

Task-Based Instruction versus Direct Instruction through Presentation of Meaning: Investigating Their Effectiveness in L2 Vocabulary Acquisition

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Abstract – The study reported in this article investigated the effect of two instructional approaches – presentation of meaning (PoM) and task-based language teaching (TBLT) – on the acquisition and retention of vocabulary meaning. Participants were lower-intermediate EFL learners at university levels and the target set of vocabulary consisted of basic adjectives of quantity and adverbs of frequency. One group, group PoM, was given explicit presentation on the meaning of the vocabulary, and the other group, group TBLT, went through a task-based activity which focused on the target vocabulary. The third group was a control group which received no treatment. Quantitative analysis performed on data from three sets of tests – Pre-test, Post-test 1, and Post-test 2 (administered three weeks after treatment) – suggests that while both PoM and TBLT approaches were effective in the short run, retention of knowledge was only observed in the TBLT group. The results provide support for task-based vocabulary teaching for lower-intermediate learners in medium-sized university language classroom settings.

Keywords: task-based teaching, explicit instruction, L2 vocabulary acquisition, retention

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the few points on which second language (L2) learners, teachers, and researchers can all agree upon is that learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a foreign language (Schmitt, 2008). However, it has been said that most English as a foreign language (EFL) learners, considering the length of instruction they receive, seem to acquire a very small vocabulary. For example, typical Japanese EFL learners receive between 800-1000 hours of instruction prior to entering universities, but the vocabulary size of Japanese EFL university students is only between 2000-2300 (Laufer, 2000). This size of vocabulary falls short of the 8000-9000 range, the number which Schmitt (2008) explains as the “realistic target if they wish to read a wide variety of texts without unknown vocabulary being a problem” (331).

In order to overcome the lexical learning challenge in EFL education, a great number of principles and approaches for constructing effective vocabulary learning tasks have been suggested (Schmitt, 2008), ranging from promoting incidental learning from extensive reading or listening (e.g., Day & Bamford, 1998; Joe, 1998; Nation & Wang, 1999) to explicit learning induced by direct teaching (e.g., de la Fuente, 2006; Shintani, 2013; Sonbul & Schmitt, 2009). However, many scholars now believe that although incidental learning may be effective to some extent, providing target language input alone is normally not as effective as intentional learning. For example, Schmitt (2008) states that “although valuable learning can accrue from

incidental exposure, intentional vocabulary learning (i.e. when the specific goal is to learn vocabulary, usually with an explicit focus) almost always leads to greater and faster gains, with a better chance of retention and of reaching productive levels of mastery” (341). Therefore, Sonbul and Schmitt (2009) argue that using explicit instruction is crucial for achieving highly efficacious vocabulary learning in L2. Lee (2003) also points out that “explicit vocabulary instruction helps to convert recognition vocabulary into productive vocabulary” (551), and explicit instruction could also help retention.

Explicit instruction, however, may refer to various approaches with different levels of intervention. While some studies claim that presenting the meaning of the target vocabulary has substantial effects (e.g., Lee & Macaro, 2013; Webb, 2005), others argue that task-based instruction such as students’ involvement in interactive tasks are suited for enhancing lexical acquisition (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998). So far, the argument on which explicit instruction method and depth of engagement is effective for successful vocabulary learning is far from settled. To which level of exposure, noticing, and interaction learners must commit to in order to acquire the targeted vocabulary is a pressing issue in regard to providing clear descriptions and guidelines to foreign language teachers and learners. In light of delivering new empirical evidence to this debate, the current study employed two different types of explicit vocabulary learning methods: presentation of meaning (PoM) and task-based language teaching (TBLT), to study their effects on lower-intermediate Japanese EFL learners.

2. EXPLICIT VOCABULARY TEACHING IN EFL CLASSROOMS

While past research suggests the relative effectiveness of explicit instruction in promoting vocabulary learning (e.g., Laufer, 2005; Lee, 2003; Smith, 2004; Sonbul & Schmitt, 2009), such an approach is not necessarily the major element in most L2 classrooms (Schmitt, 2008). For instance, a case study conducted in Asian contexts reports that teachers rarely adapted explicit vocabulary instruction in English classrooms (Hong Kong: 2.79%; China: 12.24%) (Tang & Nesi, 2003). The study describes that even when novice words were introduced to the classes, they often lacked explanation of their meanings, and modified output through student–student interaction was rarely observed. Similarly, in Japanese secondary education, many students do not receive intentional vocabulary instruction during class, and in most cases, they are expected to acquire the necessary vocabulary knowledge through their own effort (Oka et al., 2004).

Preceding vocabulary research has suggested a number of methods of intentional vocabulary teaching which can be adapted into classrooms in EFL contexts. However, the current study will discuss the two approaches which encompass a contrastive level of output and engagement with target lexical items.

2.1. Presentation of Meaning (PoM)

Perhaps the most direct approach of intentional vocabulary teaching is to provide learners with the meanings, or L1 translations, of the target words. Providing learners with L1 translation is a sensible way to quickly promote semantic knowledge by establishing the initial

link in between form and meaning in the students' minds (Cook, 2008; Schmitt, 2008; Webb, 2005). Although presentation of L1 explanation is a classical approach, recent research has reevaluated the role of L1 explanation in language classrooms. Lee and Macaro (2013) compared two groups of Korean learners of English to study the effect of providing L1 translations. The treatment group was given L1 translation of newly introduced vocabulary, whereas the control group received English-only instructions. The results were that the treatment group with explicit instruction through L1 translation outperformed the control group in both the immediate post-tests administered after each treatment and the delayed post-test three weeks after the final treatment.

The greatest advantages of presenting meaning of the target lexical items in the learners' L1 are that it is definitely less time-consuming compared to other explicit teaching options such as PPP (Presentation, Practice, and Production) and TBLT, and it does not require specialized techniques or careful preparations by the instructors. If the effect of presenting the meaning of the target vocabulary claimed by some studies holds true for long term as well as their immediate effects, meaning that retention can be guaranteed, there seems to be no reason for not adapting this efficient and economical approach.

2.2. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

There are also suggestions that engagement in task activities that incorporate meaningful conversational exchanges contributes to the acquisition of vocabulary. This notion is partially influenced by the recent spread of Focus on Form approach, which conventionally had been discussed in the scope of grammar instruction and its acquisition. The general concept of Focus on Form is that by guiding learners' attention on L2 form, it aims to achieve L2 form-meaning mapping by facilitating learners' explicit, conscious processing and reinforcing the form-function bindings of novel L2 constructions (Ellis, 2005). As a means to promote learners' focus on the target language element, tasks are often introduced during the procedure. TBLT is based on the idea that in addition to the form of language, tasks which incorporate the function that the target form plays in communication should be conducted by learners (e.g., Breen, 1987; Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004).

TBLT design, so far, has been mainly applied to grammar instruction. However, according to the advocates of TBLT, task-based instruction is also applicable and suited for vocabulary learning. Zhou (2012) argues that "task-based instruction is an advanced method in facilitating vocabulary learning in that students can engage in various communicative tasks with peers during which less psychological burden occurs, leading to repetitive use of newly learned vocabulary and more negotiations" (1056). In fact, some recent challenges to adapt TBLT instruction to vocabulary acquisition have presented some encouraging results. For example, de la Fuente (2006) compared task-based vocabulary lessons with a traditional PPP lesson on Spanish words and found task-based lessons to be more effective than PPP. Although the results of the immediate post-test revealed no significant difference between the PPP group and the task group, the task-based groups' performance exceeded that of the PPP group in the delayed vocabulary test administered one week after the treatment.

Pishadast (2015) also reports on the positive effect of a form-focused task-based vocabulary instruction. A TBLT instruction was compared with traditional explicit explanation-drilling practice on Iranian elementary EFL learners. The results of the delayed

post-test administered one week after the treatment showed that the TBLT group outperformed the traditional instruction group. Pishadast argues that task-based teaching had a significant impact on learners' learning and retention.

Although the above studies engaging in TBLT instruction seem to present some promising empirical data, research on task-based L2 vocabulary acquisition is still very scarce, and further establishment of the connections between research, methodology, and classroom is in order (de la Fuente, 2006). In addition, some uncertainty exists on the retentive effect of TBLT. It has been pointed out that acquisition through TBLT in general, results in longer retention of the knowledge compared to explicit instruction such as PPP (Ellis, 2005). The results from de la Fuente (2006) and Pishadast (2015) also presented indications of good retention, however, their delayed post-tests were administered only one week after treatment. Schmitt (2010) advises that a minimum of a three-week interval should be set between treatment and delayed post-test for clear indications of "learning which is stable and durable" (157). Therefore, further classroom-based investigations are required for in order to discuss the stringent validity of the retentive effect of TBLT vocabulary instruction.

2.3. Objective of the Study

The study reported here investigated the comparative short-term and long-term learning effects of two explicit vocabulary instructions: PoM and TBLT. Therefore, the central research questions were as follows:

- (a) Is there any difference in the effect of PoM and TBLT instruction on lower-intermediate learners' knowledge of adjectives of quantity and adverbs of frequency in the short term?
- (b) Is there any difference in the effect of PoM and TBLT instruction on lower-intermediate learners' knowledge of adjectives of quantity and adverbs of frequency in the long term?

3. METHOD

3.1. Research Design

In the present study, learner participants were divided into three groups according to the treatment they received. The first group, group PoM, was given explicit presentation on the meaning of the vocabulary. The second group, group TBLT, went through a task-based activity which focused on the target vocabulary. The third group was a control group which took the tests without receiving any treatment.

The current study regarded the acquisition of vocabulary as understanding the meaning of the target items. This was measured through a multiple-choice questionnaire which asked for precise numerical values that each target items indicate (Appendix A). As explained later, the numerical data obtained from 30 native speakers of English was used as benchmarks for judgement. All the participants took three identical sets of questionnaires, which were conducted as pre-test (before the treatment), immediate post-test (immediately after the treatment), and delayed post-test (three weeks after the treatment).

3.2. Target Items

The present study investigated the acquisition of adjectives of quantity and adverbs of frequency. They were chosen as target items because PoM was included in the treatment methods. When instructing vocabulary through learners' L1, there is an important issue that should not be dismissed, which is the credibility of parallel translation. Although there is no theoretical reason to exclude the L1 from communicative classrooms (Widdowson, 2003), Nation (2001) warns the risk of the persistent use of translation as it can “encourage the idea that there is an exact equivalence between words in the first and second languages” (86). Pavlenko (2009) further explains that “translation equivalents are not always conceptual equivalents” (133), meaning that a word in L2 and its translation in L1 may not necessary share the same range of conceptual meanings. According to Pavlenko (2009), there are many cases where a L1 word and its L2 translation have different lexical concept boundaries, which could cause confusion or misunderstanding by learners. In other words, there may exist a gap in the meaning between the target lexical item and its L2 translation, therefore providing the meaning through L2 translation may be inappropriate in some cases.

Taking this risk into account, the current study employed scalar expressions which can be expressed in quantity values. Numerical values were used as the criteria to judge whether learners understood their meanings in English. The 14 expressions tested in this study (Table 1) were reasonably basic, and thus taught and learned at the primary stage of English education. Nevertheless, research shows that Japanese learners tend to struggle with its meanings. Yoshida (2014) studied Japanese advanced-intermediate learners' interpretation on six scalar expressions including adjectives of quantity and adverbs of frequency, and found that their understanding of the four terms differed from that of the natives to a statistically significant level. For example, while the meaning of *few* was relatively straightforward to the native speakers, the Japanese learners misconceived *few* as being “fewer” than the natives think. In the case of the present study targeting lower-intermediate learners, as is reported later, their accuracy in the pre-test was also low (57%)

Table 1: List of Vocabularies Tested

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •all •half •most •many •several •a few •few •none 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •always •usually •often •sometimes •hardly ever •never
<p style="text-align: center;">Adjectives of Quantity</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Adverbs of Frequency</p>

3.3. Participants

This study comprised of a total number of 64 Japanese learners of English. Their ages were between 18-19 years of age (average=18.13), and 8 of them were male, 56 were female. The learners' self-assessment of their English level lay between beginner level and upper-intermediate, with 95% of them reporting that they are at or below intermediate level (beginner: 16, lower-intermediate: 28, intermediate: 17, upper-intermediate: 3).

All learner participants were first-year and second-year students at a private university and a junior college located in Tokyo. Both the university and the junior college require all students to take English Conversation courses as mandatory courses, and questionnaires and treatments were conducted during the lessons in the spring semester of 2016. The type of treatment they received depended on which class they were placed, not according to their English proficiency. All the lessons were taught by the first author of this article.

3.4. Questionnaire

A questionnaire asking about the reception of scalar adjectives and adverbs of frequency was administered to all groups of participants. Its format was adapted from the test applied in Yoshida (2014) (c.f., Appendix A). First, a brief situational setting was described with a question asking for the concrete number depicted in each sentence (e.g., *If there were total number of 10 students, how many students do you think actually came in the following cases?*), which is followed by individual questions with a simple sentence incorporating the target vocabulary (e.g., *Several of the students came*). Respondents were to choose one number from zero to ten that best depicts each situation.

3.5. Meanings of Adjectives of Quantity and Adverbs of Frequency

Prior to the experiments involving Japanese EFL learners, the current study first collected data from 30 native speakers of English in order to investigate the native perception of the target items. Their ages were between 23 and 34 years old (average 25.9 years old), 17 of them were male and 13 were female, and their countries of origin were as follows: the United States (N=17), Australia (N=4), the United Kingdom (N=3), Taiwan (N=2), Japan (N=2), Canada (N=1), and Finland (N=1).

The natives were asked to complete the English translated version of the questionnaire administered to the learners. The collected data acted as benchmarks, meaning that they were used to judge the correct and the incorrect responses by learners. The obtained learners' data were scored as correct if their responses ranged within ± 1 standard deviation from the mean score of the natives. On the other hand, if their evaluation lay outside this range, they were treated as incorrect.

3.6. Treatment

The PoM Group received explicit explanation of meaning based on the responses from the native speakers. After the administration of pre-test, learners in group PoM were informed that 30 native speakers of English took the same test that they have just taken, and were presented the distribution charts and average values for each vocabulary items. The lesson was

conducted in Japanese, but Japanese translations of the target items were not provided by the instructor for any of the target items. For example, the instructor explained using charts and graphs that if native speakers were told that out of ten students, “*few of them came*”, their impression would be that somewhere between two to four students had appeared, and their average was 2.8, but most people chose two or three.

The task implemented for the TBLT group took a five-step process which was designed based on the task design by Willis (1996). The flow of the task activity is presented below as Figure 1.

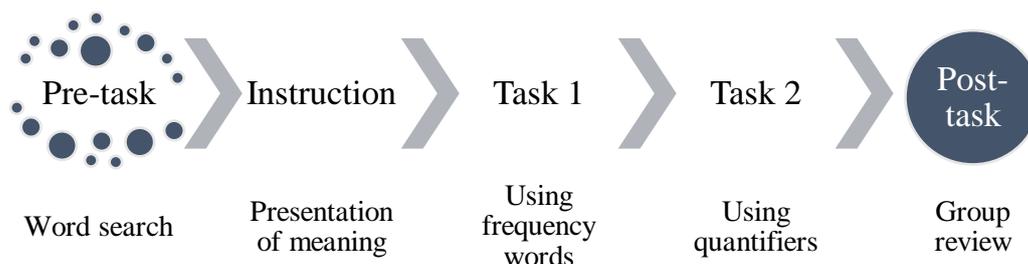


Figure 1: Flow of TBLT Treatment

For the pre-task, learners were given a list of vocabulary which included the target items as well as unrelated words. Working in pairs, the students searched and highlighted expressions that described quantity (i.e., adjectives of quantity), and expressions that represent frequency (i.e., adverbs of frequency). The second step was the explanation of the meaning of each target items, which were identical to that given to the PoM group. Following this instruction were the task activities in which students participated in either groups or pairs. As Task 1, learners played a doctor and patient game for learning words of frequency. The class was divided into groups of 4 to 5 students, and took turns to play the doctor’s role. The students playing the doctor’s role were to choose a question from the question sheet (Appendix B) which listed a number of questions such as “How often do you eat breakfast?”, and then ask the students playing the patient role. Patients were to answer the doctor’s questions using the frequency words by checking their own habit calendar (Appendix B) which was distributed in advance. Students playing the doctor role were to confirm the patients’ statement by using exact numbers, such as “Do you mean, XX times a week?” until they reach an agreement. As for the quantifiers, the students played a shopping game in Task 2. This time, students took turns to play the shopper and shopkeeper role. Shoppers were to tell the shopkeeper which item they would like to purchase, and its quantity using quantifiers instead of actual numbers written in the cards. Both Task 1 and Task 2 took approximately 10 minutes to complete.

Lastly, the students formed new groups of five and six to summarize the activity. Each group were distributed word cards which the target items were printed, and number cards ranging from zero to ten. They were to discuss and attribute the best number for each words. The native speakers’ data was once more presented to the class at the end of the session to check whether their judgements were in accordance with the native speakers.

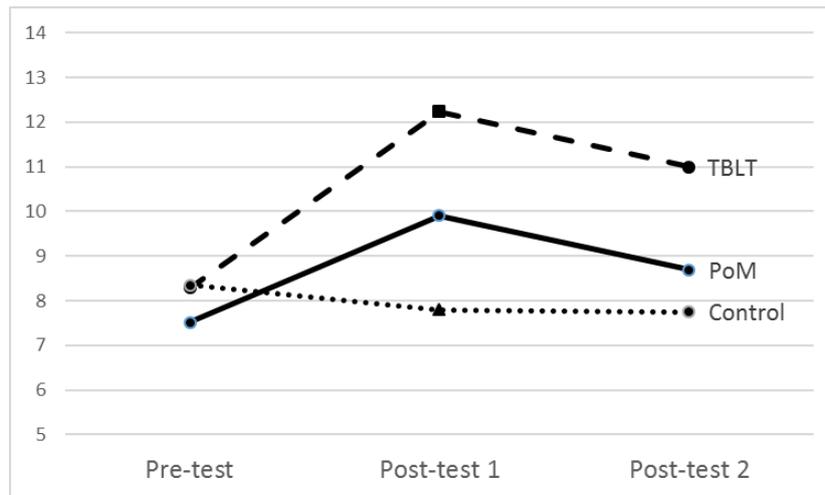
4. RESULTS

Table 2 below represents the results of Pre-test, Post-test 1, and Post-test 2. The average Pre-test score of the learners was 8.03 (57%), indicating that their understanding of the target items was not high. The results from the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test for between-group comparison of average scores (Table 3) showed no significant group effect in the initial Pre-test ($\chi=2.81$, $p=.245$), implying the homogeneity among the groups prior to treatment. However, the effect of different conditions was significant in Post-test 1 ($\chi=31.93$, $p=.00$) and in Post-test 2 ($\chi=21.37$, $p=.00$), indicating that there were differences in the performances of the groups after treatment. Graph 1 is the visual representation of the transition of test scores by the three groups.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Pre-test, Post-test 1, and Post-test 2

Group	n	Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2	
		average	SD	average	SD	average	SD
PoM	23	7.52	1.50	9.91	1.79	8.70	1.94
TBLT	21	8.29	1.12	12.24	1.44	11.0	1.54
Control	20	8.35	1.82	7.8	2.04	7.75	2.12

Note. The range of score is 0 to 14.



Graph 1: Shift of Scores by Learner Participants

Further *post-hoc* analysis with Dunn's test were conducted for the post-tests to observe the effect of instruction in more detail (Table 3). In Post-test 1, statistically significant difference was found among all groups. Group PoM and group TBLT which received explicit vocabulary instruction significantly outperformed the control group, and TBLT group exhibited higher performance than PoM group. In Post-test 2, it was found that while the null hypothesis was not rejected for the comparison between PoM-Control ($\chi=14.57$, $p=.68$), other two pair-wise comparisons detected significant differences: PoM-TBLT ($\chi=18.78$, $p=.00$) and TBLT-Control ($\chi=25.56$, $p=.00$). These results imply that the effects of PoM somewhat faded over time, and PoM group's score showed little difference compared with the control group in the delayed post-test.

Table 3: Results of Post-hoc Analysis

	Post-test 1			Post-test 2		
	df	χ	p-value	df	χ	p-value
PoM - TBLT	1	-18.46	.00*	1	-18.78	.00*
PoM - Control	1	14.57	.00*	1	6.78	.68
TBLT - Control	1	33.21	.00*	1	25.56	.00*

Note . *significant at $p < 0.01$

Additionally, pair-sample Friedman's Test was applied to examine within-group transitions of the scores. As the result, significant difference in the mean test scores was observed in two experimental groups: PoM group ($\chi=20.33$, $p=.00$) and TBLT group ($\chi=32.44$, $p=.00$). *Post-hoc* analysis by Scheffe's Test (Table 4) revealed that the average score in Post-test1 was significantly higher than that of Pre-test for both PoM and TBLT groups ($\chi= -1.26$, $p=.00$ and $\chi= -1.79$, $p=.00$, respectively). On the other hand, while the score of Post-test 2 for TBLT group was still significantly higher than that of the Pre-test ($\chi= -1.05$, $p=.00$), no significant difference was found for PoM group in comparison of Pre-test – Post-test 2 ($\chi= -0.56$, $p=.17$) and Post-test – Post-test 2 ($\chi=0.69$, $p=.06$).

Table 4: Results of post-hoc Analysis by Scheffe's Test

	PoM			TBLT		
	df	χ	p-value	df	χ	p-value
Pre-Post 1	2	-1.26	.00*	2	-1.79	.00*
Post 1-Post 2	2	0.69	.06	2	0.74	.07
Pre-Post 2	2	-0.56	.17	2	-1.05	.00*

Note. *significant at $p < .01$

5. DISCUSSION

With respect to the first research question, there were no significant differences between the learners exposed to a PoM lesson and those exposed to TBLT lessons. Both groups outperformed the control group, indicating that both instructions seem to be effective at least for the short term. It is possible that the amount of exposure to the target items and its meanings was enough to aid learners to score higher on the immediate post-test for both the treatments. The answer to the second research question, however, was contrasting to the first question. In the delayed post-test, the TBLT group outperformed the PoM group and the control group to a statistically significant degree, suggesting that TBLT instruction is more effective than PoM in terms of long run retention. In sum, the test results suggest that PoM per se has an impact on learners' acquisition of meaning, but the effect diminishes over time. Task-based treatment also presented favorable effects on lexical acquisition, but contrastively to PoM, it seemed to have contributed to the retention of learned meanings for a relatively longer period of time.

There are several possible explanations as to why the TBLT group presented better retention than the PoM group. One is the contrastive level of output and engagement between the two instructions. TBLT requires considerably greater learner engagement with target

lexical items and its output than simple PoM, where the teacher takes the leading role and there are no opportunities for student-student interaction. Past research suggests that maximizing engagement is a key factor in facilitating vocabulary learning (e.g., Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Schmitt, 2008), which implies the primacy of TBLT over PoM, which was also proved to be true in the present study. Also, the TBLT instruction adapted in this study involved negotiation of meaning between the students and production which is student-initiated. Preceding studies claim that student-initiated production is a crucial aspect in vocabulary learning (de la Fuente, 2006; Shintani, 2012). The present study also provides positive evidence to the importance of practicing production with negotiation of meaning in vocabulary acquisition. It entails that although PoM instruction in this study did not yield positive results in terms of retention, it is possible that if the short-term effect of PoM is reinforced through some kind of student-initiated production activity, their acquisition might have been retained.

Another finding from this study is that task-based vocabulary lessons can be implemented in medium-sized classrooms. Former studies investigating the effect of TBLT vocabulary acquisition were mostly conducted in small-sized classes (e.g., de la Fuente, 2006: N=10; Shintani, 2012: N=15). The TBLT group in the current study consisted of 21 students, which could be considered as medium-sized, a class size which is often offered at university language classes. However, no recognizable difficulties in running the class was observed by the researcher, and the students seemed to accomplish the given task without experiencing major drawbacks. Given that the instruction is clear and the task itself is not too complicated, it seems that task-based instruction is applicable to even medium or larger sized classes as students could work in groups without intensive assistance from the teacher.

6. CONCLUSION

This study compared the effectiveness of two explicit methods of vocabulary instruction: PoM and TBLT. Although both types of instructions led to score gains in the immediate post-test, meaning that they were effective in the short run, TBLT instruction alone was found to produce successful retention of the acquired knowledge. The results support the retentive supremacy argued by de la Fuente (2006) of TBLT instruction over other teaching methods in vocabulary instruction. It can be assumed that TBLT lessons were more effective than PoM, due to the amount of engagement with the targeted items and the number of opportunities for targeted output production that PoM lessons can offer. TBLT instructions provided learners with more occasions to negotiate the meaning of the target items with their peers through output production during the tasks, which lead to higher retention of the target vocabulary.

Undoubtedly, further research comparing TBLT vocabulary instruction and PoM or other approaches is necessary, and the number and the variation of the target vocabulary items in this study is very limited in order to give conclusive advice. Nevertheless, it provides support for implementing task-based vocabulary teaching to relatively lower-level learners in EFL environments. Furthermore, the current study demonstrated the feasibility of TBLT vocabulary instruction in middle-sized classroom settings, which is the class size that many EFL classrooms operates in. In addition to the successful outcome of the past studies targeting relatively smaller classroom sizes (de la Fuente, 2006; Shintani, 2013), the current study suggests the applicability of TBLT in larger classrooms with over twenty students.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix A

Translation of Questionnaire for Learners

This is a questionnaire about the understanding of certain vocabularies by English learners. What you answer here will not be reflected in your grades in any way, so please answer freely. If you have any questions on how to answer this questionnaire, please raise your hand for assistance.

- Read the following sentences, and circle the best answer.

[A] If there were total number of 10 students, how many students do you think actually came in the following cases?

- Example)* Three students came. 0 – 1 – 2 – **3** – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
- All of the students came. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
 - Half of the students came. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
 - Most of the students came. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
 - None of the students came. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
 - Few of the students came. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
 - Many of the students came. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
 - A few of the students came. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
 - Several of the students came. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10

[B] You and your friend are talking about a mutual friend. If there were total of 10 classes, how many times was this mutual friend late in the following cases?

- He is never late for class. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
- He is usually late for class. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
- He is often late for class. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
- He is always late for class. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
- He is sometimes late for class. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10
- He is hardly ever late for class. 0 – 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7 – 8 – 9 – 10

Appendix B
Materials Used in Task Activity

Doctor's Questions

1. How often do you
- feel the pain?
 - feel tired?
 - exercise?
 - eat chocolate?
 - drink soda?
 - skip breakfast?
2. Do you mean ____ days a week?



	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri	Sat	Sun
Feel Pain	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
Feel tired		✓					
Exercise	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Eat Chocolate			✓		✓		
Drink Soda	✓		✓		✓		✓
Skip Breakfast							