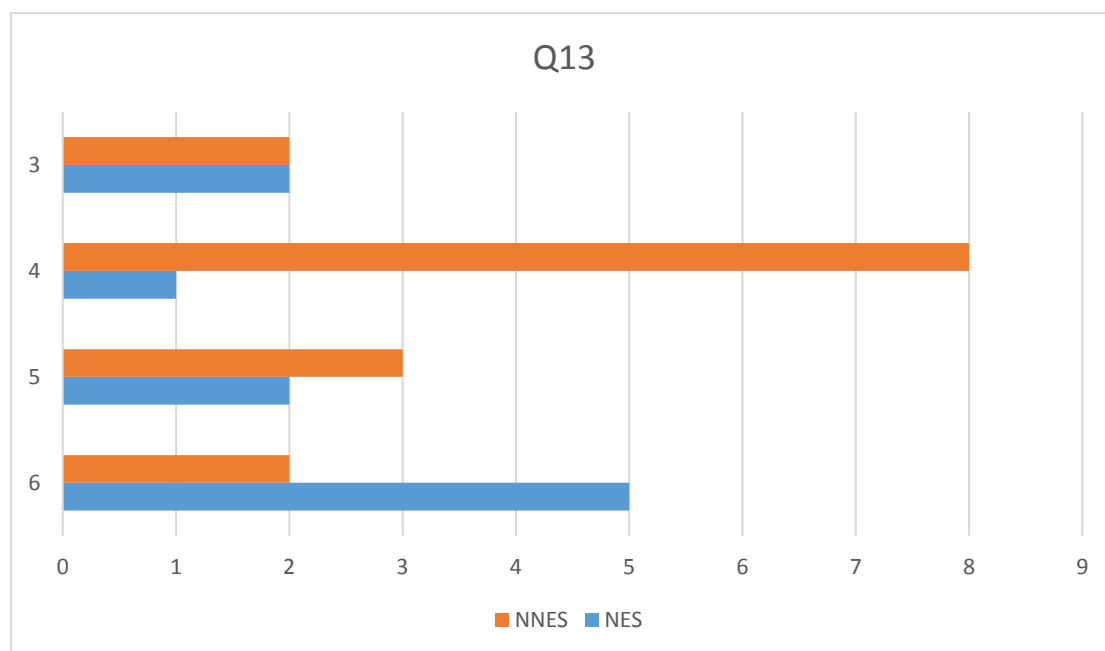


Figure 8. NES vs. NNES on Question 13

Also, Figure 9 shows that 92.3% of the experienced teacher group do not favor audio lingual method. But there is only 50% of the novice teachers disagree with this method, demonstrating no obvious or clear preference.

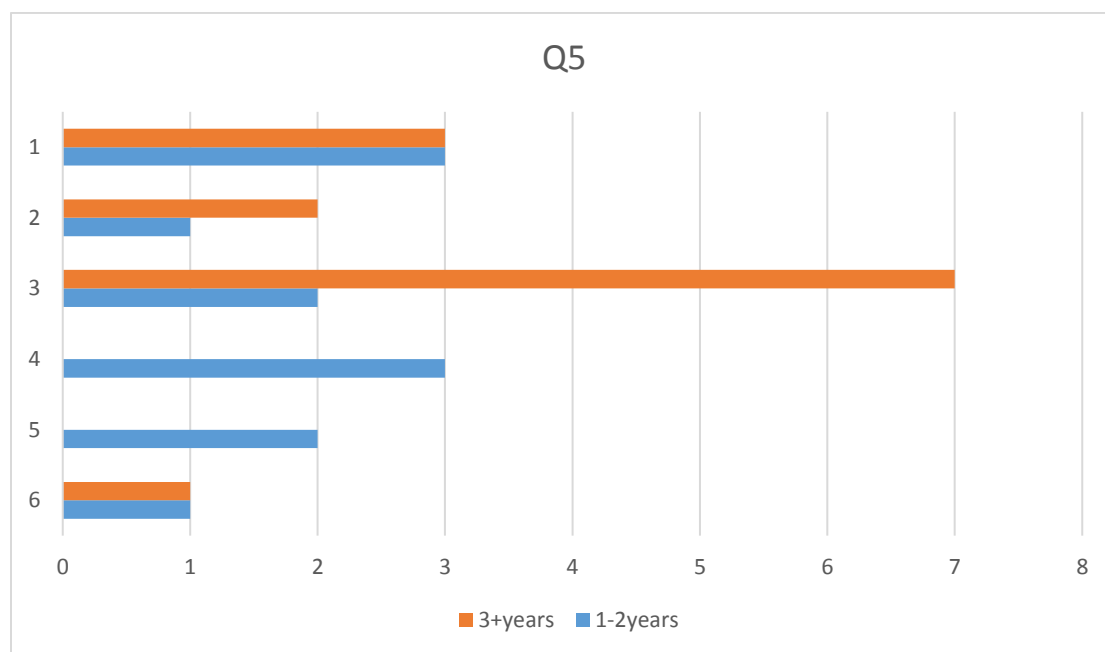


Figure 9. Experienced Teachers vs. Novice Teachers in Question 5

Table 7

Other Common Vocabulary Teaching Activities

Q	Survey Question	Mean	Standard Deviation
2	Teachers can have students notice and also acquire new vocabulary from reading activity	4.96	1.34
12	It is not useful to ask students to learn new words from reading activity	1.84	1.21
6	Vocabulary should be acquired like L1 in context without L2 translation	3.56	1.36
7	It is useful to use word-frequency lists to teach vocabulary	5.08	1.12
9	It is important to offer students clear, unambiguous vocabulary instruction	5.32	.69

Questions 2 and 12 were designed to see whether participants favor reading activities to teaching vocabulary or not. The data clearly shows that they view reading as a good way to teach vocabulary (Q2: Mean = 4.96, SD = 1.34; Q12: Mean = 1.84, SD = 1.21).

However, Question 6 was a typical implicit teaching method, but the data indicates that some participants more strongly agree with this practice (Q6: Mean = 3.56, SD = 1.36).

Questions 7 and 9 strongly demonstrate that almost all participants tend to support a clear and specific vocabulary teaching in class (Q7: Mean = 5.08, SD = 1.12; Q9: Mean = 5.32, SD = .69).

Native Speakers vs. Non-Native Speakers

In order to investigate whether native speakers' perceptions on vocabulary instruction are distinct from perceptions of non-native speakers, a T-test on the survey results of two groups is used here. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), "the t-test can be used when one wants to determine if the means of two groups are significantly different from one another" (p. 375).

Among all data, I cannot find that there is an obvious distinction in terms of vocabulary instruction beliefs between native ESL speakers (NES) and non-native ESL speakers (NNES). For example, question 1 is "It is necessary to translate vocabulary meaning to students' native language." The group of native speakers ($M = 3.2$, $SD = 1.549$) was found not to be significantly different from the group of non-native speakers ($M = 3.13$, $SD = 1.407$), ($t(23) = .112$, $p > .05$) (see Table 9). That is to say, there is no significant difference between opinions of native speakers and non-native speakers about Question 1 (see data of other questions in Appendix C)

Table 8

T-test for Comparison of Beliefs between NES and NNES on Question 1

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean
Q1 Native Speakers	10	3.20	1.549	.490
Q1 Non-Native Speakers	15	3.13	1.407	.363

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means	
	F	Sig.	t	df
Q1 Equal variances assumed	.092	.764	.112	23
Q1 Equal variances not assumed			.109	18.106

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower
Q1	Equal variances assumed	.912	.067	.598 -1.170
	Equal variances not assumed	.914	.067	.610 -1.214

Participants with 1-2 Years of Teaching Experience vs. Participants with 3-25 Years of Teaching Experience

Besides the comparison of beliefs between NES and NNES, I also investigated whether years of teaching could significantly influence teachers' beliefs. Participants were divided into two groups: participants in the first group had 1-2 years of teaching experience and participants in the second group had more than 2 years of teaching experience (see Figure 10). According to the data once again, there is no significant difference between the two groups for all 15 questions

(see Appendix D). Take Question 2 as an example. Group 1 ($M = 4.58$, $SD = 1.155$) was not significantly different from group 2 ($M = 5.31$, $SD = .947$), ($t(23) = 1.38$, $p > .05$). The years of teaching didn't appear to influence teachers' beliefs significantly (see Table 18).

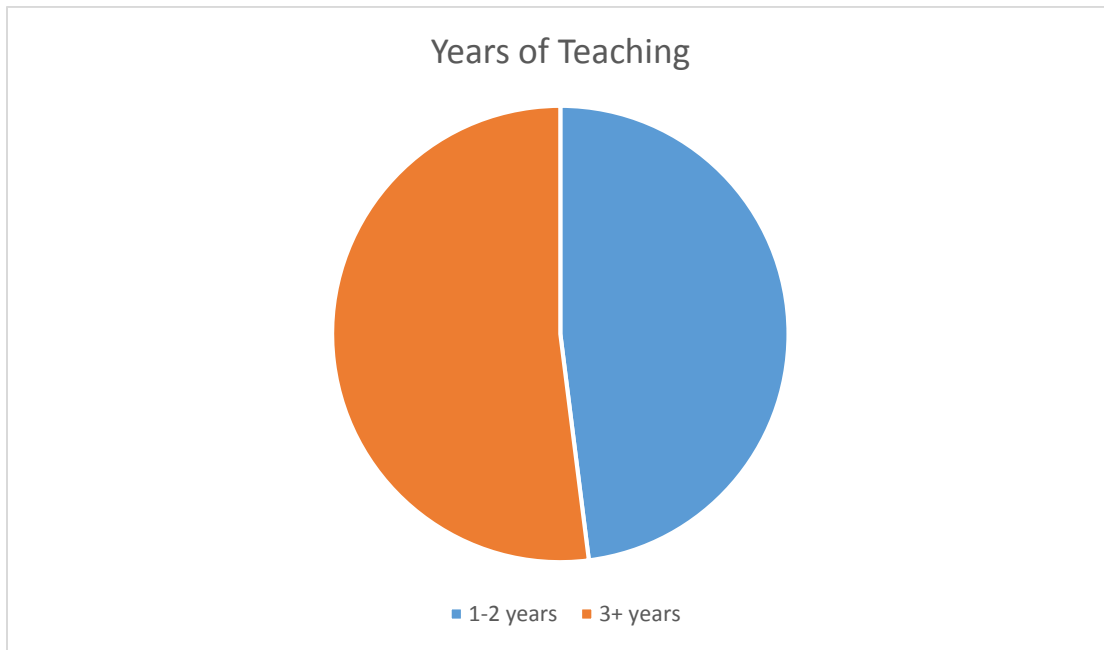


Figure 10. Participants' Years of Teaching

Table 9

T-test for Comparison of Beliefs between Teachers with 1-2 Years Teaching Experience and Teachers with More than 3 Years Teaching Experience

Years		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q1	1-2 years	12	3.67	1.155	.333
	3+ years	13	2.69	1.548	.429

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Q1	Equal variances assumed	1.421	.245	1.771	23	.090	.974	.550	-.164	2.112
	Equal variances not assumed			1.792	22.074	.087	.974	.544	-.153	2.102

To conclude, the questionnaire results reflected the trend that participants support both explicit and implicit vocabulary teaching methods. They also agreed with most explicit vocabulary teaching activities. In addition, there is no significant difference between perceptions of NES and NNES as well as perceptions of the more experienced teacher group (3+years) and the novice teacher group (1-2 years). However, some bar charts showed that each group may prefer some specific explicit teaching methods or activities.

Participant Responses to the Survey Question

There was only pen-ended question in the second part of this survey, which was “please list three common ways that you often use to teach vocabulary in class.” This question was designed to find out about participants’ actual teaching practices on vocabulary and whether their responses were consistent with the survey results. Several common teaching activities were found in their responses:

- Playing vocabulary games
- Reading
- Writing
- Using visuals
- Using context clues
- Using dictionary
- Using repetition

It can be seen that participants would like to use various activities to teach vocabulary. These activities are probably more associated with explicit teaching rather than implicit teaching. For example, using a dictionary can help students access specific vocabulary knowledge so that they can be directly exposed to access input. Thus, participants in general may tend to support explicit vocabulary instruction in actual teaching practices.

Class Observations and Teaching Materials

In the second phase of this study, I observed three participants in their classes. I observed four classes for over a month period in order to find out how they actually taught vocabulary in class. At the same time, I kept collecting their teaching materials so that I could comprehensively evaluate their vocabulary instruction and to triangulate the data. Three participants' demographic table is displayed below in Table 10.

Table 10

Participants' Demographic Information

Name	Years of Teaching ESL Class	Native Language	Subjects They Were Teaching
Amy	7	Spanish	IEP writing
Monica	Less than 1 year	English and Thai	ESL reading and writing
Jessie	25	English	IEP reading

Participant 1: Jessie

Among four class periods of Jessie's IEP reading class, she often devoted time explicitly to teaching vocabulary highlighted in the reading passage in the textbook. Examples and visuals were common teaching techniques that Jessie used in her class. When teaching new vocabulary, she not only gave word definitions but also complemented related word knowledge like synonyms, suffixes, word families, and so on when necessary. Besides the highlighted words in each chapter, she always encouraged students to identify other words they did not know in their textbooks and other class materials.

When it comes to teaching materials, Jessie stressed vocabulary acquisition too. First of all, she stated, "You will learn vocabulary in context" as one of the course objectives. Also, she tested vocabulary learning in quizzes and tests in two main ways. On the one hand, she gave regular vocabulary tests, such as fill- in-the-blank and matching tests. On the other hand, she also tested the meaning of specific words through reading comprehension questions. What's more, Jessie took vocabulary teaching into consideration in class, which was reflected in her lesson plan. For example, during one class she wrote two lists of vocabulary. One list was highlighted by the textbook while another one was made by herself. She pointed out the necessity of creating the latter vocabulary list because students may not know some other words besides the

highlighted words. She also gave some words a special marker to indicate that these words should be taught in context, such as using examples to teach new words.

Participant 2: Monica

Monica was in the ESL program and taught a reading and writing course. Overall, she did not spend time on teaching vocabulary except giving a vocabulary quiz each week. She stated that “I am not a vocabulary teacher. I believe students should learn vocabulary at home. I often give them a vocabulary quiz and they can learn more from quiz feedback.” This statement agrees with Folsie’s (2008) statement that some writing teachers do not believe teaching vocabulary is their work. She mainly persuaded students to notice reading and writing structure and acquire related learning strategies.

At the beginning of the semester, Monica gave students a vocabulary list which was made from Academic Word List (AWL). As arranged, students needed to acquire 30 new words a week by using a Collocation Dictionary. Later she gave them a quiz consisting of a sentence making exercise and a word matching exercise. In Monica’s syllabus, vocabulary work occupied 10% of students’ total grade. And from her lesson plans she only listed AWL sub list quiz and no other specific work for vocabulary.

Participant 3: Amy

Amy was teaching writing in IEP. Among class observations, I can see that she sometimes taught vocabulary in class too. Whenever she taught new vocabulary, she gave students explicit instruction. For example, one student ran into a new word “amenities.” She initially gave a word definition and then she gave several examples so that students can understand this new word in context. And she had students review this word later. In most cases,

she incidentally explained new vocabulary that students were having a problem with according to class observations.

From her lesson plans, however, I found that she actually had a specific arrangement to teach several new words for each week. She introduced new vocabulary when she taught students a new writing topic such as “consumer behavior.” She would make “students go over vocabulary used to refer to consumer behavior, look up words in the dictionary, and complete a multiple-choice vocabulary exercise.” Every three writing classes, she gave such a vocabulary training, which means she would not teach vocabulary in every class.

To conclude, some of the teachers often gave explicit vocabulary instruction in class, which is reflected in the class observations and their teaching materials. Another teacher did not focus on teaching vocabulary in class. Rather, she expected students to learn vocabulary from tests and teachers’ feedback.

Focus Group Discussion

In general, the three participants suggested that they supported the action of taking advantage of explicit vocabulary instruction to improve students’ writing. And we discussed the challenges of giving explicit vocabulary instruction in ESL classes as well as how they might change their teaching practices to reduce the disconnection between teachers’ practices and perceptions.

- **Question 1: How much time do you usually spend on teaching vocabulary in each lesson?** Jessie was teaching an IEP reading class. For her, she didn’t feel it is necessary to teach every vocabulary word or to teach vocabulary in every lesson because she believed it would be a time-consuming job to do so. Amy, an IEP writing

teacher, answered that she usually taught vocabulary one time for each unit and she preferred teaching writing skills. Monica, who was teaching ESL reading and writing class, replied that she actually did not focus on vocabulary teaching in class but she asked her students to work on vocabulary by themselves after class instead. Thus, Jessie and Amy tended to spend some time on teaching vocabulary. But Monica did not use class time to teach vocabulary.

- **Question 2: Describe how you help students review vocabulary.** Jessie and Monica agreed that giving a quiz and explaining it later can be good way of reviewing vocabulary. While Amy encouraged students to review vocabulary through writing activity.
- **Question 3: Discuss how you assess students' vocabulary acquisition.** Monica assessed students' vocabulary acquisition by providing exercises like matching, filling-in- the-blank, and writing sentences. Amy recommended fill-in-the-gap, explaining vocabulary meaning, and writing novel sentences. Jessie's exercises were similar to exercises of Monica and Amy but she did not ask students to write novel sentences as a vocabulary assessment. Even though she admitted that writing can be a good assessment, she believed that it was hard to correct writing answers and giving feedback added time to her job. But Monica insisted that it was worthwhile and helpful. She also said that she often graded students writing by giving detailed feedback rather than just giving a check mark.
- **Question 4: Many people believe that students need explicit vocabulary instruction. Other people don't believe explicit vocabulary instruction is**

necessary. Discuss. Three participants all agreed that it is important to give students explicit vocabulary teaching. However, Monica's belief was strikingly different from what she did in class. She agreed with the teaching philosophy that vocabulary should be taught explicitly but she did not give explicit vocabulary instruction in class, which confirmed Borg's (2003) statement that teachers may act differently from what they claim.

- **Question 5: Explicit vocabulary instruction influences students' writing performance. Discuss.** Jessie and Monica suggested that explicit teaching can greatly help students learn how to use new words accurately in writing. For example, Jessica mentioned that some of her French speaking students often make mistakes using academic words because some French words are spelled the same but may have different meanings in English. Amy agreed with them and mentioned grading writing performance may be a problem.
- **Question 6: If you were to teach vocabulary explicitly, what is the most challenging part for you? And Question 7: How can you solve the challenge? What can you do? What else needs to be done (e.g. curriculum, training . . .)?**

Jessie thought reviewing words was a challenge and she often set a schedule to remind herself. Amy said that she felt it is hard to provide various ways to teach vocabulary so that students would not feel bored. She believed that working with other vocabulary teachers could help her come up with more activities. Dealing with students from different levels was a problem for Monica, but she tried to give group work to solve it.

All in all, three participants believed it is useful to help students' writing by teaching vocabulary explicitly. However, they all felt challenged to grade writing task which encouraged students to use newly learned vocabulary. One participant proposed that giving explicit feedback may be one solution, even though another participant believed it added work for teachers. There are other challenges, such as time, training, and energy, which discouraged explicit vocabulary instruction.

Chapter V: Discussion

Question 1: What are ESL Teachers' Perceptions of Vocabulary Teaching?

The results of the questionnaire indicated that most participants have positive perceptions about explicit vocabulary instruction, while they also seem to support implicit teaching activity. First of all, several ESL teaching methods were supported by most of participants in the questionnaire. Grammar translation is a method in which explains the meaning of new words in the students' first language is the norm. It can encourage students to access unknown vocabulary meaning in a more explicit way. Communicative language teaching (CLT) is a popular teaching method and becomes dominant in some education environments (Lightbrown & Spada, 2013). CLT, which is distinct from other traditional teaching methods like rote memorization, requires a lot of classroom interaction using the L2 exclusively (Wong, 2012). Even though CLT uses contextualized ways to help students acquire new vocabulary, it does not mean CLT is an implicit teaching approach. Savignon (1997) warned that CLT "should not deter us from elaborating methods" (pp. 15-16). Also, Brown (1994) proposed that the "notional-functional syllabus" was an important pioneer of CLT, in which the common activities, such as shopping, traveling, and living in a community were contextualized with the notions about what language is required to function in these contexts. This syllabus may provide the essential components of language in terms of learners needs as "learners may need a basic knowledge of the lexical forms of the languages on the assumption that this knowledge will provide the essential basis for communication when they are faced with a need to communicate" (pp. 247-248). By doing this, teachers should take students' needs into consideration. Byram (2004) proposed that "the aims of CLT depends on learner needs in a given context" (p. 128). However, implicit learning occurs in

an unstructured learning environment so that students may find harder to deduce clear rules effectively, which may influence learner needs of using vocabulary accurately during communication. So, the teaching philosophies, such as “task-based,” “process oriented” and “inductive oriented” are often related with CLT. Thus, teachers who use this method not only can teach words explicitly but also give students a chance to practice vocabulary in context so that students are able to negotiate meaning through actively communicating in appropriate contexts.

The results showed that it was obvious that participants advocating CLT were aware of teaching vocabulary in an explicit way. From my own teaching and learning experiences in China, I know that rote memorization is frequently used there. I also believe that many other countries believe in the value of rote memorization. The aim of this approach is to develop fluency of second language, especially for vocabulary and grammar. The results indicated that explicit vocabulary is valued because they believe this helps students recall and use vocabulary appropriately and accurately. “The audio-lingual approach with its emphasis on speaking and listening was based on behaviorism and contrastive analysis” (Lightbrown & Spada, 2013, p. 155). Audio repetition may help students develop the fluency of vocabulary, improving vocabulary acquisition. From the mean and mode of results of the questionnaire, the majority of participants tend to support using those teaching methods that encourage an explicit vocabulary instruction, such as grammar translation method and communicative language teaching. Other methods like rote-memorization, direct method also were recommended by participants, which may indicate that they expected to raise students’ awareness of conscious vocabulary learning. The results of this questionnaire also reflected that participants had the awareness of teaching

vocabulary in an explicit way. Reading can be used to teach vocabulary in both ways. On the one hand, teachers can require students to identify new words from reading and then explain them in detail. On the other hand, some teachers may have students read widely to acquire vocabulary incidentally. The literature review implied that this is not an effective strategy and students cannot acquire enough academic vocabulary from free reading (Waring & Takaki, 2003).

There is no significant difference between the perceptions of NES and NNES. However, some bar charts indicate that NES prefer translation and NNES prefer direct method. As the two methods both involve explicit teaching, it may suggest that both NES and NNES agree with some explicit vocabulary instructions in some degree. In addition, there is also no significant difference between the beliefs of novice teachers (1-2 years) and more experienced teachers (3+ years). But some bar charts show that more experienced teachers in general prefer memorization method and disagree with translation and audio lingual method. By contrast, novice teachers show negative attitudes towards memorization method. It shows that experienced and novice preferred different types of explicit vocabulary instructions.

All in all, participants in this study had a clear preference for explicit vocabulary instruction. But they may also support using implicit ways to teach vocabulary too, like reading activity. What's more, different teacher groups have their preference for specific explicit instruction. Novice teachers like using translation to teach vocabulary and experienced teachers like memorization. NNES show a preference for helping students learn vocabulary by direct method while NES teachers tend to prefer translation.

Question 2: Do ESL Teachers' Beliefs on Vocabulary Instruction Correspond to their Practices?

Above all, by comparing 25 participants' short answer responses with questionnaire results, I explored whether their practice corresponds to what they believed or their underlying belief. Also, I observed three participants who supported explicit vocabulary instruction in the questionnaire and survey question and had a focus group study. This could further investigate what teachers actually did in class, revealing the congruence of ESL teachers' practices and beliefs.

First Phase of Study: Survey

The second part of the survey was to answer a short question. The question was "Please list three common ways that you often use to teach vocabulary in class." Responses of this question could reveal participants' actual vocabulary teaching in class. According to Figure 7, most participants may use explicit vocabulary instruction in class. Several other topics emerged from the focus group session and are discussed below.

Context. The majority of participants reported using "context" to teach vocabulary in their answers. There were a number of ways that participants make use of context. The method they frequently mentioned was reading. For example, Participant 2 answered, "I teach academic vocabulary by having my students read academic texts, so that they can see every word they learn in context." Participant 22 expressed a similar idea that he/she often uses reading activity to help students comprehend contextualized vocabulary. Other participants also suggested activities like "a free conversation" and "using pictures" can help teachers take advantage of creating context for students to acquire new vocabulary. It can be seen that participants embraced the teaching practice of using reading to illustrate new vocabulary or have students understand new

vocabulary from context. In addition, some participants mentioned that context also can be used to assess students' vocabulary acquisition. Participant 20 said, "I offer incomplete sentences in which they can use the words in context." So, from participants' short answers to this question, it can be concluded that most participants viewed reading and learning words in context as an effective way for students to learn and acquire vocabulary.

Although a number of participants recommended teaching vocabulary in context, some expected students to acquire vocabulary from context without making the vocabulary a target of instruction. This indicates an implicit teaching preference in which students are expected to acquire the vocabulary item without teacher feedback. For example, Participant 16 taught vocabulary by having students learn new vocabulary from reading materials. As I explored in the literature review, reading alone cannot meet the demand of acquiring enough vocabulary for second language learners, especially in terms of academic vocabulary (Waring & Takaki, 2003). It goes without saying that the activity of free reading enables students to improve the fluency of their reading; however, they might learn new vocabulary in an ambiguous way, affecting accurate acquisition of productive vocabulary and possibly leading to the need for explicit learning of some specific lexical items. Students who have gotten used to learning vocabulary solely from sole reading activity may have difficulty in using implicitly learned vocabulary accurately in writing. So, some of this study's participants who supported teaching free reading activities, actually tried to encourage students to learn new words implicitly. Those participants may support explicit vocabulary instruction but they actually turned to an implicit vocabulary instruction in class, which means their actual practices may differ from their beliefs.

Writing task. One third of participants viewed the writing as an effective way to improve students' vocabulary acquisition, which means that some ESL teachers were aware of encouraging students to use vocabulary in class. These participants not only stressed learning vocabulary definition but also valued how to use vocabulary. For instance, Participant 10 stated that "after reading a text with new words, I ask students to use these same words either in writing, or in speaking, in order to involve different ways of knowledge (receptive vs. productive)." Since explicit vocabulary instruction can help learners with productive vocabulary (Lee, 2003), those participants who use writing tasks to teaching vocabulary might more possibly support explicit vocabulary instruction. Also, the importance of how to improve productive vocabulary has been discussed in the previous chapter. The survey results indicate that teachers may need training on explicit vocabulary teaching strategies which encourage students to produce vocabulary they have learned to improve writing.

Vocabulary teaching. Among these responses, most participants emphasized that they taught the meaning or definition of vocabulary, but few of them mentioned learning other aspects of vocabulary. Even though most participants paid attention to having students learn vocabulary in context, they may neglect teaching vocabulary knowledge comprehensively (form, meaning, and use) or miss the existence of rich knowledge of vocabulary (word families, collocations, fixed phrases, synonyms and so on). Only three participants talked about teaching synonyms and four participants referred to teaching collocations or using a collocation dictionary. In addition, only two participants mentioned teaching word families. These responses reveal that participants tended to focus more on teaching individual words. Learning other aspects of vocabulary knowledge could affect writing, such as word families, fixed phrases, collocation, and so on

(Folse, 2008). For example, if a teacher helps students recall or accumulate vocabulary synonyms, students are able to avoid repeating the same lexical items by replacing them with synonyms, increasing lexical variation in writing. So, some participants in this study may regard teaching vocabulary meaning as a primary task and consider less about the learning of other aspects of vocabulary. The more teachers can teach vocabulary explicitly; the more vocabulary is taught comprehensively; the better students can acquire new vocabulary.

In summary, this simple question provided many valuable insights to participants' teaching practices and beliefs. Although the previous survey reflected that participants actively prefer explicit vocabulary instruction, it cannot suggest that they would apply these teaching methods in their actual teaching. Hence, from participants' responses about their actual teaching practice, which included some teaching methods discouraging explicit vocabulary learning, less attention to writing activity, and incomprehensive vocabulary knowledge, it appears that what some participants believe about vocabulary instruction may not be consistent with their teaching practices.

Second Phase of Study: Class Observations, Teaching Materials, and the Focus Group Study

The second phase of this study's results can further reveal this answer. From the class observations on three participants, Jessie's practice basically matched her belief on vocabulary instruction. She had a systematic plan to teach vocabulary consciously, including introducing words, reviewing, and testing. After introducing new words in class, Jessie often gave students a quiz in the next class and also tested for knowledge of the words in the whole unit later. By doing this, students can improve the efficacy of vocabulary acquisition. However, I did not find

much explicit vocabulary instruction during the period of Amy's and Monica's class observations. Amy arranged vocabulary teaching once a week according to her lesson plan which arranged a list of vocabulary learning per week specifically. But I found that she only incidentally taught vocabulary explicitly in class because she brought up explicit vocabulary teaching only when students asked questions for new vocabulary meaning. Instead, she focused more on teaching writing structure and format. And Monica did not spare time on explicit vocabulary teaching in her class because she expected her students to acquire new words on their own. Yet, she only gave students a vocabulary test once a week to assess their vocabulary learning, even though she did not explicitly teach vocabulary. In the questionnaire, Monica strongly agreed that it is important to offer students clear and unambiguous vocabulary instruction. But she told me later that she believes students should self-learn new vocabulary in this class, confirming Folse's (2004a) statement that some writing teachers believe that teaching vocabulary is not their job. Explicit learning was supported in Monica's class. But explicit learning is different from explicit instruction. The former suggests an "active process where students seek out the structure of information that is presented to them" (Wiki Spaces, 2006). Students who self-learn new vocabulary discover regularities from information they interact with, such as online resources and dictionaries. However, explicit instruction, which is usually lead by the teacher, presents direct and logical rules to them clearly. As mentioned in the literature review, vocabulary learning involves learning form, meaning, and use (Nation, 2013). It is possible that students cannot fully acquire new words on their own. Thus, even though Monica required students to produce sentences with new vocabulary in quizzes and gave specific feedback, students probably were unable to engage in an effective learning as they did not

receive comprehensive input in advance, possibly affecting the conversion from receptive vocabulary to productive vocabulary, especially for academic vocabulary learning (Hinkel, 2015; Lee, 2003). Class observation results confirmed what Phipps and Borg (2009) stated that some teachers may act differently from what they believe.

From the focus group study, teachers expressed several challenges to teaching vocabulary explicitly.

Hard to teach all aspects. All participants think it is important to teach vocabulary and it will benefit our students in terms of writing. However, they had problems with teaching vocabulary. Jessie, who taught vocabulary explicitly in class, admitted that it is not easy for teachers to teach all aspects of vocabulary (form, meaning, and use) or include every vocabulary word from a reading. The other two participants strongly agreed with her. On the other hand, teachers who teach reading and/or writing may dismiss the importance of vocabulary in their courses. Monica thought that she focused on writing structure in her class. Although Amy treated vocabulary learning as one of the students' learning outcomes, she gave little vocabulary instruction as evidenced from the class observations and worked more on teaching the structure of writing. It is possible that some ESL teachers who feel challenged to teach vocabulary comprehensively avoid focusing on vocabulary and pay more attention to other aspects of the language.

Hard to grade students' writing performance. All participants agreed that explicit vocabulary instruction influences students' writing performance. Participants use some exercises to assess students' knowledge of vocabulary in terms of form and meaning to assess vocabulary acquisition. According to the literature review, writing can be a good way for students to use new

vocabulary. Amy and Monica used this method to help students learn how to use vocabulary, too. And then Jessie put forward the question, “is it hard to grade students’ writing? This practice may add to teachers’ work, right?” The other two participants showed that they had similar experience as well. Nonetheless, lexical performance does influence academic writing quality in terms of content and students are eager to improve vocabulary use in writing. Despite the fact that teachers may feel challenged to grade writing, writing appear to be a good way to help students learn how to convert receptive vocabulary into productive vocabulary.

Teaching experience and training. Combining survey results and class observations, I can find that only one participant’s belief is congruent with her practice. One of participants seldom taught vocabulary in her class and another participant chose to leave students to learn vocabulary by themselves even though they claimed that explicit vocabulary teaching was valuable. Years of experience may offer a partial explanation. Among three participants, Jessie, who reported that she had 25 years of teaching experience and received various types of vocabulary instruction training, did best to align her teaching practices with her beliefs. Amy had 7 years of teaching experience, was taking MA TESL classes, and was trying to apply what she had learned to her teaching. However, Monica was a novice teacher, who had only taught for one year at the time of this study. She admitted that she was not currently applying the teaching methods she has learned about in her MA TESL classes. To conclude, teaching experience and ESL teachers’ learning of more relevant education may influence the congruency of teachers’ practices and beliefs.

Chapter VI: Conclusion

This study explored ESL teachers' perceptions and practices of vocabulary instruction. As discussed in the literature review, conscious vocabulary teaching can benefit students in enhancing their writing performance. Thus, it is necessary to investigate ESL teachers' beliefs on vocabulary teaching. However, as in other realms of teaching, some ESL teachers may not follow what they claim. This misalignment may influence the degree to which students learn and internalize new vocabulary.

The questionnaire results show that participants held a positive attitude towards explicit vocabulary instruction in general but that they also supported implicit teaching. Some of their responses to the survey questions might indicate some teachers preferred implicit vocabulary instruction which may not help students become familiar with these new vocabulary words, not to mention using those words in writing. I also found that there is no significant difference in terms of native ESL teachers' and non-native ESL teachers' beliefs and their years of teaching experience. It may be possible that the majority of participants were taking TESL courses, which might influence them to have similar attitudes. But some results show that NES, NNES, the more experienced teacher group, and the novice teacher group may have their different preferences for the different types of explicit vocabulary instruction, which may need further investigation. To further study teachers' beliefs and practices, a second phase of study was conducted. Through class observations and a focus group study, it can be concluded that some teachers act differently from what they believe. When it comes to vocabulary teaching, it shows that some teachers may behave differently due to some practical problems which may partly come from themselves and/or outside factors like limited class time.

From this study, several implications can be drawn which may reduce the incongruence of teachers' beliefs and practices, which could benefit promoting explicit vocabulary instruction to improve L2 students' writing performance.

Suggestions for Supervisors

The incongruence of teachers' beliefs and practices reminds supervisors in schools or institutions that teachers may not always follow the instruction that they claimed. They should be aware of this discordance in the first place. Also, it would help teachers that supervisors come to visit their classes, pushing them to apply teaching methods they suggested before. If teachers do not act accordantly as they believed, supervisors can point out this difference and suggest that they pay more attention to the issue of congruence of beliefs and practices, which can lead to real improvement in schooling (Dobson, 1983).

Teacher Education

More explicit attention to teacher education is recommended, especially for novice teachers. Above all, Figure 10 shows 25 participants' years of teaching in this study. Almost half of participants have less than 2 years of teaching experience. Their response in the survey indicates that their beliefs are different from their practices. Also, class observations showed that teaching experience and related training may influence the congruency of teachers' beliefs and practices too. So, it is possible that teachers may reduce the incongruence by accumulating more teaching experience and by participating actively in professional development activities. As mentioned, it is meaningful to promote the matching of beliefs and practices for teachers when they received these teaching training (Dobson & Dobson, 1983). By giving more teacher education relating to explicit vocabulary instruction it be a feasible way to help these novice

teachers reduce the incongruence of their beliefs and practices, such as attending workshops and related conferences. On the other hand, participants mentioned that teaching vocabulary is not easy work, which may be a possible reason that teachers lost their motivation to teach vocabulary in class. Teachers who are consistently exposed to more teacher education can learn more effective teaching methods and feel confident to give explicit vocabulary instruction in class.

Working Together

Class observations indicated that only one participant consistently gave students clear and enough vocabulary instruction, which matched what the participant stated in the survey. One participant suggested that teaching vocabulary added to the teachers' job, which is also supported in the literature on vocabulary teaching (Folse, 2008). It is possible that ESL teachers reduced or dismissed vocabulary teaching due to some difficulties like grading, time limit, and energy, even though they are aware of the importance of teaching vocabulary consciously. Another participant mentioned that it is helpful to teach vocabulary more effectively by working together with other teachers. I strongly agree with this suggestion that teachers can work together to align their classes so that the teaching of vocabulary in one class can be reinforced in other classes. To be specific, teachers can discuss academic vocabulary lists and select a list of words in order to cycle through those words in different classes. Some teachers can emphasize the learning of productive vocabulary and other teachers can help students learn how to use the vocabulary. By doing this, students can review vocabulary learning and enhance vocabulary acquisition. What's more, it can help ESL programs which are unable to provide a specific vocabulary class for students because of budgeting constraints or other reasons. Thus, working together can help

teachers and programs give explicit vocabulary instruction in class so that teachers could feel less stressed about vocabulary teaching work and are more willing to teach vocabulary explicitly.

This study contained some limitations. First of all, the size of participants should be larger. There were only 25 participants taking part in the first survey. To increase the validity of the survey results, it would be better to investigate more ESL teachers so that I can find a clear perception of explicit vocabulary instruction. Also, it is possible that a significant difference between NNES and NES group can be found if more participants can take part in this study. A study to investigate whether the perceptions of experienced teachers are different from that of novice teachers may also need more participants. What's more, only three ESL teachers were observed in one month during the second phase of the study. The small sample size and short observation period may not comprehensively show most ESL teachers' practice in class. More observations and over a longer period of time may reveal a more robust and therefore reliable pattern of teacher practice versus belief. The survey, which aimed to find ESL teachers' opinions about vocabulary explicit instruction, can be improved as well. If I could add more implicit vocabulary teaching methods, the survey can more clearly find out how participants' attitudes toward implicit vocabulary instruction.

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Appendix A: Survey

Part A- Please choose your option for the following questions about teaching vocabulary, 1 stands for strongly disagree, 6 stands for strongly agree.

1. It is necessary to translate vocabulary meaning to students' native language.

(strongly disagree)

(strongly agree)

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

2. Teachers can have students notice and also acquire new vocabulary from reading activity.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

3. Students must memorize vocabulary

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

4. It is necessary to help students understand vocabulary through active interaction like role play, information gap

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

5. Students must repeat new vocabulary after teachers to learn a word

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

6. Vocabulary should be acquired like L1 in context without L2 translation.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

7. It is useful to use word-frequency lists to teach vocabulary

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

8. There is no need to take time to memorize words because students can acquire vocabulary naturally

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

9. It is important to offer students clear, unambiguous vocabulary instruction

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

10. It is negative for teachers to teach vocabulary by using bilingual vocabulary lists in class.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

11. Vocabulary should be taught in discourse.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

12. It is not useful to ask students to learn new words from reading activity

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

13. Vocabulary should be taught through pantomiming, real-life objects and other visual materials

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

14. Active interaction like role play, information gap is not important while teaching vocabulary

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

15 Repetition activities that teachers use in class to help students learner vocabulary is ineffective.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

Part B- List three common ways that you often use to teach vocabulary

Appendix B: Personal Information

1. How many years have you taught English? _____year(s)
2. Have you received any training on how to teach vocabulary?

Yes (what type of training) _____

No

Focus Group Discussion

1. How much time do you usually spend on teaching vocabulary in each lesson?
2. Describe how you help students review vocabulary.
3. Discuss how you assess students' vocabulary acquisition.
4. Many people believe that students need explicit vocabulary instruction. Other people don't believe explicit vocabulary instruction is necessary. Discuss.
5. Explicit vocabulary instruction influences students' writing performance. Discuss.
6. If you were to teach vocabulary explicitly, what is the most challenging part for you?
7. How can you solve the challenge? What can you do? What else need to be done (e.g. curriculum, training)?
8. Is there anything else you want to add to your vocabulary teaching?

Appendix C: T-test

Group Statistics

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q2 Native Speakers	10	4.60	1.647	.521
Non-Native Speakers	15	5.20	1.082	.279

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q2	Equal variances assumed	3.113	.091	-1.103	23
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.015	14.176

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
					Lower
Q2	Equal variances assumed	.281	-.600	.544	-1.725
	Equal variances not assumed	.327	-.600	.591	-1.866

Group Statistics

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q3	Native Speakers	10	3.80	1.317	.416
	Non-Native Speakers	15	3.80	1.373	.355

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q3	Equal variances assumed	.007	.934	.000	23
	Equal variances not assumed			.000	20.019

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower
Q3	Equal variances assumed	1.000	.000	.552	-1.141
	Equal variances not assumed	1.000	.000	.547	-1.141

Group Statistics

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q4 Native Speakers	10	4.60	1.075	.340
Non-Native Speakers	15	5.13	.834	.215

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q4	Equal variances assumed	1.708	.204	-1.396	23
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.325	16.012

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower
Q4	Equal variances assumed	.176	-.533	.382	-1.323
	Equal variances not assumed	.204	-.533	.402	-1.386

Group Statistics

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q5 Native Speakers	10	3.20	1.619	.512
Non-Native Speakers	15	2.73	1.486	.384

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q5	Equal variances assumed	.098	.757	.742	23
	Equal variances not assumed			.729	18.249

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower
Q5	Equal variances assumed	.465	.467	.629	-.834
	Equal variances not assumed	.475	.467	.640	-.876

Group Statistics

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q6	Native Speakers	10	3.40	1.350	.427
	Non-Native Speakers	15	3.67	1.397	.361

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q6	Equal variances assumed	.065	.800	-.474	23
	Equal variances not assumed			-.477	19.917

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
Lower					
Q6	Equal variances assumed	.640	-.267	.563	-1.431
	Equal variances not assumed	.638	-.267	.559	-1.433

Group Statistics

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q7 Native Speakers	10	4.90	1.287	.407
Non-Native Speakers	15	5.20	1.014	.262

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q7	Equal variances assumed	.109	.745	-.651	23
	Equal variances not assumed			-.620	16.212

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
					Lower
Q7	Equal variances assumed	.521	-.300	.461	-1.253
	Equal variances not assumed	.544	-.300	.484	-1.325

Group Statistics

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q8 Native Speakers	10	2.70	1.418	.448
Non-Native Speakers	15	2.67	1.397	.361

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q8	Equal variances assumed	.006	.941	.058	23
	Equal variances not assumed			.058	19.239

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower
Q8	Equal variances assumed	.954	.033	.574	-1.154
	Equal variances not assumed	.954	.033	.576	-1.170

Group Statistics

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q9 Native Speakers	10	5.20	.789	.249
Non-Native Speakers	15	5.40	.632	.163

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q9	Equal variances assumed	.368	.550	-.702	23
	Equal variances not assumed			-.671	16.428

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Q9	Equal variances assumed	.490	-.200	.285
	Equal variances not assumed	.512	-.200	.298

95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
Lower

-.789

-.831

Group Statistics

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q10	Native Speakers	10	2.70	1.059	.335
	Non-Native Speakers	15	3.60	1.352	.349

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q10	Equal variances assumed	.760	.392	-1.769	23
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.860	22.275

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
					Lower
Q10	Equal variances assumed	.090	-.900	.509	-1.952
	Equal variances not assumed	.076	-.900	.484	-1.903

Group Statistics

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q11 Native Speakers	10	5.10	.876	.277
Non-Native Speakers	15	4.53	.834	.215

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q11	Equal variances assumed	.499	.487	1.632	23
	Equal variances not assumed			1.616	18.763

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower
Q11	Equal variances assumed	.116	.567	.347	-.152
	Equal variances not assumed	.123	.567	.351	-.168

Group Statistics

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q12 Native Speakers	10	2.00	1.414	.447
Non-Native Speakers	15	1.73	1.100	.284

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q12	Equal variances assumed	2.121	.159	.530	23
	Equal variances not assumed			.503	16.044

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower
Q12	Equal variances assumed	.601	.267	.503	-.774
	Equal variances not assumed	.622	.267	.530	-.856

Group Statistics

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q13 Native Speakers	10	5.00	1.247	.394
Non-Native Speakers	15	4.33	.900	.232

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
	F	Sig.	t	df
Q13 Equal variances assumed	1.486	.235	1.556	23
Equal variances not assumed			1.456	15.155

Independent Samples Test

	t-test for Equality of Means			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
				Lower
Q13 Equal variances assumed	.133	.667	.428	-.220
Equal variances not assumed	.166	.667	.458	-.308

Group Statistics

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q14 Native Speakers	10	1.50	.707	.224
Non-Native Speakers	15	1.80	1.082	.279

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q14	Equal variances assumed	.332	.570	-.771	23
	Equal variances not assumed			-.838	23.000

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower
Q14	Equal variances assumed	.449	-.300	.389	-1.105
	Equal variances not assumed	.411	-.300	.358	-1.040

Group Statistics

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q15 Native Speakers	10	1.691667	.8203150	.2594064
Non-Native Speakers	15	2.066667	1.2798809	.3304638

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Q15	Equal variances assumed	1.767	.197	-.818	23
	Equal variances not assumed			-.893	22.990

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
					Lower
Q15	Equal variances assumed	.422	-.3750000	.4583333	-1.3231347
	Equal variances not assumed	.381	-.3750000	.4201167	-1.2440979

Appendix D: All Questions

Group Statistics

	Years	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q1	1-2 years	12	3.67	1.155	.333
	3+ years	13	2.69	1.548	.429
Q2	1-2 years	12	4.58	1.621	.468
	3+ years	13	5.31	.947	.263
Q3	1-2 years	12	3.50	1.508	.435
	3+ years	13	4.08	1.115	.309
Q4	1-2 years	12	4.75	1.055	.305
	3+ years	13	5.08	.862	.239
Q5	1-2 years	12	3.25	1.712	.494
	3+ years	13	2.62	1.325	.368
Q6	1-2 years	12	3.25	1.422	.411
	3+ years	13	3.85	1.281	.355
Q7	1-2 years	12	5.25	.866	.250
	3+ years	13	4.92	1.320	.366
Q8	1-2 years	12	2.92	1.621	.468
	3+ years	13	2.46	1.127	.312
Q9	1-2 years	12	5.33	.778	.225
	3+ years	13	5.31	.630	.175
Q10	1-2 years	12	2.75	.754	.218
	3+ years	13	3.69	1.548	.429
Q11	1-2 years	12	4.58	.996	.288
	3+ years	13	4.92	.760	.211
Q12	1-2 years	12	1.92	1.311	.379
	3+ years	13	1.77	1.166	.323
Q13	1-2 years	12	4.67	1.231	.355
	3+ years	13	4.54	.967	.268
Q14	1-2 years	12	1.58	.669	.193
	3+ years	13	1.77	1.166	.323
Q15	1-2 years	12	1.659722	.7756216	.2239027
	3+ years	13	2.153846	1.3445045	.3728985

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Q1	1.421	.245	1.771	23	.090	.974	.550	-.164	2.112
			1.792	22.074	.087	.974	.544	-.153	2.102
Q2	6.379	.019	-1.378	23	.182	-.724	.526	-1.812	.363
			-1.350	17.438	.194	-.724	.537	-1.855	.406
Q3	1.865	.185	-1.094	23	.285	-.577	.527	-1.668	.514
			-1.081	20.195	.293	-.577	.534	-1.690	.536
Q4	1.168	.291	-.851	23	.403	-.327	.384	-1.121	.468
			-.844	21.316	.408	-.327	.387	-1.132	.478
Q5	1.863	.186	1.041	23	.309	.635	.610	-.626	1.896
			1.030	20.721	.315	.635	.616	-.647	1.917
Q6	.017	.899	-1.103	23	.282	-.596	.541	-1.714	.522
			-1.098	22.221	.284	-.596	.543	-1.722	.529
Q7	1.298	.266	.725	23	.476	.327	.451	-.606	1.260
			.737	20.850	.469	.327	.443	-.596	1.249
Q8	1.177	.289	.821	23	.420	.455	.555	-.692	1.602
			.809	19.449	.428	.455	.563	-.721	1.631
Q9	1.069	.312	.091	23	.928	.026	.282	-.558	.610
			.090	21.220	.929	.026	.285	-.566	.617
Q10	5.758	.025	-1.908	23	.069	-.942	.494	-1.964	.080
			-1.957	17.681	.066	-.942	.481	-1.955	.070

Q11	Equal variances assumed	1.172	.290	-.964	23	.345	-.340	.353	-1.069	.390
	Equal variances not assumed			-.953	20.549	.352	-.340	.356	-1.082	.403
Q12	Equal variances assumed	.663	.424	.298	23	.769	.147	.495	-.877	1.172
	Equal variances not assumed			.296	22.115	.770	.147	.498	-.885	1.180
Q13	Equal variances assumed	1.399	.249	.291	23	.774	.128	.441	-.784	1.040
	Equal variances not assumed			.288	20.894	.776	.128	.445	-.798	1.054
Q14	Equal variances assumed	1.049	.316	-.483	23	.633	-.186	.385	-.981	.610
	Equal variances not assumed			-.494	19.390	.627	-.186	.377	-.973	.601
Q15	Equal variances assumed	4.202	.052	-1.113	23	.277	-.4941239	.4441320	-1.4128810	.4246331
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.136	19.454	.270	-.4941239	.4349548	-1.4030592	.4148114