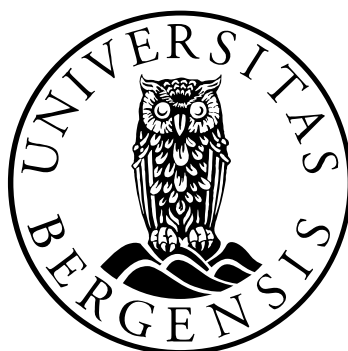


Vocabulary and EFL Textbooks

Investigating explicit vocabulary exercises in three English textbooks for Norwegian Year 10 students



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Abstract in Norwegian

Denne oppgaven omhandler vokabular i lærebøker i engelsk på 10.trinn. Vokabular er en viktig del av engelskundervisningen og en vesentlig del av det å kunne et språk. I løpet av min egen skolegang, og årene i egen lektorutdanning med observasjonsperioder og praksisperioder, har jeg opplevd lite fokus på direkte vokabulartrening i engelsk. Med disse erfaringene som utgangspunkt vil jeg se mer på hvordan man best kan lære bort nytt vokabular i engelsk som fremmedspråk. Derfor er målet med denne oppgaven å finne ut om lærebøkene som blir brukt i klasserommet er oppdatert når det kommer til fokus på vokabular. Hovedfokuset vil være å se på om det finnes oppgaver som fokuserer direkte på vokabular og hvordan disse oppgavene fremmer vokabularlæring.

For å finne svaret på disse spørsmålene, har jeg foretatt en kvantitativ og en kvalitativ analyse. Det er tre gjennomgående fokusområder i oppgaven: er ordene fremstilt i kontekst, er det fokus på flerordsenheter og hvordan kan elevene best huske nytt vokabular. I den kvantitative analysen har jeg laget et sett med kriterier for å få en oversikt over hvor mange oppgaver som fremmer direkte vokabulartrening. Disse kriteriene skal gi en oversikt over hvor mange eksplisitte oppgaver som er inkludert i bøkene, og hva de enkelte oppgavene fokuserer på. I den kvalitative analysen er målet å se på hvordan oppgavene er designet, og hva lærebokforfatterne har valgt å fokusere på. For å innskrenke antall oppgaver å analysere, ser jeg på oppgaver som fokuserer på flerordsenheter. Analysen blir gjort gjennom Nation og Webb (2011) sin *technique feature analysis*.

Resultatene viser at oppgavene som er inkludert i lærebøkene er relativt oppdaterte ifølge teori rundt det å lære nytt vokabular i et fremmedspråk. Det er 113 direkte vokabularoppgaver fordelt på de tre bøkene. De viser også at det er lite fokus på flerordsenheter. På den annen side fokuserer flertallet av oppgavene på å presentere nytt vokabular i kontekst, slik at elevene ser hvordan det kan brukes i autentiske situasjoner. Når det kommer til hukommelse og repetisjon av nye ord, er det få oppgaver som oppmuntrer, eller gir elevene mulighet, til å repetere nye ord.

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List of Abbreviations

CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
GTM	Grammar-Translation Method
LK06	National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion from 2013
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
TFA	The Technique Feature Analysis

1. Introduction

David Wilkins expresses the importance of vocabulary in the following way: “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary *nothing* can be conveyed” (Wilkins, 1978, p. 111). In the present study, I will look at explicit vocabulary exercises, wordlists and glossaries in textbooks written for students in Year 10 in the Norwegian lower secondary school.

1.1 Aims and Scope

When it comes to teaching vocabulary, there are several perspectives that can be taken into consideration: what words to teach, how to teach them and how many words the students should learn. Textbooks are expected to cover not only these aspects of learning vocabulary, but also be a helpful facilitating tool and cover the different competence aims the curriculum includes.

The English Subject Curriculum mentions vocabulary in several instances, for instance when it comes to the main subject areas and purpose (see section 2.4). Consequently, it is evident that vocabulary is considered an important part of language learning by both the Ministry of Education and Research, and language scholars in general. However, this has not always been the case. Thornbury (2002) claims that in earlier times of language teaching, “teachers have not fully recognised the tremendous communicative advantage in developing an extensive vocabulary” (p. 13). He goes on to discuss how different teaching methods, or approaches, have prioritized grammar (see section 2.4). Thornbury’s claim is in agreement with Krashen’s from 1981. Krashen (1981) states that the general view of teachers and scholars “has been to restrict vocabulary in order to focus on syntax: we were told that language is not words, but is grammar” (p. 109). According to Thornbury (2002) and Krashen (1981), there seems to have been a tendency to neglect vocabulary. As a result, one of the aims of this thesis is to explore if English as a foreign language (EFL) textbooks in Norway include explicit vocabulary exercises, and what kind of explicit vocabulary exercises the textbook writers have included.

Vocabulary learning includes several different aspects, from implicit and explicit learning to receptive and productive word knowledge. As there are so many

aspects, I had to narrow down the aspects to focus on when it comes to vocabulary learning. I found three areas that are interesting, relevant and essential to vocabulary learning. The three main vocabulary learning focus areas of the present thesis are context, multi-word units and memory.

Context is important in order to know how to use a word and to see how some words might differ in meaning depending on the words they co-occur with. Due to the neglect of vocabulary focus, as mentioned earlier, wordlists have been considered an efficient way of learning new vocabulary. Wordlists can be economical, as students can be exposed to a relatively high number of words in a short amount of time. However, as will be discussed later in this thesis, this may not lead to sufficient word knowledge. Instead, it might result in learners' inability to remember the words they previously studied.

Multi-word units were also chosen as a focus area, as it is an efficient way to learn vocabulary and develop a learners' language (Schmitt, 2010). Scholars have concluded that "a significant proportion of social, professional, and everyday language is formulaic, routine, and fairly predictable." (Celce-Murcia & Ohlshtain, 2000, p. 74). Multi-word units are an interesting topic and a considerable part of vocabulary learning. As a result, I wanted to find out whether textbook writers find it equally relevant as vocabulary learning researchers, like DeCarrico (2001); Nation (2013); Nation & Webb (2011) and Schmitt (2010) do.

Memory was chosen, because it is a fundamental part of learning a new language. However, research shows that learners lose up to 80% of new material during the first 24 hours of initial learning (Thornbury, 2002). Learners need to recycle the new words they learn to be able to remember and use it at later occasions. Recycling of words can be done through repetition and retrieval (Nation, 2013, see section 2.3.3). Since memory is an essential part of learning new vocabulary, and being able to produce words, I thought it would be interesting to see if this is reflected and/or prioritized by the textbook authors.

These three focus areas, context, multi-word units and memory, have been considered throughout the thesis, both in the quantitative and the qualitative analysis. To narrow it down further, I chose to only look at explicit vocabulary exercises and not implicit vocabulary learning (see section 2.2). Nation (2013) discusses how explicit learning, like explanation of words, exercises and dictionary look-ups, is something every teacher should do (p. 59). However, according to Celce-Murcia and

Ohlshtain (2000), one can find a “shared assumption that vocabulary will be learned automatically and indirectly without any explicit formal instruction, merely through exposure to and practice with the target language” (p. 73) in the current naturalistic and communicative approaches employed by many teachers today. As a reaction to this assumption, I wanted to explore how textbook writers have interpreted research on explicit vocabulary exercises, and what, or if, they decided to include explicit vocabulary exercises in the textbooks. Context, multi-word units, memory, and explicit vocabulary learning have been further explained in chapter two, and discussed in light of findings in chapter four. In addition, receptive and productive word knowledge will be taken into consideration when analysing the explicit vocabulary exercises. The present study does not go into details when it comes to what a teacher can do in the classroom or student co-operation, as the main focus of this thesis is to analyse three EFL textbooks used in Norwegian schools.

1.2 Relevance of the Present Study

1.2.1 Centrality of textbooks

Both vocabulary and textbooks are important parts of teaching a foreign language. There has been a significant amount of research on vocabulary in the EFL classroom (e.g. DeCarrico, 2001; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Nation, 2013; Nation & Webb, 2011; Schmitt, 2010 and Thornbury, 2001). Applied linguists propose different ways of teaching vocabulary and the materials one might use. However, the present study focuses on EFL textbooks used in Norwegian classrooms in Year 10 at lower secondary school. Juuhl, Hontvedt and Skjelbred’s (2010) report indicates that the textbook is still the most central learning tool in Norwegian classrooms. The report also indicates that teachers structure their classes on the basis of textbooks (Juuhl, Hontvedt & Skjelbred, 2010). In addition, Summer (2011) implies that textbooks still have an essential role in classrooms today, and explains how the textbook can work as a facilitating tool for both teachers and students. She further elaborates how a textbook is a source for well-structured texts and exercises, and provides teachers and students with a functional framework for discussions and homework. There have never been more options for schools and teachers when it comes to tools and aids in classrooms than there are now, and digital resources are a common device in

classrooms all over the country (Gilje, 2016). Even though digital resources are becoming more common, the textbook is still one of the most used resources in Norway, and it is therefore evident that textbooks will influence how teachers plan their lessons.

Despite the central role of textbooks, there has been limited research on textbooks used in Year 10. Gilje (2016) discusses how research on teaching aids has not been prioritised in Norway for the last 20 years. However, there are several master's theses that study EFL textbooks in Norway, but few that focus on vocabulary, and even fewer that focus on Year 10. In addition, I have not found any reports or research that analyse explicit vocabulary exercises in Norwegian EFL textbooks. There is one master's thesis by Eide (2010) that discusses vocabulary in Year 10 in Norway. However, she performed classroom research, not a textbook analysis. In her thesis she tried out different teaching methods, where one of the methods was reading texts, followed by working with vocabulary found in the texts. The other method was extensive reading. Eide's (2010) master's thesis indicated that working with vocabulary from texts, like vocabulary exercises, had a more efficient outcome than extensive reading only. As her thesis was based on students in Year 10 in Norway, it is interesting to study findings from that age group. Other previous master's theses on vocabulary in the Norwegian school include Skjelde's master's thesis from 2015, Hodne's from 2010 and Borgersen from 2009. Borgersen (2009) compared the vocabulary exercises in textbooks written for the R94¹ curriculum and the Knowledge Promotion Reform (LK06). Skjelde (2015), Hodne (2010) and Borgersen (2009) are all based on textbooks for Vg1 in upper secondary school and not Year 10. In addition, Skjelde (2015) and Hodne's (2010) studies are corpus-based and do not study the explicit exercises included in textbooks. Even though several master's theses focus on vocabulary, there is a lack of focus on Year 10 and the actual exercises included in the EFL textbooks used.

1.2.2 Why vocabulary?

I chose to analyse vocabulary exercises in three EFL textbooks for different reasons. The first reason is that I have personally experienced limited emphasis on vocabulary

¹ R94: Curriculum for Upper Secondary Education, Common general subject for all areas of study. Known as Reform 94, and implemented in 1994 in Norwegian upper secondary classes

when observing and teaching in schools during the scope of my master's programme in foreign language teacher education. The second reason is that vocabulary is essential to be able to communicate in a language. Since I have experienced little emphasis on explicit vocabulary learning in the classroom, I wanted to explore if the same tendencies can be found in EFL textbooks used in Norway, as teachers often base their teaching on the textbooks used (see section 1.2.1).

Despite the lack of explicit vocabulary teaching in the classrooms I have attended, scholars, such as Flogenfeldt and Lund (2016), stress the importance of vocabulary: “We want our learners to be able to express themselves as effectively as possible, getting their messages across to their listeners and readers” (p. 29). They further explain that to accomplish this, students should learn a variety of English words. As mentioned in section 1.1, vocabulary has not always been considered as important in language learning. In the times of the Direct Method and Audiolingualism, grammar had the greater priority, see section 2.4 (Thornbury, 2002). However, after the arrival of the communicative approach in the 1970s, vocabulary has been on the rise and considered an important and relevant factor in language learning (Thornbury, 2002). Even though vocabulary research and studies indicate that vocabulary is essential when learning a language, it is not always reflected in classrooms and textbooks. For instance, Pihlstrøm (2013) mentions that “collocations do not seem to be the focal point in Norwegian textbooks” (p. 18). Since vocabulary has not always been central in language learning, one of the aims in this thesis is to see if textbooks are up to date when it comes to vocabulary research, and how textbook writers might be influenced by the different teaching methods that have been popular in the last century.

Since vocabulary learning is such a broad topic and can include several different aspects, it is natural that it might overlap with other aspects of language learning. For instance, when analysing textbooks with emphasis on vocabulary, grammar cannot be excluded from the analysis. Vocabulary includes both content words and function words, where content words are units that “belong to the large, open word classes (i.e., word classes that readily accept new words and discard old ones that are no longer useful)” (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 76). On the other hand, function words are vocabulary that fits into closed word classes, like pronouns and prepositions (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). Function words are often considered a part of grammar, while content words as a part of vocabulary. In the

present thesis, this interpretation has been used. However, it is still relevant to take into consideration that rather than being opposites, there is a thin line between vocabulary and grammar (Thornbury, 2002). They are not separate, but often overlapping. Some of the areas included in the present thesis might have grammatical aspects, but are nonetheless relevant when it comes to vocabulary learning. Another overlapping factor in vocabulary learning is pragmatic competence. An explicit vocabulary exercise is considered any exercise that focus directly on learning vocabulary, see section 2.2.2. Therefore, it might cover exercises where the some of the focus is to teach students to use the language efficiently and in an appropriate context. As mentioned above, one aspect, like vocabulary focus, does not eliminate other language learning aspects.

Another relevant aspect to take into consideration is how vocabulary is only a part of a language course. When looking at the national curriculum guidelines for the subject of English, there are several different aspects a teacher has to go through with the students (see section 2.2, 2.5.2 and 7.2). Teachers are expected to go through topics like cultural features, learning strategies and grammar, in addition to vocabulary, during a school year. Nonetheless, a broad vocabulary is essential to become a sufficient English speaker (Flogenfeldt and Lund, 2016; Pihlstrøm, 2013).

1.3 Research Questions

In this thesis, I will study how EFL textbooks for Year 10 promote vocabulary acquisition. This will be done through two research questions.

- A. Are there explicit vocabulary exercises included in the three EFL textbooks, and if so, what do the exercises focus on when it comes to vocabulary acquisition?
- B. How are the explicit vocabulary exercises designed in light of vocabulary acquisition?

To be able to answer these questions, I have analysed three EFL textbooks for Year 10 in lower secondary schools in Norway. The aim is to analyse what the exercises focus on and want to teach the learner. Due to the numerous aspects within

vocabulary, I have focused on exercises that primarily focus on vocabulary in terms of context, multi-word units and memory. These three topics were chosen because of their centrality when it comes to learning a new vocabulary.

Research question A will be answered in the quantitative analysis by a set of criteria. The aim is to get an overview of what kind of explicit vocabulary exercises are included in the three textbooks. To get an appropriate overview of the different explicit vocabulary exercises, 20 criteria have been chosen. The criteria are based on different factors in vocabulary learning (see section 3.2.1). Research question A indicates how many explicit vocabulary exercises the textbook authors have included in the three textbooks, and as a result, research question B will analyse how the exercises are designed. To answer research question B, a qualitative analysis have been performed through the technique feature analysis (TFA) by Nation and Webb (2011). Due to time restriction, it is not possible to analyse all explicit vocabulary exercises included in the three EFL textbooks. As a result, exercises that focus on multi-word units were chosen to narrow down the selection of exercises. By performing a qualitative analysis on selected explicit vocabulary exercises, it will give a more in-depth insight as to how the exercises are designed and what they focus on.

1.4 Terminology

In the present thesis, I have chosen to use the term EFL textbook to describe the three textbooks. Ellis (2015) defines EFL as “learning that typically takes place in a classroom through instruction where there are no or only limited opportunities to use the second language in daily life” (p. 6). Traditionally, English learning in Norway would fall under that description. However, in Norway, students are now constantly being exposed to English through “international exposure and transnational travel” (Rindal & Piercy, 2013, p. 212). Since English is not considered an official language in Norway, the learners are not thought of as users of English as a second language (ESL) (Rindal & Piercy, 2013). As a result, it seems that Norway is in a stage between EFL and ESL. In the present thesis, I have chosen to use the traditional definition of EFL when it comes to the textbooks analysed.

Even though I have chosen the EFL definition, second language acquisition, L2, will be used throughout the thesis. Ellis (2015) describes L2 acquisition as “an

all-inclusive term for learning *any* language after the first” (p. 6). To describe a student’s native language, L1 will be used.

1.5 Outline of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into seven chapters, including references and appendices. First, the theory relevant to vocabulary, textbooks and teaching methods will be presented in chapter 2. Vocabulary researchers, like Nation and Schmitt are central in the discussion of vocabulary background. In chapter three, the material and methods used will be presented, including the criteria for the quantitative analysis and the TFA by Nation and Webb (2011), which is the scaffold of the qualitative analysis. Chapter four will then discuss the findings from the two analyses. First the findings from quantitative analysis will be presented and discussed, then the qualitative, followed by a discussion where findings from both analyses are central. In chapter five, the conclusion will be presented, followed by teaching implications and further research.

2. Theoretical Background

To be able to discuss vocabulary exercises in EFL textbooks, one needs to study research findings relevant to the topic. The aim of this chapter is to give an introduction to the theoretical background of vocabulary and connect vocabulary research to EFL textbooks. In the first two parts of the present chapter, word and vocabulary will be defined in light of vocabulary learning. The third section will discuss vocabulary acquisition, with focus on context, multi-word units and memory. As mentioned in section 1.3, the focus areas of the present thesis have been narrowed down to these three due to their central position in explicit vocabulary learning. In the fourth and fifth section of this chapter, teaching methods and the English Subject Curriculum will be discussed. To be able to understand why the textbook authors have included the exercises in their books, it is relevant to look at traditions and current trends in vocabulary learning, as well as the guidelines the authors have to follow to make the textbooks relevant for students and teachers in Norway.

2.1 Words and Vocabulary

2.1.1 Word and vocabulary knowledge

Baker (2011) defines a word as “any sequence of letters with an orthographic space on either side” (p. 9). A language is formed by words, and new words are constantly being added to a language. We are always acquiring new words and new meanings to our old words (Thornbury, 2002). A language’s vocabulary is always changing, and according to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), “vocabulary changes faster than syntax or phonology” (p. 81). When new discoveries or inventions are made, a new word is created, borrowed or given additional meaning (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) further explain how in English, there are three productive word formation processes that contribute to creating new words: compounding, affixation and conversion. Compounding occurs when two nouns come together and form one, for instance *three-legged* and *blackbird*. When it comes to affixation, one can add prefixes or suffixes to create new derivative words, for example *uncool* and *sisterhood* (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 81). Conversion is when a word changes word class, typically a noun or adjective into a verb (Celce-Murcia &

Olshtain, 2000). When learning a new language, it is important to be aware of the word formation processes as they can be used as a strategy for understanding a new vocabulary and also to help achieving a more native-like production (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000).

If words have affixation, they are part of the same word family as the words that have identical roots. When adding affixes like re-, un- (prefixes) or -ed, -er, -ful (suffixes), the root and the new inflected forms are part of the same word family (Thornbury, 2002). When the affix is grammatical, the new word is an inflection, while if the affix added changes the word class; the change is derivative (Schmitt, 2000). Word families are a central part of learning a language. Even if a learner knows one part of a word family does not necessary mean that he or she knows the remaining ones (Nation, 2013). Flogenfeldt and Lund (2016) concludes that when students are aware of the systematic way word families are related to each other, it makes the building of vocabulary an easier task.

A word can have different functions and purposes. It can have a variety of forms, overlapping meanings and it can have same or similar meanings but used in different situations or for different effect. In addition, language learners can have receptive and/or productive knowledge of a word. Among vocabulary research there are different ways of defining and connect receptive and productive vocabulary. In the present thesis, Nation's (2013) definition has been chosen. He defines receptive vocabulary as "perceiving the form of a word while listening or reading and retrieving its meaning" (p. 47). Further, Nation (2013) states that productive vocabulary is "wanting to express a meaning through speaking or writing and retrieving and producing the appropriate spoken or written word form" (p. 47).

In general, a person's vocabulary usually consists of more receptive words than productive ones. However, to be able to speak and write in the target language, a productive vocabulary is needed. Nation (2013) explains that to learn productive or receptive vocabulary, one needs to have exercises that focus on either one: productive learning for productive use or vice versa. According to vocabulary research, receptive vocabulary seems to be easier to learn than a productive one, though no one really knows why (Nation, 2013). One reason mentioned by Nation (2013) is that "receptive use generally gets more practice than productive use" (p. 51), which might influence why learners usually have a bigger receptive vocabulary than a productive one. When it comes to exercises, a productive exercise is an exercise where "learners are required

to incorporate the newly studied words into some kind of speaking or writing activity” (Thornbury, 2002, p. 100). Examples of productive exercises are gap-fills, complete a sentence, or to create a new sentence. One of the aims of this study is to see what kinds of vocabulary exercises are included in the three books, and to see if there is an equal amount of receptive and productive exercises, or if one type is more frequent.

To know a word requires knowledge about a word’s form, meaning and use (Nation, 2013). In table 2.1 below, Nation has explained all the factors involved in knowing a word in more detail. The table indicates that to know a word, one needs both receptive and productive knowledge. In addition, one should know when and where to use the target word and its collocations (see section 2.3.2.1). Nation (2013) illustrates that it might not be enough to know the L1 equivalent to a word to be able to understand and use it. He further stresses the importance of linking form and meaning. To have sufficient word knowledge, learners need to be able to connect the form with its meaning. When students have control over both, they can, for instance, more easily retrieve the meaning when hearing the form, or vice versa (Nation, 2013). As illustrated in the table below, there are several aspects one needs to take into consideration when learning a word.

Table 2.1

What is involved in knowing a word? From Nation (2013), p. 49

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

* R: receptive. P: productive

According to Nation (2013), a “vocabulary learning activity is used to reach a particular goal” (p. 95). This is the case for every language activity, but in the present thesis, vocabulary is the main focus. When looking at table 2.1, it is evident that there are many aspects to knowing a word. The table is a good inspiration for learning goals in a vocabulary exercise. However, one exercise cannot include all the aspects, and consequently, different exercises have different learning goals. One exercise can include several learning goals, even though it “is simplest to consider only one learning goal at a time” (Nation, 2013, p. 96).

There has been a great deal of research on how many words a learner needs to know to be able to speak a foreign language sufficiently. An educated person with English as their native language is presumed to know just under 20 000 word families, which includes all derived forms of a word, and excludes proper nouns (Nation, 2013). However, on an everyday level, one is said to be able to communicate sufficiently in a foreign language with only 2000 word families (Bjørke, 2014). 2000 words is said to cover around 80% of the words we regularly see or hear (DeCarrico, 2001). These 2000 words are called high-frequency words, as they are the most used words in the English language. According to Nation (2013), to get 95 % text coverage, learners need to know between 6000 and 9000 word families. The number of words illustrates how important vocabulary learning is. Without an extensive vocabulary, learners will struggle to understand texts.

2.2. Explicit Vocabulary Learning

As pointed out in section 1.1, explicit learning is defined as “the learner’s conscious and deliberate attempt to master some material or solve a problem” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 136). Implicit learning on the other hand, is the “ability to acquire unconscious knowledge without intending to” (Rebuschat, 2015, p. 298). Ellis (2009) further differentiates implicit and explicit learning. He claims that in implicit learning “learners remain unaware of the learning that has taken place, although it is evident in the behavioural responses they make. Thus, learners cannot verbalize what they have learned” (p. 3). In regards to explicit learning, “learners are aware that they have learned something and can verbalize what they have learned” (Ellis, 2009, p. 3).

When it comes to implicit vocabulary learning, learning is developed, in most parts, through reading. Reading is as an efficient way to expose learners to words. According to Simensen (2007), there is a division between scholars, where some scholars believe that there should be no formal teaching of vocabulary, and others believe that there should. Professionals who believe in incidental learning, deem plenty exposure of “natural and interesting” L2 material sufficient (Simensen, 2007, p. 221). However, Schmitt (2010) discusses how research has shown that explicit learning is an important factor in vocabulary learning. He mentions that many language learners fail to develop satisfying vocabulary learning goals, and this indicates that one can no longer assume that vocabulary will be picked up from implicit and superficial vocabulary training. Learners need a proactive approach, with both explicit teaching and exposure to great amounts of vocabulary input (Schmitt, 2010).

To learn a new language and its vocabulary, one can proceed in different ways, as there are different areas of focus and methods. Nation (2013) divides a language course into four major strands: meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning and fluency development. A well-balanced course should use equal amount of time on each strand. The first strand, meaning-focused input, focuses on listening and reading activities where the attention is on information one can get from different types of texts (Nation, 2013). In the second strand, meaning-focused output, the learners should be able to develop their vocabulary through speaking and writing. The third strand, and most relevant for the present study, is language-focused learning. Here the focus is on direct vocabulary learning. According to Nation (2013), there is growing evidence that language learners benefit from being exposed to focused and deliberate teaching of vocabulary. In the fourth strand, the fluency development strand, learners practice using the items they have already been taught. It is important that students get to repeat the new language to be able to develop fluency and understanding (Nation, 2013). Since the four strands should be divided equally in time, each strand should take up 25 per cent of the vocabulary time in the course. However, in Year 10 in Norwegian schools, the students have to go through more than vocabulary during the year. If one studies the competence aims, one can see that students are required to read texts, learn grammar and develop intercultural competence, to mention a few. Nonetheless, Nation’s (2013)

four strands give an indication of how much teachers and course materials should focus on explicit vocabulary training.

2.2.1. What is an explicit vocabulary exercise?

In the present thesis, the goal is to analyse explicit vocabulary exercises. To be able to achieve this aim, it is imperative to define what an explicit vocabulary exercise is.

According to Richards (n.d), an exercise “is a teaching procedure that involves controlled, guided or open ended practice of some aspect of language. A drill, a cloze activity, a reading comprehension passage can all be regarded as exercises”

(Difference Between Task, Exercise, Activity, para. 2). As mentioned in section 2.2, explicit learning is when one consciously works with learning language material. As a result of these two definitions, in the present thesis an explicit vocabulary exercise is one where the primary goal is to broaden the student’s vocabulary and/or vocabulary knowledge through a specific and/or guided practice. In the analyses performed, both oral and written exercises are included, as both can contribute to expanding a learner’s vocabulary.

2.3. Vocabulary Acquisition

There are different aspects of learning vocabulary, and research have demonstrated that it is problematic to give precise guidelines on how to teach vocabulary (Prince, 1996). Vocabulary is an essential part of language learning and several factors play an important role in vocabulary teaching. In the present study, the focus will be on mapping EFL textbooks in regard to vocabulary teaching. Since learning vocabulary has several qualities, there would be a challenge to include all aspects in the present study. As a result of this, the two analyses will take into account selected parts of vocabulary learning. These were chosen due to the centrality they have in vocabulary learning and relevance when analysing EFL textbooks (see section 1.1).

2.3.1 Context

In vocabulary learning, there seems to be two popular approaches among teachers: to learn new words in context, or to use wordlists. One approach does not necessarily

exclude the other, however there is a discussion among applied linguists if one way is more efficient than the other (Prince, 1996). Because of this divide, both context and wordlists are aspects the analysis will take into account, and the main emphasis will be on context. When it comes to context, Halliday (1999) defines it as “the accompanying text, the wording that came before and after whatever was under attention” (p. 3). He further explains that context can be cultural and situational, so when language can be “considered as a *system* – its lexical items and grammatical categories – is to be related to its context of *culture*; while *instances* of language in use – specific texts and their component parts – are to be related to their context of *situation*” (Halliday, 1999, p. 4). Cultural and situational context is overlapping. However, in the present thesis the main focus will be on context of situation. When referring to context in the EFL textbook analysis, it is to see if the exercises require the students to use the new vocabulary in a meaningful situation, or with a definition/one-to-one translation, as one can find in dictionaries.

Among the research I have read, it seems that context is preferred among teachers and applied linguists. Nation (2013) explains how “learning words from context is a cumulative process where meaning and knowledge of form are gradually enriched and strengthened” (p. 355). *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (CEFR) (2001) (see section 2.5.1) also stresses the importance of context:

It has long been recognised that language in use varies greatly according to the requirements of the context in which it is used. In this respect, language is not a neutral instrument of thought like, say, mathematics. The need and the desire to communicate arise in a particular situation and the form as well as the content of the communication is a response to that situation. (CEFR, 2001, pp. 44-45)

The competence aims in LK06 (see section 2.5.2) also include focus on context, and how students should learn to express themselves in different situations and topics. To be able to use vocabulary in a meaningful context, students need to see and use words outside of dictionaries and glossaries.

In spite of the arguments above, students appear to prefer learning words from lists (Thornbury, 2002). It is considered efficient, as students can go through a large

number of words during a short period of time. Students also appear to favour bilingual dictionaries over monolingual ones, and they look up words more when using an L1 wordlist (Nation, 2013). But words have many meanings, and a one-to-one translation may therefore oversimplify the languages involved. Learning a new language and vocabulary is to learn a new conceptual system together with the new verbal labels. Consequently, paired wordlists might seem misrepresentative, as languages are built on different conceptual systems and rarely coincide (Beheydt, 1987). Words might also have more than one meaning, and polysemy¹, or multiple meanings, is a common feature of a language (Beheydt, 1987). Additionally, words generally have synonyms and antonyms. Synonyms can be very similar, but have different collocational partners (Flogenfeldt & Lund, 2016, see section 2.3.2.1). Since a word is versatile, it might have different meanings depending on the surrounding words it interacts with. According to Beheydt (1987) it is therefore impossible to determine the meaning of an isolated word.

On the other hand, research has shown that in the first months of learning a foreign language, L2 words are more successfully stored in memory when they are associated to their L1 equivalents (Prince, 1996). This might be because the initial words are more concrete and easier to link to their L1. Prince (1996) further discusses how an efficient vocabulary learning strategy could be to pay attention to the form, both orthographic and phonological, a strategy that involves isolating the word from the context. This might work as a way to learn a new word, while context can provide the means to identify the meaning. Weaker learners seem to be the ones who are more comfortable with the limited operations involved in an L1 translation, while advanced learners are more efficient when it comes to learning words in context (Prince, 1996).

When it comes to textbooks and context, many EFL textbooks today focus on having authentic texts and glossaries that coincide. In the present study, the main aim is to analyse explicit vocabulary exercises, however, since glossaries and wordlists are a relevant part of learning new vocabulary, this aspect will be looked upon as well. The aim will be to see if the three textbooks have included glossaries or wordlist and if they are bilingual or monolingual.

¹ In the present thesis, polysemy includes homonymy

2.3.2 Multi-word units

Among vocabulary researchers, there are different definitions and terminology when it comes to multi-word units. In the present thesis, Nation and Webb's (2011) definition is used: multi-word units are different types of continuous and discontinuous sequences of words and can be used as a blanket term for different types. Vocabulary teaching through the years has had a tendency to focus on single words, and not multi-word units. According to Schmitt (2010) the focus on individual words is a result of different reasons. Some of the reasons are that: "individual words are convenient units to teach and incorporate into materials. The main vocabulary reference source, dictionaries, are set up around individual headwords. Word processors give counts of individual words in documents" (Schmitt, 2010, p. 9). In spite of this, Schmitt states that multi-word units, or formulaic language, are being re-discovered and that it needs to be implemented in vocabulary teaching. Schmitt (2010) further discusses why formulaic language is so important and relevant in vocabulary teaching. He states that it has several communicative purposes: functional use, social interaction, discourse organization and gives a precise information transfer. In addition, Schmitt (2010) argues that there is now evidence that formulaic language, like collocations, are "processed (...) more quickly than non-formulaic language" (p. 12). Flogenfeldt and Lund (2016) explain when learners store multi-word units, the expressions are stored "with the appropriate stress pattern" (p. 69). That way the students' oral language will be more fluent and easier to understand. If looking at these factors, it is evident that multi-word units are an important and efficient way to teach new vocabulary, and might be as important as teaching individual words.

In the English language, there are different types of multi-word units, and in the present study the focus will be on collocations, phrasal verbs, idioms and lexical phrases. These multi-word units were chosen due to their importance in developing learners' communicative competence and learning a new language in general. In addition to being important to communicate, multi-word units seem to be a challenge for learners. Multi-word units can combine words differently, some are fixed (e.g., *over the moon*), while others are more semi-fixed and allow some variation (e.g., *nice to see you*). Due to the importance of multi-word units, they will have a central role in the present study.

2.3.2.1 Collocations

Collocations are words that tend to co-occur with other words, as “they form semantic and structural bonds that becomes routines or chunks that native speakers can access for comprehension or production” (Celce-Murcia & Ohlstein, 2000, p. 83). Baker (2011) defines collocations as “the tendency of certain words to co-occur regularly in a given language” (p. 52). Examples of lexical collocations are how native speakers would use the words ‘fast food’ and not ‘quick food’, or ‘tall building’ instead of ‘high building’. Collocations are a big part of the English language, and Drew and Sørheim (2016) refer to collocations as “one of the most important concepts in vocabulary” (p. 170). According to DeCarrico (2001), vocabulary knowledge is more than knowing the meaning of a given word in isolation, one also needs to know the words that it tends to co-occur with. She stresses the importance of collocations and how it will be apparent in a learner’s speech or writing if collocational associations are not learned as a part of L2 vocabulary knowledge. Nation (2013) confirms DeCarrico’s description by expressing how “knowing what words can occur with other words helps language use and contributes to the fluency with which language can be used” (p. 138). DeCarrico (2001) further discusses how one can often see that collocational errors found in learner English can be traced to L1 influence. This is a result from “hypothesis of transferability” (p.293), as learners think they can directly translate from their native language to the L2. DeCarrico’s research demonstrates that if one does not learn how collocations work, this might be evident in an L2 learner’s English and its fluency. According to her, to be able to learn English at a sufficient level, collocations are a necessity.

When it comes to how to learn collocations, researchers have discussed different options. Collocations can for example be learned through extensive reading (Nation & Yamamoto, 2012). However, this thesis will focus on explicit vocabulary exercises and will therefore not include reading in its analysis. As a result, exercises that give attention to collocations will be focused on, and not extensive reading. Thornbury (2002) suggests different ways in which exercises promote collocations. He advocates taking a lexical approach that is based on frequent exposure, consciousness-raising and memorising (see section 2.4.4.1). Some of the exercises he suggests are that learners sort out words on cards into collocational pairs and use these cards to play pelmanism. Another way is to do exercises like matching activities and odd one out. Overall, learning collocations involves several aspects and students

could benefit greatly if teachers and/or textbooks made them aware of their existence. Learners ought to be introduced to collocations in context and reinforce and recycle the phrases as often as possible.

2.3.2.2 Phrasal verbs

Phrasal verbs are frequently used and Garnier and Schmitt (2015) estimate that learners encounter one phrasal verb in every 150 words of English. Larsen-Freeman (2001) defines phrasal verbs as “two-part verbs comprising a verb and a particle (e.g., *to look up*)” (p. 254). They can sometimes be constructed with three parts since a preposition can follow the particle. Phrasal verbs can be a challenge for learners, as the verbs can sometimes be understood from their components (i.e., *give away*), and sometimes their meaning is impossible to interpret (i.e., *give up*) (Schmitt, 2000). In addition to being a challenge when it comes to transparency, almost all phrasal verbs (around 75%) have more than one meaning (Garnier & Schmitt, 2015). As so many phrasal words are polysemous, it makes learning phrasal verbs an even bigger challenge. Since learners often find phrasal verbs difficult, they often use single-word equivalents, although a native speaker would have used a phrasal verb (Schmitt, 2000). By not using phrasal verbs, learners will not develop a native-like fluency and could result in them sounding unnatural (Garnier & Schmitt, 2015). Phrasal verbs can be understood to be on the borderline between words and grammar (Thornbury, 2002). They are difficult for students to learn due to their lexical meaning and their grammatical form. In the present study, only the lexical meaning will be included in the analysis.

2.3.2.3 Idioms

Idioms are common in the English language, especially in journalism and informal conversations (Schmitt, 2000). They can be distinguished from other multi-word units due to their fixedness. In addition, as discussed by DeCarrico (2001), they have a “unitary meaning that cannot be derived from the meanings of the component parts”, e.g. *blow one’s mind* has the same meaning as *astonish* (p. 294). Due to the idiomatic features, idioms are a challenge for language learners, as one cannot usually guess the meaning of the phrase. They are difficult to produce, as there is little room for

variation. Nonetheless, idioms are relevant for learners to become more native-like in English (Schmitt, 2000).

Idioms tend to occur together, as certain text types include several of them. DeCarrico (2001) suggests authentic texts, such as newspaper cartoons and dialogues from modern drama, to teach idioms. However, as this thesis will focus only on explicit vocabulary exercises, it will not be taken into account what kind of texts that are included in the EFL textbooks. But DeCarrico (2001) also suggests exercises that match idioms and their meanings as a useful way to teach idioms. Nation (2013) suggests using gap-fills where the idioms are provided, so the learners have to make a decision on which one to use in each sentence.

2.3.2.4 Lexical phrases

Lexical phrases can be described as a synonym for multi-word units. However, in the present study, lexical phrases are multi-word units that are associated with a specific discourse function. They have a pragmatic function, and are ‘chunks’ of language of variable length (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). Lexical phrases can be formed from other multi-word units (e.g. collocations, phrasal verbs, etc.) or by other words that are frequently used together (Schmitt, 2000). According to DeCarrico (2001), lexical phrases can express time, greetings, relationships among ideas, or condition. She divides lexical phrases into three categories based on function:

- Social interaction
 - o Greetings/closings:
 - *hi; how are you?; What’s up?/ gotta run now; see you later*
 - o Politeness/rudeness:
 - *thanks so/very much; if you don’t mind*
 - o Requesting:
 - modal+ pronoun + verb phrase (i.e., *would/could you [mind] X?*)
 - o Complying:
 - *of course, sure thing*
- Necessary topics
 - o Language:
 - *do you speak X?; how do you say/spell X? I speak X (a little)*
 - o Time:
 - *when is X?; it’s X o’clock*
 - o Location:
 - *where is X?; how far is X?*
 - o Shopping:

- *how much is X?: I want to buy/see X*
- Discourse devices
 - Logical connectors:
 - *as a result (of X); nevertheless; because (of) X; in spite of X*
 - Temporal connectors:
 - *the day/week/month/year/before/after X; and then*
 - Qualifiers:
 - *it depends on X; the catch here is X; it's only in X that Y*
 - Relators:
 - *on the other hand; but look at X; in addition; not only in X but Y*
 - Exemplifiers:
 - *in other words; for example; to give you an example*
(DeCarrico, 2001, p. 296)

Lexical phrases are a useful tool for teaching conversations and other different types of discourse. They can be learned and stored as whole chunks, which might make it easier for language learners to produce expressions they might otherwise struggle with. They do not have to construct sentences and expressions from scratch, but can use phrases that are already made. According to Schmitt (2000), it is assumed that lexical phrases cover an extensive part of a person's vocabulary. He further discusses how lexical phrases contribute to a more "clear, relevant and concise language use" (Schmitt, 2000, p. 101). As a result of this, knowledge of lexical phrases is an important factor for vocabulary learning and for developing a more fluent speech production.

2.3.3. How are words remembered?

An important factor when learning new vocabulary is to remember the new words one learns. Thornbury (2002) makes the estimation that during the 24 hours of initial learning, up to 80% of material is lost. He further states that this might be because of interference from subsequent learning and insufficient recycling of new information. Learners of a new foreign language need a deep level of processing to be able to remember what they have been taught (DeCarrico, 2001). Nation (2013) explains how there are three "cognitive processes that may lead to a word being remembered" (p. 102). The three factors are noticing, retrieval and creative use. Noticing involves that the learners must notice the new word, see its usefulness as a language item, looking up a word in a dictionary, or have a word explained to them. Repetition is a central

tool in vocabulary learning. However, repeating a word might not be sufficient enough, and students need the opportunity to retrieve the words that they have to learn (Nation, 2013). The retrieval should occur in different contexts than students' previous encounter with the word. Every retrieval will help students in linking form and meaning. Finally, creative use involves meeting the words in new contexts (Nation, 2013).

When one learns new vocabulary, one may involve either short-term or long-term memory. According to DeCarrico (2001) one might transfer information from short-term to long-term memory through a deep level of processing. This can be done through working with and repeating a word. To help moving vocabulary from short-term to long-term memory one can integrate the new words into pre-existing knowledge. To build on existing knowledge corresponds with the cognitive perception of learning. According to Ertmer and Newby (2013), cognitive theories “emphasize making knowledge meaningful and helping learners organize and relate new information to existing knowledge in memory” (p. 53). By “attaching” new vocabulary to already pre-existing information, it is easier to relate and remember new words (Schmitt, 2000). The pre-existing knowledge can work as a “hook” and provides an efficient way for learners to remember new vocabulary (Schmitt, 2000). Simensen (2007) stresses the importance of giving the students the opportunity to discover the meaning of a new word on their own. She further explains how “the assumption is that there is a close relationship between the mental energy put into understanding a word, sometimes called *cognitive depth of processing*, and how likely it is that it will be remembered” (Simensen, 2007, p. 221). To be able to transfer new words from short-term to long-term memory one has to use the words and put them to work. Repetition is an important part of incorporating new vocabulary (Nation, 2014). Nation (2014) suggests that 12 repetitions should ensure recognition after three months. The 12 repetitions include dictionary look-ups, unassisted retrievals and opportunities for using the vocabulary in different contexts (Nation, 2014). One exercise is not expected to involve 12 repetitions, but it can contribute to repeating the target word, and/or encourage learners to repeat new vocabulary. In addition to dictionary look-ups, one can use decision-making tasks to learn and repeat a word (Thornbury, 2002).

Decision-making exercises can be divided into five sub-groups: identifying, selecting, matching, sorting and ranking, see section 3.2.1 (Thornbury, 2002). These

tasks are mostly receptive, as they engage the learners in making judgements about words. However, they can easily be turned into productive exercises by including completion or creation exercises. Schmitt's survey from 1998 showed that receptive vocabulary was more quickly forgotten than productive vocabulary (Schmitt, 2000). To make learners produce and remember new words, one can use exercises like gap-fills and creation of sentences and texts. When it comes to gap-fills, one can have open or closed gap-fills. In a closed gap-fill, the learner is provided with a set of words, usually in the beginning of the exercise. The open gap-fill exercises are when the learner completes the exercise by drawing on their mental lexicon (Thornbury, 2002). The learners then have to produce the words, and by producing and using new words, the words are more likely to move to long-term memory.

2.3.4 Corpus

An efficient tool in language learning, both when it comes to seeing words in context, learning multi-word units and to remember the words, is corpus. Different corpora are implemented in language research and have been so for a long time now. Corpus studies have shown that vocabulary learning, and especially multi-word units are essential and relevant when learning a new language (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). Corpus can be used both directly and indirectly in vocabulary teaching. Indirectly, textbooks and dictionaries can be based on a specific corpus, or exercises can be developed based on authentic language from corpus. Direct use of corpus can include exercises where students are to use corpus to find which words that co-occur the most with a given target word or to find examples of polysemous words and their different meanings (Hasselgård, 2014). Corpus can be used as a tool, similar to a dictionary, as it can illustrate how a word can be used in authentic situations (Hasselgård, 2014). It can also be used to see which English words and collocations are most frequently used and therefore help teachers or textbook writers as to what words students should focus on. When students know that the vocabulary they are learning are used outside the classroom, it might help them get more motivated.

2.4 Teaching Methods

Since the 20th century, different methods have been implemented in schools with different degrees of success (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). A teaching method can be defined as the “notion of a systematic set of teaching practices based on a particular theory of language and language learning” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p.1). Different methods have focused on different approaches on how to best teach vocabulary. Richards and Rodgers (2014) define an approach as “theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching” (p. 22).

In this section of the thesis, different methods and approaches will be introduced with vocabulary in mind. The present study will not focus on all the different methods through time, as this would not be relevant for the analysis. The methods mentioned are chosen for their relevance in vocabulary learning and textbooks used in Norway today. As a result of this, the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Method and Communicative Language Teaching will be the main methods/approaches mentioned.

2.4.1 Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) was the most widespread foreign language teaching method in Europe from the 1840s to the 1940s (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The GTM’s general focus was to make the learner able to read a language’s literature. As a result of this, there was limited focus on communication and listening. In addition, the students’ native language was usually the medium of instruction. New vocabulary was chosen from the reading texts used and the words were learned through a one-to-one translation in bilingual word lists, with focus on dictionary study and memorization (Richard & Rodgers, 2014). A typical exercise in the GTM was to translate sentences from the target language to the students’ native language (Celce-Murcia, 2001). According to Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011), vocabulary and grammar were emphasised in GMT, as reading and writing were in focus. Simensen (2007) explains how the method is usually called an explicit approach, as grammar and other aspects were explained. Even though GMT has been widely used, and is still used today, it has few advocates in the field of applied linguistics. This is in large

part because there is no theory that truly supports the method. Richards and Rodgers (2014) explain that it might still be used in some classrooms today due to “(a) the limited command of spoken English of language teachers, (b) the fact that this was the method their teachers used, (c) it gives teachers a sense of control and authority in the classroom, and (d) it works well in large classes” (p. 7). Nation and Yamamoto (2012), on the other hand, discuss how the elements grammar and translation can be relatively useful when it comes to the language focused learning strand (see section 2.2.). It can be useful, compared to other learning approaches, as there is a deliberate focus on certain items to be studied (Nation & Yamamoto, 2012). According to Drew and Sørheim (2016), the M 74¹ curriculum in Norway was based on the Audiolingual Method (see section 2.4.3.), but methods like learning new vocabulary through wordlists and vocabulary tests after reading a text, were widely used. The GTM was eventually replaced by new theories and methods due to an increased demand for oral competence in foreign languages. This was the result of the more global world that developed in the 19th century (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Even though GTM is not the most widespread teaching method today, one is likely to come across textbooks that are inspired by the GTM. Textbook publishers often reproduce what teachers do, and as one can still see traces of the method today in classrooms, the traces are likely to occur in textbooks as well.

2.4.2 The Direct Method

The Direct Method was inspired by attempts to make second language teaching similar to first language teaching, as it was considered a more ‘natural’ way of learning a language (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). It was also a reaction to the GTM, as there was a need for students to be able to communicate in the target language (Celce-Murcia, 2001). To achieve successful language learning in the Direct Method, the focus is on using the target language through pictures, demonstration and action. When it comes to vocabulary, Richards and Rodgers (2014) mention two characteristics of the method: the vocabulary that is taught is constricted for everyday use, and concrete vocabulary is taught through “demonstration, objects and pictures”, while abstract vocabulary is taught by “association of ideas” (p. 12). In addition, all classroom instruction is performed in the target language, never in the native language

¹ M 74 was the national curriculum guidelines in Norway and was introduced in 1974.

of the students. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) explain how the teacher demonstrates new vocabulary and ask the students questions. The students then have to answer in full sentences. That way the students learn vocabulary in context and often in a productive manner, rather than word lists. The Direct Method was used in Norway and is specifically mentioned in N39¹:

In this plan it is assumed that the rules which apply, or will apply, to the introductory course in English according to the *direct method* in higher education are substantially followed, with the necessary modifications (Norwegian Ministry of Church and Education, 1939, p. 227, translation by Haugen, 2013)

N39 put emphasis on using the target language, with translations if it was really necessary. Dictations were also a part of N39, as students had it as part of their exam at the end of the year (Norwegian Ministry of Church and Education, 1939).

By the 1920s, the use of the method had declined in Europe, especially in the non-commercial schools (Richard and Rodgers, 2014). The method was relatively successful in private language schools, where students have high motivation. Nevertheless, the Direct Method struggled in public schools, where it was considered impractical. Teachers had to be native, or native-like, in the target language and the teacher replaced the textbook to a large extent. In addition, teachers often had to spend a lot of effort to avoid using the learner's L1, when it in some occasions would have been more efficient to explain the new vocabulary in the students' native language (Richard and Rodgers, 2014). Even though the Direct Method did not last long as an official teaching method, it can be considered the "first language teaching method to have caught the attention of teachers and language teaching specialists" (Richard and Rodgers, 2014, p. 14). The Direct Method started an era of discussion of how to best teach a new language and what "method" was considered the most efficient one.

¹ N39 was the national curriculum in Norway and was introduced in 1939, better known as The National curriculum of 1939 (*Normalplan av 1939*).

2.4.3. The Audiolingual Method

The Audiolingual Method emerged in the US at the end of 1950s due to the growing demand of foreign language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). It is partly based on the idea that “the primary medium of language is oral: Speech is language” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 63), which implies that speech and oral activity is a priority in the method. In addition, the Audiolingual Method is focused around behaviourism. Behaviourism believes that the human being is an organism: “capable of a wide repertoire of behaviours” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 63). To be able to learn through behaviourism, three elements are crucial: “a *stimulus*, which serves to elicit behaviour; a *response* triggered by a stimulus; and *reinforcement*, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate (or inappropriate) and encourage the repetition (or suppression) of the response in the future” (Richard & Rodgers, 2014, p. 63-64). The main focus of the method is a verbal instruction, where the primary goal for the students is to achieve oral proficiency (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). Since the main goal of the method is oral ability, the process of teaching is focused around oral activities. As a result, vocabulary does not have a prominent role in a language course. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), explain the lack of vocabulary focus by how “the audiolingual approach (...) deliberately suppressed the teaching of vocabulary in favor of teaching grammar and pronunciation” (p. 73). Vocabulary is usually only learned in context, and it is also withheld until “all common structures have been learned” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 71). The vocabulary traits of the method indicate that it is an implicit teaching method, with little or no explicit vocabulary learning.

When it comes to the Audiolingual Method, the textbook is usually not the main device when teaching. Textbooks will primarily be used to provide students with text of dialogues learners need to drill in the target language, in addition to exercises. According to Richards and Rodgers (2014), technology played a big part in the Audiolingual Method, and tape recorders provided the students with audio recordings by native speakers of the target language. As mentioned in section 2.4.1, the M74 curriculum in Norway was heavily influenced by the Audiolingual Method. Drew and Sørheim (2016) explain how “no new vocabulary was to be introduced without practising it in familiar structures” (p. 29). The readings were mainly composed of constructed texts, and there were few texts that demonstrated how the students were most likely to use the language outside the classroom. By using the Audiolingual

Method, students were more active in speaking the target language than previous methods like the GTM. However, they were often told what to say, and teaching was often monotonous (Drew & Sørheim, 2016).

2.4.4 Communicative Language Teaching

Even though Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is not considered a teaching method, it is “considered the most plausible basis for language teaching in many contexts today” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 382). Instead of a method, CLT offers a set of principles that supports foreign language learning, and in particular fluency development. Dell Hymes first presented the term ‘communicative competence’ in 1966 as a reaction against “Chomsky’s use of the term ‘competence’” (Howatt with Widdowson, 2004, p. 330). According to Newby (2006), “Hymes (1970) opened up the door for analysing language as acts of communication between human beings” (p. 19).

CLT’s main focus is to teach learners to communicate on an efficient level. When it comes to CLT, there is no model that is accepted as more authoritative than others (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). As a result, there are several different interpretations of the approach. CLT’s main aims are to “(a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 85). Since the focus in CLT is to prepare learners for the “real” English-speaking world, and communicative competence, there is less focus on vocabulary. According to Tan (2005), CLT does not have its own techniques for teaching vocabulary. However, the main focus is to introduce vocabulary in an authentic context from reading authentic texts. Since there is less focus on vocabulary, the rest of this section will focus mainly on context and meaning in CLT, as these aspects are very relevant in CLT and have a central part in the present thesis.

Meaning is a central focus area in CLT. According to Richards and Rodgers (2014), one of the processes that lead to language learning in CLT is “negotiation of meaning as the learner and his or her interlocutor arrive at understanding” (p. 91). They further explain how “meaning is viewed as the driving force of learning” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 106). Halliday (1975) also stresses the importance of

meaning, and explains how meaning even precedes the “lexical mode for the realization of meanings” (p. 9). In addition, Simensen (2007) mentions terminology like “imparting and seeking factual information”, “meaning gap”, “negotiation of meaning”, and “information sharing” (p. 117) as relevant when it comes to CLT activities. As a result, pair and group work is important and relevant to the learner-centeredness one can find in CLT (Newby, 2006). To be able to use new vocabulary, the understanding of the word has to be present.

Context is relevant in CLT, and according to Halliday (1999), the approach is “based on a context of situation” (p. 11), and focus to a great extent on language that learners can use in “relation to the social activity and the interpersonal relationships” (Halliday, 1999, p. 12). To be competent communicators, students need to be able to figure out a speaker’s intentions. In CLT, almost every activity is done with a communicative purpose, and activities like games, roleplaying and problem-solving tasks are a useful way to get students to develop their communicative skills (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Games are efficient in both developing communicative skills and to practice reading the situation and players’ intentions. In addition, games have qualities in common with authentic communicative events, as it gives the exchange a purpose (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

Since there is no agreed upon version of CLT, it is open for interpretation on how to use it in a classroom or in textbooks. However, Howatt (1984) divides the communicative approach into a ‘weak’ and a ‘strong’ version. The ‘weak’ version focuses on giving the learners opportunities to use the target language in communicative situations, to use it as a tool to practice the language. It is often connected with the syllabus, as a way to achieve the purposes (Howatt, 1984). Simensen (2007) further explains the ‘weak’ version with how “communicative activities are integrated into both grammatical and functionally based teaching programs” (p. 117). The ‘strong’ version on the other hand, uses the communicative situations to acquire the language. Howatt (1984) explains it as “using English to learn it” (p. 279). In the ‘strong’ version, the tendency is that everything is taught implicit, while the ‘weak’ version is more open to explicit teaching. In Norway, communicative approaches have been adapted in the national curriculum guidelines since M87¹, with focus on the ‘weak’ version of the communicative approach. Howatt

¹ Mønsterplan fra 1987 – National curriculum in Norway from 1987.

(1984) explains that there seems to be an understanding that students already know some English, and the teacher, or textbook, should help students to use their knowledge “for communicational purposes” (p. 287), which correlates with the competence aims in the Norwegian English Subject Curriculum (see section 2.5.2).

2.4.4.1 The Lexical Approach

When discussing CLT and vocabulary it is relevant to mention the Lexical Approach. The Lexical approach first appeared in the 1990s as an interpretation of the concept communicative competence (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The approach believes in the centrality of the lexicon to language structure, and particularly word “chunks”, or multi-word units (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Richards and Rodgers (2014) refer to Schmitt’s explanation of the Lexical Approach:

The Lexical Approach can be summarized in a few words: language consists not of traditional grammar and vocabulary but often of multi-word prefabricated chunks. The lexical approach is a way of analysing and teaching language based on the idea that it is made up of lexical units rather than grammatical structures. The units are words and chunks formed by collocations and fixed phrases. (Schmitt (n.d) in Richards and Rodgers, 2014, p. 215)

The approach assists the learner in becoming a more fluent speaker, since one can construct utterances from ready-made chunks, rather than having to construct utterances from single lexical items (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The overarching goal of the approach is to teach students to notice word “chunks”, to help them develop strategies for recognizing, remembering and using these new chunks and phrases. Among applied linguists it has been discussed if this approach might be more appropriate with students at an intermediate level, around B2 (according to the CEFR). However, Richards and Rodgers (2014) explain how it can be used with lower-level students when one provides the chunks and the students are not required to find them themselves through reading and listening.

Typical exercises in the Lexical Approach are awareness activities, training in text chunking and memory exercises. Simensen (2007) addresses how the Lexical

Approach requires drill activities for learners to become efficient users of lexical chunks, which is also a trait of the Audiolingual Method. Another useful tool in the approach is corpus based exercises and/or textbooks. As mentioned in section 2.3.4, corpus is an efficient way to illustrate and find out which multi-word units are used the most. It provides textbook writers, teachers and students with a way to find out what words are relevant and should be learned. Richards and Rodgers (2014) use the *Touchstone* series and *COBUILD* as examples of works that focus on multi-word units and corpus-informed materials.

The Lexical Approach is not considered a complete framework for a language course and even though advocates for the approach highly recommend corpus-based lexis in textbooks, there is little progress to develop such a focus on multi-word units in communicative competence (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). According to Burton (2012) and Aijmer (2009), there is little demand on corpus-based textbooks from teachers, school administrators and policy makers, and therefore publishers are not motivated to change or renew their textbooks. The lexical approach is still not considered a complete approach or method, and Richards and Rodgers (2014) suggest that it can be merged with other approaches, like CLT.

2.5 CEFR and LK06

To be able to understand what and why the textbook writers have included in their textbooks, it is relevant to study the national curriculum and other documents, like the CEFR. LK06 decides what students should be able to do after three years at lower secondary school, while the CEFR has a big influence on scholars and teachers in Norway. As a result of their relevance, both documents will be discussed in this section, and has been discussed in light of findings in chapter four.

2.5.1 The CEFR

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) is a document created by the Council of Europe and serves as a framework of reference made for teachers, examiners, textbook writers and learners. It is written as a guide to help with language learning, teaching and assessment.

According to the Council of Europe, it has been written with two main ideas in mind: to encourage practitioners of all kinds in the language field to reflect on questions relevant to their language teaching, and to make it easier for practitioners to convey what they wish to help learners achieve (CEFR, 2001). The approach adopted in the CEFR is not specified, but it is mentioned that it is, generally speaking, an action-oriented one. Since there is no adequate research-based consensus on how learners learn best, the CEFR has not based itself on any learning theories or methods in particular (CEFR, 2001). As a result, the Council of Europe present options and alternatives for teachers and textbook writers, rather than promoting one approach or method.

Even though the CEFR does not base itself on any learning theories, the Council of Europe has previously developed models for a syllabus. The Threshold Level syllabus, written by Van Ek in 1975, was “one of the first models of a communicative syllabus in the 1970s” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 165). The Threshold Level syllabus turned out to be a key document when it came to the growth of CLT (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In regards of vocabulary, the Threshold Level specified what learners should be able to do when using the target language, with emphasis on everyday language. The syllabus has been a big influence on national curricula and in the planning of language courses (Council of Europe, 2017). A second edition of the syllabus was published in 1990 and was written by van Ek and Trim. The CEFR divides communicative language competence into three components: linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic. The component linguistic competences include six sub-competences: lexical competence, grammatical competence, semantic competence, phonological competence, orthographic competence and orthoepic competence. When it comes to vocabulary, it falls under the categorization lexical competence. The CEFR provides a definition of lexical competence: “Lexical competence, knowledge of, and ability to use, the vocabulary of a language, consists of lexical elements and grammatical elements” (p. 110). The lexical elements include fixed expressions and single word forms. The CEFR provides several sub-groups when it comes to the fixed expressions:

- Sentential formulae, including:
 - o Direct exponents of language functions (...) such as greetings, e.g. *How do you do? Good morning!* etc.

- Proverbs, etc. (...)
- Relict archaisms, e.g. *Be off with you!*
- Phrasal idioms, often:
 - Semantically opaque, frozen metaphors, e.g.:
 - *He kicked the bucket* (i.e. he died).
 - *It's a long shot* (= unlikely to succeed).
 - *He drove hell for leather* (i.e. very fast).
 - Intensifiers. Their use is often contextually and stylistically restricted, e.g. *as white as snow* (= 'pure'), as against *as white as a sheet* (= 'pallid').
- Fixed frames, learnt and used as unanalysed wholes, into which words or phrases are inserted to form meaningful sentences, e.g.: *'Please may I have'*
- Other fixed phrases, such as:
 - Phrasal verbs, e.g. *to put up with, to make do (with)*;
 - Compound prepositions, e.g. *in front of*.
- Fixed collocations

(CEFR, 2001, p. 110-111)

With single word forms, the CEFR explains how a single word form may be polysemous, and that it includes words of the open word classes, like noun, verb, adjective, adverb, even though these may include closed lexical sets. The grammatical elements mentioned by the CEFR, are words that belong to closed word classes, like articles, quantifiers, pronouns, prepositions etc.

The framework provides levels of proficiency, and, as a result of this, the learners' progress can be measured at each stage of learning. There are common reference levels for different sections of a language: spoken language, written language, grammatical accuracy and vocabulary range and control are just a few of them. The levels go from A1 to C2, where learners who are at level A1 can be considered to be a basic user, while a C2 speaker is a proficient user. In the table 2.2 below, the range of vocabulary knowledge is illustrated by the CEFR.

Table 2.2

Scale of range of vocabulary knowledge, CEFR, p. 112

	VOCABULARY RANGE
C2	Has a good command of a very broad lexical repertoire including idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms; shows awareness of connotative levels of meaning.
C1	Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions; little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies. Good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms.
B2	Has a good range of vocabulary for matters connected to his/her field and most general topics. Can vary formulation to avoid frequent repetition, but lexical gaps can still cause hesitation and circumlocution.
B1	Has a sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some circumlocutions on most topics pertinent to his/her everyday life such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events. Has sufficient vocabulary to conduct routine, everyday transactions involving familiar situations and topics.
A2	Has a sufficient vocabulary for the expression of basic communicative needs. Has a sufficient vocabulary for coping with simple survival needs
A1	Has a basic vocabulary repertoire of isolated words and phrases related to particular concrete situations

In table 2.2, one can see that the CEFR again stresses the importance of idiomatic expressions. To be able to understand a language on a native-like basis, one has to be in control of idioms and other lexical chunks in the target language. The scale in table 2.2 is a useful tool for teachers, students and textbook writers as it indicates what is expected of the students to reach a certain level of fluency in a language. According to Drew and Sørheim (2016), Norwegian students in Year 10 are usually at level B1-B2.

2.5.2. LK06

The Norwegian national curriculum today is from 2006 and is called the Knowledge Promotion Reform (LK06). It replaced the L97 curriculum and is strongly influenced by the CEFR and trends in European EFL education (Drew & Sørheim, 2016). There have been six national curricula for lower secondary school in Norway since 1939. However, the present study will not go into detail about the previous curricula due to

time restrictions and lack of relevance, as this thesis focus on EFL textbooks made for LK06.

The English Subject Curriculum is divided into four main subject areas: “language learning”, “oral communication”, “written communication” and “culture, society and literature”. Basic skills are incorporated into the competence aims, and they contribute to the development of competence in the subject (Ministry of Education and Research, 2013). There was a revision of the LK06 in 2013. The revision included an additional subject area; the previous “communication” area was divided into “oral communication” and “written communication”. For the English Subject Curriculum, dividing the two areas led to more competence aims in the communication sections. The revision also included a more descriptive “purpose” and “basic skills” section. For lower secondary school, the revision led to a reduction of competence aims in “language learning” and a reduction of teaching hours: from 227 to 222 hours (Drew & Sørheim, 2016).

In the English Subject Curriculum, there are several competence aims after Year 10 that involve vocabulary. There are competence aims after Years 2, 4, 7, 10 and Vg1/Vg2 (vocational studies). Therefore, students in Year 10 have had three years in lower secondary school to achieve the competence aims set after Year 10 (see appendix B for all the competence aims after Year 10). When it comes to vocabulary learning, there are several aims that promote vocabulary, and some are more explicit than others. One aim after Year 10 is to “Understand and use a general vocabulary related to different topics” (Ministry of Education and Research, 2013, para. 2). Other aims focus on vocabulary acquisition, but not as explicitly as the previous one: “Demonstrate the ability to distinguish positively and negatively loaded expressions referring to individuals and groups” (para. 2) or “Communicate and converse about contemporary and academic topics” (Ministry of Education and Research, 2013, para. 4). These aims show how vocabulary is considered an important factor in English learning in Norway. Below is a list of the relevant competence aims when it comes to vocabulary teaching:

- Language Learning: The aims of the studies are to enable pupils to:
 - o identify significant linguistic similarities and differences between English and one’s native language and use this knowledge in one’s own language learning (para. 1)

- Oral Communication: The aims of the studies are to enable pupils to:
 - o understand and use a general vocabulary related to different topics
 - o demonstrate the ability to distinguish positively and negatively loaded expressions referring to individuals and groups
 - o understand the main content and details of different types of oral texts on different topics
 - o express and justify own opinions about different topics (para. 2).
- Written communication: The aims of the studies are to enable pupils to:
 - o understand and use a general vocabulary related to different topics
 - o demonstrate the ability to distinguish positively and negatively loaded expressions referring to individuals and groups
 - o understand the main content and details of texts one has chosen
 - o use central patterns for orthography, word inflection, sentence and text construction to produce texts (para. 3).
- Culture, society and literature: The aims of the studies are to enable pupils to:
 - o communicate and converse about contemporary and academic topics (para. 4).

(Ministry of Education and Research, 2013)

By including competence aims in the English Subject Curriculum, the Government gives teachers, textbook writers, students and examiners a guideline as to what learners should be able to do, or know, after certain school years.

2.6 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to attempt to show why vocabulary teaching is an important factor in EFL teaching and how it can be done. There are several different aspects to be aware of when learning new vocabulary and different approaches one can take. Section 2.4 and 2.5 indicate that vocabulary has always been a part of the major teaching methods, but with varied focus. There have been few tremendous changes, but an increasing focus on vocabulary in contemporary communicative language teaching. This correlates with Simensen's (2007) claim that vocabulary has "never been a topic of strong controversy" (p. 220). One difference that occurs is that

there seems to have been a shift in focus of explicit and implicit vocabulary learning. In GTM the focus on vocabulary was explicit, while in the Audiolingual and Direct Method the emphasis was on implicit learning. In the communicative approaches that are popular today, vocabulary is on the rise, and explicit learning seems to be an accepted teaching approach. Research indicates that there is not always an agreement among scholars and teachers on how to teach vocabulary, and that different textbooks might have different takes on the theories.

3. Materials and Methods

As pointed out in section 1.2, the aim of the present study is to analyse three EFL textbooks in regards to potential vocabulary acquisition in explicit vocabulary exercises. To be able to analyse the three books and answer the research questions, a set framework had to be constructed. This chapter will be divided into three sections; first a section where the materials used in the analysis is presented. Here the three EFL textbooks will be briefly described. The following section will explain the methods used in the quantitative and the qualitative analysis. The third, and last, section will describe possible limitations.

3.1 Materials

In the present study, I have chosen three textbooks for Year 10 in Norwegian lower secondary schools. As mentioned in section 1.2.1, Year 10 was chosen due to the limited research on vocabulary in textbooks for that grade. In addition, Year 10 is the last year of mandatory school levels and therefore the last year of obligatory English in the Norwegian school system. Upper Secondary School is optional, even though the majority of students choose to attend it. There are currently several textbooks for Year 10 available for teachers and schools. To narrow it down, I chose to look at the leading publishers in Norway and which books they publish. The leading publishers are Gyldendal, Aschehoug and Cappelen (Opsahl & Bucher Johannessen, 2012). I wanted to use and analyse the newest editions that were on the market when I started my research. As a result of this, I settled on *Searching 10* from Gyldendal, *Stages 10* from Aschehoug and *Voices in Time 3* by Cappelen. The three EFL textbooks are all written for the Norwegian school system and students in Norway. They are all written after LK06 was implemented and are consequently based on the national curriculum guidelines for the subject of English. *Stages 10* was published in 2015, and is therefore based on the revised national curriculum that came in 2013 (see section 2.5.2).

Textbook writers often include a website where teachers and students can find additional exercises to the ones in the textbook or workbook. However, to narrow down the selection of exercises, I chose to look only at exercises in the textbooks, or

workbook, and not use the digital resources. This was done due to space and time restrictions, as it would have been too many exercises to analyse in this thesis.

3.1.1 *Searching 10*

Gyldendal's *Searching 10* was published in 2008 and is written by Anne-Britt Fenner and Geir Nordal-Pedersen. This is the only EFL textbook for Year 10 from Gyldendal, however, they have a new textbook coming out in 2017 called *Enter*. *Searching 10* consists of:

- Learner's Book/textbook
- Teacher's Resource File
- CDs
- Digital Resources
- *Read and Write*, an activity pamphlet for students who need to improve their reading abilities

In the present study, only the textbook will be analysed, as exercises are included in the book. The textbook has 336 pages and is divided into 10 chapters, with additional texts and "Focus on Language" sections after each chapter and in the back of the book. The chapters have different themes, with texts and pictures that relate to the given topic. The last part of the book consists of sections focusing on "Individual Reading", "Focus on Language", "Pronunciation Symbols" and a wordlist. In the section "Focus on Language", there are only exercises and descriptions on grammar and not on vocabulary. All the chapters consist of exercises divided by numbers only, not by different sections or focus, and there is an average of about 21 exercises in each chapter (excluding the "Focus on (...) " exercises).

3.1.2 *Stages 10*

Stages 10 was published by Aschehoug in 2015 and is written by Kristin Måge Areklett, Synnøve Pettersen, Felicia Røkaas and Hilde Tørnby. It consists of:

- Textbook

- Teacher's Resource File
- CD
- Digital Resources (One for teachers and one for students)
- Audio Book

In the present study, only the textbook will be analysed. The textbook has 320 pages and consists of six chapters, with a reference section in the back of the book. In the reference section, there is information about grammar, word order, vocabulary, and text types, to mention a few. However, no exercises are included in this section. Each chapter has texts and pictures relating to the theme and an average of about 50 exercises. The exercises are divided into different focus areas: Starting Point, Understanding, Speaking Spot, Creative Corner, Writing Workshop, Explore More, Viewpoints, Language Lab and Literary Analysis. Not every category or focus area is included after every topic or text, but rather a selection. Vocabulary exercises are categorised under the Language Lab section; however, so are grammar exercises. As a result of this, not every language lab question focuses on vocabulary.

3.1.3 *Voices in Time 3*

Voices in Time 3 is written by Lisbeth M. Brevik and was published by Cappelen in 2008. *Voices in Time 3* consists of:

- Textbook
- Workbook
- *Teacher's Voice* and *Voices Task Collection 3*
- Digital Resource
- Audio book

In the present study, the workbook has been used as a source for the exercises and the textbook to look at the wordlists. The *Voices Task Collection 3* has been used in the analysis of *Voices in Time 3*, as several of the exercises included a handout from the teacher. In numerous cases it was not possible to analyse the exercise from just the workbook as it contained little or no information about the exercise. The textbook consists of 197 pages, and the workbook consists of 184 pages. *Voices in Time 3* is

divided into seven chapters and the textbook also has a section at the end called “Vocabulary”, which consists of a wordlist. The textbook’s chapters are divided into three parts; part 1: “Platform”, Part 2: “Appetizers” and Part 3: “Tracks”. The workbook, on the other hand, is divided into four parts. In the first part, there is an introduction to different text types, or genres, with examples on how to write these. In part two, the book provides the learner with different tools on how to learn more efficiently. Some of the strategies included are mind mapping, reading strategies and making a Word Wall. Part three contains all the exercises, and they are divided into different levels: All, Basic, Challenging and Demanding. The exercises are also divided into two categories, before reading the text from the textbook and after reading it. Each chapter has an average of about 74 exercises. In part four, there is a section to look up fiction and facts that are relevant for the different chapters in the textbook.

The exercises in the workbook are divided into different focus sections. There are some that only occur once or twice, but some that are regular, for example; Reflection, Vocabulary, Analysis, Presentation, Summarize, Discuss, Retell and Timeline. Of the average 74 exercises in each chapter, four of these are exercises labelled vocabulary. However, there are also exercises that help build vocabulary explicitly, without them being called vocabulary exercises by the author.

3.2 Methods

To be able to analyse the three EFL textbooks, I have chosen to do a theoretical textbook analysis. In the present study, I will use Tomlinson’s (2012) definition of an analysis as something which “focuses on the materials and aims to identify what they contain, what they ask learners to do and what they say they are trying to achieve, aiming to provide an objective account of the materials” (p. 148). Summer (2011) differentiates between a theoretical textbook analysis and an experimental textbook analysis. The latter is defined as an “empirical examination of teaching materials and looks at how they are used in practice by a teacher” (Summer, 2011, p. 87). However, in the present thesis, the main aim is to look at the textbook itself, and to analyse it through a specific set of criteria. As a result of this, the theoretical textbook analysis is chosen, with an evaluation methodology with two stands: a quantitative analysis and a

qualitative analysis. The use of a mixed methods research provides the thesis with a way to gain an in-depth insight and complement the qualitative analysis with the data from the quantitative analysis (Paltridge & Phakiti, 2015). According to Bryman (2012), by using mixed methods research, it might contribute to give research question(s) more complete answer(s). While one method may answer a part of the research question, the other method can fill the gap. Consequently, a mixed methods research has been chosen for the present study.

The exercises will be analysed on a quantitative level through a set of criteria. By using a set framework, it will be possible to collect and present the frequency of the different focus areas in the vocabulary exercises. Qualitative data can be described or conceptualized, hence, there will be performed a qualitative analysis on several of the vocabulary exercises in the thesis. A selection of exercises will be examined more closely to give a better understanding of the vocabulary exercises designed by the authors. However, the qualitative analysis will also contain certain quantitative elements. To present the findings in a clear and logical way, exercises and points have been counted and presented in a table (see section 3.2.2 and 4.2.1).

The textbooks were chosen due to the date of publication and publisher and not by how they are constructed. Consequently, the three books have different ways of structuring their exercises. *Searching 10* does not categorize the exercises, *Stages 10* has general focus areas and *Voices in Time 3* uses three different ways to categorize their exercises: focus, level and when one should do the exercises. Because of this, I have chosen to examine all the exercises individually, and not focus on the categorization made by the author(s). I have specified a set of my own criteria (see section 3.2.1), as a way to make sure that every explicit vocabulary exercise is included in the analysis. When it comes to each exercise, I have only taken into account the entire task. If an exercise has 1a, 1b and 1c, I have counted it as one exercise, not three. Exercises without a number, such as “Starting Point” in *Stages 10* or “Focus on Language” in *Searching 10* are also included in the analysis. These types of exercises are also counted as one, even though the “Focus on Language” sections usually cover two pages.

To be able to choose the exercises that focus on explicit vocabulary activities, I had to define what could be considered an explicit vocabulary exercise. This was done in section 2.2.2.

3.2.1 Criteria for the quantitative analysis

To analyse the explicit vocabulary exercises and to be able to compare the three works, I have selected a set of criteria to use in the quantitative analysis (see table 3.1 below). The criteria have been selected based on vocabulary research and relevance for the present study (see chapter 2). Since vocabulary learning is a broad topic and can include several aspects, I wanted to select criteria that can cover the most central ones according to research and scholars. Different exercises have different goals, and therefore different explicit vocabulary exercises might have very different focus areas and goals (Nation, 2013). Despite the great scope of explicit vocabulary aspects, I tried to find criteria that will cover the most essential parts of vocabulary learning. The criteria are heavily influenced by the CEFR, especially when it comes to why context and multi-word units are included. Nation (2013, 2014) stresses the importance of linking form and meaning, collocations, and repetition. Thornbury (2002) suggest decision-making activities to help learners to remember new words. Word meaning and productive processes of word formation are relevant for learners to make them understand how words work and how to be able to use a language sufficiently. Each criterion will be explained in more detail below table 3.1. The aim of the criteria is to get an overview of what the author(s) of the three EFL textbooks have chosen to focus on when it comes to explicit vocabulary learning.

Table 3.1
Criteria for the quantitative analysis

	<i>Searching 10</i>		<i>Stages 10</i>		ViT3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Context						
Word Meaning						
Translation						
Dictionary use:						
a) Bilingual						
b) Monolingual						
c) Not specified						
Linking form and meaning						

Decision-making:

- a. Identifying
- b. Selection
- c. Matching
- d. Sorting
- e. Ranking and sequencing

Multi-word units:

- a. Collocations
- b. Phrasal verbs
- c. Idioms
- d. Lexical phrases

Word formation:

- a. Compounding
- b. Affixation
- c. Conversion

Repetition¹

Heading abbreviations for *Table 3.1*:

- ViT3 *Voices in Time 3*
- n Frequency
- % Percentage of all explicit vocabulary exercises

The criteria above will work as a framework for the analysis. It will be used as a way to present the quantitative data, as each exercise will be analysed based on these criteria. One exercise can include more than one criterion. The next part of this section will explain why the criteria were chosen and how they will be used to analyse the exercises.

3.2.1.1 Context

Context is one of the criteria because of its importance when it comes to understanding how a word is used and when to use it (see section 2.3.1). In this thesis, it will be mapped if the exercise presents the new words in a set context, or require

¹ In the present thesis *repetition* is defined as a way to learn new vocabulary, and is here considered a teaching method

the students to use a new word or expression in context. Below is an example of an exercise that focuses on the different contexts a word can be used in:

- Listen to these sentences and see if you can work out what the verb fancy means:
1. He's really nice, but I don't fancy him.
 2. I fancy eating out tonight. Don't you?
 3. Do you fancy a cup of coffee?
 4. Fancy a drink?
 5. That guy on the dance floor – he really fancies himself
 6. I never really fancied package holidays much.

Example 3.1: context activity, adapted from Thornbury (2002), p. 82

3.2.1.2 Word meaning

Word meaning can be a subcategory under context, however, I have chosen to use it on its own, as it is a very relevant factor when it comes to vocabulary teaching. Word meaning is here used to describe whether the exercise makes the learner aware of a word's different meanings. English is a language with many polysemous words and it can be a challenge for learners to be aware of the fact that new words can be used in a different context with a different meaning. In addition, *word meaning* will be mapped if an exercise includes focus on synonyms and/or antonyms. Both these factors help develop the students' understanding of a word, and contribute to developing their writing and speaking skills. Example 3.2 illustrates how a word meaning exercise might look like.

Look up the word *relation* in a dictionary. Find at least three different meanings and write down example sentences.

Example 3.2: a word meaning exercise (Stages 10, 2015, p. 19)

3.2.1.3 Translation

Translation is an interesting and discussed topic among applied linguists in vocabulary teaching, as examined in section 2.3.1. Since translation is such an essential part of GTM, and one can still see traces of the centrality of translation in today's teaching methods and approaches, it has been chosen as a criterion. During the quantitative analysis, an exercise will be analysed as a translation activity if it

requires the learner to translate something from Norwegian into English, or the other way around.

Translate the song into Norwegian.

Example 3.3: translating exercise (Searching 10, 2008, p. 11)

3.2.1.4 Dictionary use

Dictionary use is included as a criterion because it is considered an important tool in language learning (see section 2.3.1). When used as a criterion, it will include exercises that ask the learner to use a bilingual dictionary, a monolingual dictionary, both or not specified.

How many words and expressions related to looking at someone can you think of? Use a dictionary and find more synonyms. Write a list.

Example 3.4: Dictionary exercise (Stages 10, 2015, p. 27)

3.2.1.5 Linking form and meaning

Linking form and meaning has also been chosen as a criterion. To be able to know and use a word, linking form and meaning is essential (see section 2.1.1). As a criterion, linking form and meaning is likely to happen if the exercise is designed to use word cards, matching words and definitions, discussing the meaning of words or phrases, drawing and labelling pictures, peer teaching or solving riddles (Nation, 2013).

Make a quiz about the meaning of words and expressions. Get inspiration from words that have been used incorrectly in your *Tracks*.

Example 3.5: A Linking form and meaning, from Voices in Time 3 (2008), p. 52.

Note: Tracks are longer texts from the Voices in Time 3 textbook.

3.2.1.6 Decision-making

Decision-making exercises can be a helpful device for learners to remember words and see how one can use new vocabulary (see section 2.3.3). It is a way for vocabulary to move from short-term memory into long-term memory. Thornbury

(2002) lists five sub-categories, which are different types of exercises that include decision-making. Each category requires different levels of brain work, as some are more cognitively demanding than others (Thornbury, 2002). *Identifying* a word is when an exercise asks the learner to find words in a text or listening out for words from a recorded text. It can involve exercises where the students fill in words from a song they are listening to or finding certain words in a text.

Find the missing information.

Operation Pied Piper was a mass ___ scheme. Children were sent from the ___ to the countryside to protect them from the German ___. The children who were evacuated were known as ___, and the families they stayed with during the war were called ___ families.

Example 3.6: identifying exercise (Stages 10, 2015, p. 115)

A *selecting* activity requires the learner to recognise words and to make a choice amongst them. Below is an example taken from *Stages 10*:

Make a list of 10-12 keywords and phrases from “Navajo Code Talkers”. Use the list to tell a partner about the text

Example 3.7: A selecting activity (Stages 10, 2015, p. 160)

When it comes to *matching* exercises, the learner first has to recognise a word, and then pair it with something, i.e. a translation, a synonym, an antonym, a definition or a collocate.

Match each of the words from the text with its synonym.

a sleek	A conflict
b cheeky	B disrespectful
c exceptional	C love
d triumph	D huge
e respond	E elegant
f adoration	F answer
g debut	G insane
h enormous	H extraordinary
i delighted	I follow
j discord	J victory
k purse	K first
l deranged	L thrilled

Example 3.8: a matching activity from Stages 10, 2015, p. 132

A *sorting* exercise is when the learner has to sort words into different categories, i.e. the learners have to put words into positive or negative categories, or that the learners can create their own category. A sorting exercise requires the learner to make decisions about target words and potentially gives the learner a way to remember the vocabulary better.

Read the poem once more. Write two lists of words, one with the negative words (like fighting) and one with the positive words (like singing).

Example 3.9: A sorting exercise (Searching 10, 2008, p. 194)

Finally, there are *ranking and sequencing*. Activities that involve ranking and sequencing require the learner to arrange the words into some kind of order. It can for example be chronologically or having to compare a personal sequence with another student. This type of exercise requires the students to make a choice among words, either personal or a set of criteria. This way, students get the chance to use the language in a personal way (Flogenfeldt & Lund, 2016).

Put the following words in the order in which they typically happen in your country:

graduate get married be born get divorced get engaged die
retire leave home have children re-marry start school

Example 3.10: sequencing activity (Thornbury, 2002, p. 99)

3.2.1.7 Multi-word units

Multi-word units, or lexical chunks, are included as a criterion as it is a practical learning aid. It is useful to teach new vocabulary in a combination of phrases and words organised according to meanings (see section 2.3.2). The ability to use multi-word units makes the learner's oral communication more fluent and advanced. As mentioned in section 2.3.2, in the present study, multi-word units include four subcategories: collocations, phrasal verbs, idioms and lexical phrases. As a criterion, *collocations* will be used to see if exercises make the learner aware of the fact that some words tend to co-occur with the same words. It does not necessarily mean that the textbooks have to mention the term collocations, as this might be a bit too advanced for students in Year 10. Exercises that are designed to promote collocations can for example be matching activities, finding collocates in dictionaries or analysing and classifying collocates (Nation, 2013).

What is the one word in each row that does *not* usually go with the word on the left?

Win match war salary election race lottery

Earn money degree living salary interest place

Gain weight advantage access support wages experience

Example 3.11: collocation activity (Thornbury, 2002, p. 121)

Phrasal verbs, such as “grow up” and “count on”, are included because of their importance in written communication and the learner's ability to understand native-like conversations (see section 2.3.2.2). Example 4 is an example of an exercise that focuses on phrasal verbs:

Use the correct phrasal verb from task a in the sentences below. Use each phrasal verb once.

1. Ram _____ without parents
2. Don't _____ until tomorrow what you can do today.
3. _____ or we will miss the demonstration!
4. We should all _____ against injustice.
5. I _____ an old friend in Mumbai.
6. _____ the good work!
7. Tom's wife had to _____ their sons while he was away.
8. Gandhi _____ an independent India

Example 3.12: Phrasal verbs (Stages 10, 2015, p. 82)

Idioms are a criterion, as learners need to be aware of their existence. Idioms are culture-specific and usually not translatable, and therefore a challenge for EFL learners (see section 2.3.2.3). In the analysis, idioms will be mapped when an exercise involves working with idioms, or if the learners are being made aware of idioms and how they can be used. Below is an example taken from a “Focus on Language” exercise in *Searching 10*:

A Here are some more idioms. Write their meaning in plain English:

- blow one's top
- be broke
- cram
- elbow grease
- hard feelings
- keep one's fingers crossed
- two-faced
- a let down

B use the idioms in sentences

Example 3.13: Idioms (Searching 10, 2008, p. 147)

Lexical phrases are in this thesis interpreted as phrases that involve social interactions, necessary topics and discourse devices. It is included as a criterion because it helps students to develop their vocabulary and to express themselves fluently about self-selected topics. Since lexical phrases are stored and retrieved as multi-word units, they provide learners with phrases that they may not be able to

construct themselves (see section 2.3.2.4). Example 3.14 below is an exercise that requires students to practice and learn using lexical phrases:

Vocabulary building: expressions of certainty and doubt. In pairs, discuss the two questions below. Use the different expressions of certainty and doubt.

- a) Do you think Victor is responsible for bringing Cody back to life?
 - b) Do you think Victor is an angel?
- I am 100% sure
 - I am absolutely sure
 - I am certain
 - I am positive
 - Definitely/definitely not
 - Certainly/certainly not
 - Of course/of course not
 - I suppose
 - I am not sure
 - I doubt it
 - I wouldn't like to say for certain
 - I have my doubts
 - It is doubtful
 - It is very unlikely/likely
 - It is possible / it is impossible
 - He might be/he might not be/he could be
 - Maybe/maybe not/probably

Example 3.14: Lexical phrases, exercise 8 (Stages 10, 2015, p. 264)

All these subcategories can be further categorized in terms of fixedness or idiomaticity. There are fixed and semi-fixed chunks, while others are transparent in meaning. However, this will not be included in the analysis as it would result in a very precise and detailed quantitative data and is not the main focus of the present study.

3.2.1.8 Word formation

As mentioned in section 2.1.1, there are three productive processes of word formation in English: compounding, affixation and conversion. These three factors are included as criteria due to their relevance when it comes to students' understanding of a

language and the development of their written and oral fluency (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000).

Compounding is when two distinct words are combined to create a new one. Compounds can be written as one word, with a hyphen or as two separate words (Flogentfeldt & Lund, 2016). As a criterion, compounding will be mapped if an exercise makes the students aware of how compounding works. If an exercise includes compounds, but the aim is not to make the learner aware or see how compounding works, it will not be mapped.

Affixation is included as a criterion since to know a word, includes knowing about the affixes and stems that compile the word and contributes to creating new words. Knowledge about word formation through affixes can help students to understand the meaning of new vocabulary (Nation, 2013).

By adding a suffix to the end of a word we modify its meaning and its word class. The most common suffixes are: -able, -dom, -ful, -less, -ment, -ness, -ity

Example:

bore – boredom, kind – kindness, play – playful

a Change these words by adding a suffix.

Example: care = careful

Comfort

sleep

legal

Free

kind

judge

Possible

thought

commit

Example 3.15: An affixation exercise, from Stages 10 (2010), p. 218.

The last word formation process is *conversion*. Conversion is when a word changes word class, usually a noun or adjective into a verb (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). For instance, “This book is a must for teachers of English!” (Flogentfeldt & Lund, 2016, p. 65), where the word ‘must’ has gone from its originally use as a modal verb to a noun. Conversion has been included as a criterion as it can be a helpful tool for students to understand how new words come into the English language.

3.2.1.9 Repetition

Repetition is chosen as a criterion due to its importance for learners to remember a new word (see section 2.3.3). In this context, repetition is when students are required

to repeat new vocabulary as a way to learn and remember the new words. Even though new words are said to be most efficiently stored when repeated 12 times (Nation, 2014, see section 2.3.3), repetition will be mapped if the exercise expose the students to a word, or require them to use a word, more than once.

Go through the vocabulary for the recorded text on page 214 before you listen to the recorded extract from the novel

Example 3.16: repetition (Stages 10, 2015, p. 213)

3.2.1.10 Productive and receptive exercises

In addition to analysing the vocabulary exercises with the criteria explained above, I will take into account if the exercises are productive or receptive (see section 2.1.1). *Production* of new vocabulary is important when it comes to remembering and comprehending new words. With exercises that require the learners to incorporate the new vocabulary through creation or completion, it will make the words easier to remember and understand (Thornbury, 2002). In *creation* exercises the learner is required to create the context for a certain word. The learner might be given a set of words and is asked to write a sentence or two by using the specified words. In *completion* exercises the learner is required to complete or fill-in a given sentence. *Receptive* exercises, on the other hand, involve that the learners hear and might make judgements of new words, but they do not have to produce them. Receptive exercises are an important step in learning vocabulary, as receptive knowledge of a word usually precedes the productive knowledge.

Productive and receptive exercises are not a part of the framework, due to its overlap with the criteria. Consequently, I will instead look at it independently, and not as a part of the set framework.

3.2.2 The qualitative analysis

To achieve a more in-depth perspective of the explicit vocabulary exercises in the three books, a qualitative analysis will be executed. In the present study, a qualitative analysis has been included to get a better perspective of what kind of exercises the

author(s) have included, what they focus on, and how they seem to believe students learn the best. The analysis will be based on research question B (see section 1.3):

B. How are the explicit vocabulary exercises designed in light of vocabulary acquisition?

As the quantitative analysis will give an overview of what kind of explicit vocabulary learning the writers have included, research question B's aim is to get a more in-depth perception on how the exercises are designed. Even though research question B will mainly be answered by a qualitative analysis, the analysis will also have traits of a quantitative one. The quantitative elements have been included to present the findings in a comprehensive way, and to not only see how the exercises are designed, but also the differences between the analysed exercises. By implementing numbers and tables, one can compare the analysed exercises and see similarities and differences more easily.

Due to time and space restrictions, it will not be possible to analyse every explicit vocabulary exercise. As a result, I have chosen to analyse exercises where the main focus is to promote multi-word units. Multi-word units were chosen as they are, according to several vocabulary researchers such as Nation & Webb (2011); Schmitt (2010), essential in learners' development to become fluent speakers of a language. In addition, the term multi-word units are not something I have encountered in my own education in lower secondary school or university, and something which I was curious to see if had changed, particularly in textbooks for Year 10. All exercises from the three EFL textbooks that focus on multi-word units have been analysed, see appendix A.

To analyse the chosen exercises, Nation and Webb's (2011) technique feature analysis (TFA) has been used. The TFA is inspired by the Involvement Load Hypothesis by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001), and it is a way to indicate how an exercise challenges and involves a learner. The Involvement Load Hypothesis includes three factors: Need, Search and Evaluation. Each factor can be absent, present with moderate strength or present with full strength (Nation & Webb, 2011). I first considered using the Involvement Load Hypothesis, as it would be a well-organized way to score the different exercises. However, Nation and Webb (2011) have developed the Involvement Load Hypothesis further and added several features that

are considered important when learning a new vocabulary and named it the TFA. It is based on the statement that “the design of the task determines the quality of the learning outcomes” (Nation and Webb, 2011, p. 4). Nation and Webb (2011) added several additional components to the index in order to “meet the dual goals of evaluating and designing techniques” (p. 7). As a result, the new analysis consists of 18 questions/criteria. Since the TFA is more detailed and includes more components in the analysis, I decided on using that instead of the Involvement Load Hypothesis. The analysis will be used to evaluate the exercises and see how they promote vocabulary learning. Below is a description of the criteria.

Table 3.2

A checklist for the technique feature analysis (Nation, 2013, p.101)

Criteria	Scores	
Motivation		
Is there a clear vocabulary-learning goal?	0	1
Does the activity motivate learning?	0	1
Do learners select the words?	0	1
Noticing		
Does the activity focus attention on the target words?	0	1
Does the activity raise awareness of new vocabulary learning?	0	1
Does the activity involve negotiation?	0	1
Retrieval		
Does the activity involve retrieval of the word?	0	1
Is it productive retrieval?	0	1
Is it recall?	0	1
Are there multiple retrievals of each word?	0	1
Is there spacing between retrievals?	0	1
Creative use		
Does the activity involve creative use?	0	1
Is it productive?	0	1
Is there a marked change that involves the use of other words?	0	1
Retention		
Does the activity ensure successful linking of form and meaning?	0	1
Does the activity involve instantiation?	0	1
Does the activity involve imaging?	0	1
Does the activity avoid interference?	0	1
Maximum score	18	

In table 3.2, the analysis is divided into five sub-headings: motivation, noticing, retrieval, creative use and retention. I will therefore divide the description of the different criteria into these five sub-headings.

3.2.2.1 Motivation

Under the subheading Motivation, these are the criteria/questions: *Is there a clear vocabulary learning goal? Does the activity motivate learning? and Do the learners select the words?* Motivation is an important part of learning a language in general. There are several aspects relevant to making an exercise motivational for students. If an exercise has a clear vocabulary goal, it will most likely improve learners' motivation. It is a challenge to know what motivates each student, however some activities can be considered more likely to motivate students than others. According to Nation and Webb (2011), "some activities have motivating characteristics" (p. 8). Activities that resemble games typically done outside the classroom (like crosswords and puzzles), activities that challenge the learners (like multiple-choice or matching activities), or activities like word cards, have a good chance to motivate learning (Nation & Webb, 2011). Another factor that might contribute to the students' motivation is if the learners get the chance to select the words to work with. When students get the opportunity to choose the words, it might attain more interest in the new vocabulary, in contrast to being told what to learn.

3.2.2.2 Noticing

Noticing involves how the students see the relevance of the word and the attention they give it. If words or formulaic sequences are highlighted in texts, they tend to be looked up more frequently than non-highlighted words (Nation, 2013). In other words, learners need to see the importance of new vocabulary. This can be done through meeting the word in authentic sentences or selecting the right word from a number of different words (Nation & Webb, 2011). According to Nation (2013), words that are negotiated have a bigger chance of being learned than vocabulary that is not. Studies have also found that students learn from listening to other students negotiate. Even though they might not contribute, they learn by observing (Nation, 2013).

3.2.2.3 Retrieval

To remember and properly learn a word, it needs to be repeated and retrieved several times (see section 2.3.3). It is not retrieval if both meaning and form are presented to the learner. However, if both meaning and form are specified, but learners need to retrieve different derivations of the word, it can be counted as retrieval. Receptive retrieval involves having the form given and to retrieve the meaning in activities that involve listening or reading. Productive retrieval involves “wishing to communicate the meaning of the word and having to retrieve its spoken or written form as in speaking or writing” (Nation, 2013, p. 107). Recall on the other hand, is when neither form nor meaning is given, and the learner has to retrieve the meaning of the word, or the word itself, from memory (Nation & Webb, 2011).

The retrievals need to be spaced, as it results in “more secure learning than massed repetitions” (Nation, 2013, p. 452). Spacing can involve retrieving words over several days, but also with a selection of words. One can repeat a word in different sections during a day or week, or have a six-word spacing before retrieving the word again (Nation, 2013). However, it is important that there is not too much time between the retrievals. The students need to remember the last encounter they had with the word, otherwise it is a new encounter, rather than a repetition (Nation, 2013). Spacing might also provide a different context, in contrast to massed learning, which is usually done in the same context (Nation, 2013).

3.2.2.4 Creative use

Creative use is when the learners meet a previously encountered word in a new setting. It can be the same word with a new meaning, and/or with different collocations. Receptive creative use involves meeting the word in a new context, while exercises that require the students to fill in the blanks or sentence production can be considered productive creative use. When it comes to productive creative use, it can occur in different degrees (Nation & Webb, 2011). It can be low generation: where the words can have small inflectional or grammatical changes. Reasonable generation: where the word is used with different collocations or grammatical changes. Finally, there is high generation: where the word has a new or elaborate meaning, new collocations and/or new or removal of derivational affixes (Nation & Webb, 2011).

3.2.2.5 Retention

As mentioned in chapter 2, to know a word one has to be able to link form and meaning. Activities that promote that linkage can be word cards, reading with glosses and looking up words in a dictionary (Nation & Webb, 2011). Instantiation involves seeing the word in a meaningful situation. Words are easier to remember if one has an instance of the meaning of the word to remember it by (Nation, 2013). Imaging is when one uses a visual image to help learning a word. By making a mental picture of a word or a sentence, it might be easier to remember and retrieve a word. When learning new vocabulary, one should avoid interference. According to Nation and Webb (2011), there are “negative effects of teaching several unknown words that are members of a lexical set at the same time” (p. 10). Therefore, it is important that exercises avoid interference.

According to Nation and Webb (2011) the analysis has some weaknesses. When learning a word, there are different aspects involved. The different aspects are not “equally weighted in their contribution to vocabulary knowledge” (Nation and Webb, 2011, p. 15) and the analysis does not take that into account. As a result, some aspects that are considered extremely relevant in language learning, like linking form and meaning, gets the same amount of points as something that is considered less important, like imaging. Imaging is unquestionably a useful tool, but not imperative when it comes to learning new vocabulary.

3.2.2.6 Exercises analysed

As mentioned in section 3.2.2, the analysed exercises are exercises that focus on multi-word units. When examining all explicit vocabulary exercises in the three EFL textbooks, there were several exercises that could lead attention to multi-word units, but did not guarantee it. An example is exercise A3, p. 91 in *Voices in Time 3*:

- Make a Word Match game:
- Scan the text on p. 60-61 and write down ten words or expressions.
 - Write an explanation or definition to each word or expression on separate cards.
 - Ask pupils to match each word and its meaning.

Example 3.17: from Voices in Time 3 (2008), p. 91

The exercise in example 3.17 cannot guarantee that the learners choose multi-word units among the words in the text. In addition, *expressions* can cover several aspects in a language, and therefore include more than multi-word units. According to *Oxford English Dictionary for Students* (2006), an expression is “the action of expressing thoughts or feelings” or “a word or phrase expressing an idea” (p. 350). Both these definitions show how abstract and wide the concept of what *expression* is. I have chosen not to analyse exercises that do not guarantee focus on multi-word units. Consequently, exercises that require the learners to choose words or expressions, like the exercise in example 3.17, will not be included in the qualitative analysis. The focus will rather be on exercises that have a clear aim of teaching the students about multi-word units, and which make learners aware of their existence.

As a result of narrowing down the analysis to include only exercises that explicitly focus on multi-word units, a number of exercises have not been analysed. Particularly in *Voices in Time 3*, there are a number of exercises that have not been included. In *Voices in Time 3*, 12 exercises have not been analysed due to the design of the exercise. Most of the excluded exercises have similar wording as example 3.17, where the learners are to pick their own words from a text in the textbook.

Another type of exercise that is not included as well, are some of the exercises that require the learner to explain a given list of words. In some of these exercises one word might be a multi-word unit. However, it is typically only one or two expressions out of five or six words. Therefore, the main goal of the exercise is not to make the learner aware of multi-word units, but rather because it is relevant to that particular topic or text. The main goal of the qualitative analysis is to see if there are any exercises that focus explicitly on multi-word units and how these exercises promote vocabulary acquisition.

3.2.3 Glossaries and wordlists

In addition to the two analyses of the three EFL textbooks, I wanted to examine the wordlists and glossaries included in the books. Learning a new language and new vocabulary includes learning a new conceptual system (Beheydt, 1987, see section 2.3.1). Words can rarely be learned to a full extent with a one-to-one translation. Nonetheless, many EFL textbooks used in Norwegian schools use wordlists to a great

extent. As a result of this, a short discussion concerning the three EFL textbooks and their use of wordlists and glossaries will be included. The main focus will be whether the books have included Norwegian-English (bilingual) or English-English (monolingual) glossaries and wordlists.

3.3 Possible Limitations

Even though textbooks are widely used, there is no guarantee that teachers use textbooks exactly like the authors intended. An analysis of EFL textbooks might therefore not be representative for what happens in the classroom. To be able to analyse how the textbooks are being used, I would have to conduct classroom observation. However, by doing a theoretical textbook analysis, it will give an indication as to how textbook authors are influenced by the curricula and teaching methods.

By choosing three EFL textbooks for Year 10, I eliminated other EFL textbooks for Year 10 from other publishers. If other books were chosen, the findings in the present study might have looked different. Different authors might have been influenced by different teaching theories, or the books might have different focus areas.

Vocabulary is an important part of language learning and many factors are included under the term vocabulary. Due to time restrictions, I had to put limitations on what to focus on. Because of this, I chose to focus on certain aspects of vocabulary learning, like multi-word units and context. If I had chosen other focus areas, the results might have turned out differently. When constructing the quantitative analysis, both metaphors and formal and/or informal language were considered relevant for the analysis. However, they were not chosen to be included. Metaphors can be considered as multi-word units, however, in the textbooks, metaphors are considered to be a literary device. In general, metaphors are a broad topic with several sub-categories, and there is little research that connects it to vocabulary learning. As a result, it is not included in the analysis. When it comes to formal and informal language, it has many aspects and different levels (Flogenfeldt & Lund). It is relevant when it comes to how to use language, but not necessary as relevant when it comes to explicit vocabulary learning. Since there is limited research that connects metaphors and formal/informal

language to vocabulary learning, both have been excluded from the analysis. If they had been included, the results might have been different.

When performing a textbook analysis, certain aspects of the analysis will be affected by subjective views. Even though an evaluation is considered more subjective, an analysis can be so as well (Tomlinson, 2012). There will be an unavoidably subjectivity when selecting the exercises to analyse, and Tomlinson (2012) explains how there is usually a “hidden agenda which it is hoped the revealed data will support” (p. 148). When, for example, applying the TFA by Nation and Webb (2011), it would have been more advantageous to be two conducting the analysis. By being two people to apply the analysis, it would contribute to a better level of reliability than if only one applied it (Nation and Webb, 2011). I have tried to my best abilities to be as objective as possible; nonetheless, the analysis will always be affected by subjective decisions.

4. Results and Discussion

In this chapter, the results of the two analyses will be presented and followed by a discussion of the results. The chapter will be divided into three sections: the first section presents a general overview of the three textbooks and findings and discussion from the quantitative analysis. The next section will provide the findings and discussion about the qualitative analysis. Finally, a discussion where findings from both the quantitative and qualitative analysis will be discussed in light of context, memory, teaching methods and the curriculum.

The aim of the two analyses is to answer my research questions:

- A. Are there explicit vocabulary exercises included in the three textbooks, and if so, what do the exercises focus on when it comes to vocabulary acquisition?
- B. How are the explicit vocabulary exercises designed in light of vocabulary acquisition?

As mentioned in section 3.3.1 and 3.3.2, the findings come from a quantitative and a qualitative analysis. The goal is to see what types of explicit vocabulary exercises are included in three EFL textbooks for Year 10 and more specifically, what the textbook authors chose to include and focus on in each analysed exercise.

4.1 The Quantitative Analysis

The quantitative analysis will try to answer research question A. To accomplish that, a set of criteria has been made (see section 3.2.1). In this section of the chapter the results from the analysis will be presented. First some general findings will be presented, and then the findings from the criteria will be discussed. In addition, receptive and productive word knowledge is discussed in its own section. Finally, a general discussion of the quantitative analysis will be presented.

4.1.1 Number of explicit vocabulary exercises

Table 4.1 illustrates how many exercises that are included in the three textbooks and how many of those exercises focus explicitly on vocabulary. The table shows the number and percentage of explicit vocabulary exercises in the three textbooks.

Table 4.1

Number of explicit vocabulary exercises in the three EFL textbooks

	Explicit vocabulary exercises	All exercises	Percentage (%)
<i>Searching 10</i>	32	232	13.79
<i>Stages 10</i>	34	384	8.85
<i>Voices in Time 3</i>	47	518	9.07

The table shows that *Searching 10* has the highest percentage of explicit vocabulary exercises, while *Stages 10* has the lowest percentage. In the next section, general findings will be discussed. That include if the books have any additional information about vocabulary, and what types of exercises the author(s) have included.

4.1.2 General findings

Before the findings can be discussed, some general findings need to be deliberated. The three textbooks all have additional sections in the back of the textbooks that include either language sections or wordlists. In addition, *Voices in Time 3* has several exercises that are reoccurring and are specific for that book. Therefore, these sections and exercises will be explained in this section to better understand the results discussed later in this chapter.

Searching 10 has a section in the back of the book that is called “Focus on Language”. However, there is no information about vocabulary in the section, only grammar. There is also a wordlist included in the back of the book (see section 4.3.6). *Searching 10* also has “Focus on Language” sections throughout the textbook. These sections cover two pages and focus on a specific language topic. Three of these sections are relevant when it comes to vocabulary. They focus on lexical phrases, affixation and idioms. As mentioned in section 3.2, the “Focus on Language” sections have been counted as one exercise.

In *Stages 10* there is a “Reference Section”. In that section vocabulary has its own segment. In Norwegian, the authors present different ways of learning and remembering new vocabulary. The different strategies that are mentioned are ways to visualize a new word, through mind maps that are either constructed with synonyms, the root of a word or a grid with different word classes. The section also discusses idioms and that different languages have different idioms. Throughout the section, the authors recommend using a dictionary as a useful tool in learning new vocabulary and finding synonyms.

Voices in Time 3 has some reoccurring exercises that need to be explained in order to better comprehend the results from the two analyses. First, a frequent exercise in the workbook is to make a Word Wall. A Word Wall is a table where students fill in words that are relevant, typical for, or describing a word, expression, or topic. It can be synonyms or typical vocabulary that a particular author uses. Word Walls can be made at the beginning of a new topic or after reading a text. Another frequent activity that occurs in the workbook is Loop. Loop is a form of flash cards, where there is a question on one card and the answer on another. If done in a group, one student reads the question out loud, and the student with the correct answer replies, and then reads out another question. When it comes to vocabulary, a definition is read out, and the correct word is on another card. *Voices in Time 3* also has a wordlist in the back called “Vocabulary”, which will be further discussed in section 4.3.6.

4.1.3 Criteria

As mentioned above and in section 3.2.1, a set of criteria was made to get an overview of the included explicit vocabulary exercises in the three textbooks. In table 4.2 below, the findings are presented.

Table 4.2

Findings from the quantitative analysis

	<i>Searching 10</i>		<i>Stages 10</i>		ViT3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Context	19	59	24	71	31	66
Word Meaning	0	0	6	18	0	0
Translation	7	22	3	9	0	0
Dictionary:						
d) Bilingual	1	3	0	0	0	0
e) Monolingual	0	0	1	3	0	0
f) Not specified	5	16	5	15	1	2
Linking form and meaning	14	44	10	29	25	53
Decision-making:						
a. Identifying	9	28	9	26	11	23
b. Selection	2	6	5	15	5	11
c. Matching	2	6	6	18	8	17
d. Sorting	3	9	0	0	14	30
e. Ranking and sequencing	0	0	1	3	0	0
Multi-word units:						
e. Collocations	0	0	1	3	0	0
f. Phrasal verbs	0	0	2	6	0	0
g. Idioms	1	3	1	3	3	6
h. Lexical phrases	1	3	1	3	0	0
Word formation						
a. Compounding	0	0	0	0	0	0
b. Affixes	1	3	3	9	0	0
c. Conversion	0	0	0	0	1	2
Repetition	0	0	8	24	11	23

Heading abbreviations for table 4.2:

- ViT3 *Voices in Time 3*
- n Frequency
- % Percentage out of all explicit vocabulary exercises

From the results in table 4.2, it is evident that the textbooks have a varied collection of explicit vocabulary exercises. In the sections below the different criteria and findings will be discussed. It will be divided into seven different sections to get an overview of what the author(s) has focused on when it comes to explicit vocabulary learning.

4.1.3.1 Context and word meaning

When it comes to context, over 50% of all the explicit vocabulary exercises in the three textbooks introduce new vocabulary, or require the students to use the new vocabulary, in context. As mentioned in section 2.3.1, context is an important factor when learning new words. To be able to use new vocabulary, it is essential to know which words the vocabulary occurs with and in which situations it can be used (Beheydt, 1987). *Stages 10* is the textbook with the highest percentage of exercises that present words in context, with 71%. *Searching 10* has the lowest percentage with 59%.

In *Searching 10*, exercises that present the words in context are often identifying tasks (see section 3.2.1.6). The exercises that do not present or require the learner to use words in context are exercises that require the students to look up words in a dictionary (seven), explain a word (four), and matching activities (one). In *Stages 10*, 71% of the explicit vocabulary exercises are presented in context, or require the learner to use the vocabulary in context. The ten exercises that do not focus on context are matching exercises (four), wordlist (four) and translation (two). In *Voices in Time 3*, 66% of the explicit vocabulary exercises focus on context. Similar to *Stages 10*, the exercises that do not focus on context are matching exercises (seven). In addition, exercises that require the learners to make a Word Wall (five) or to explain vocabulary (five) are typically not centred on presenting words in context.

What these results illustrate is that it is evident that the author(s) of the three textbooks all see the importance of presenting and/or using new vocabulary in context. In the exercises where context is not in focus, there is emphasis on connecting form and meaning, which correlates with what Nation (2013) says about how vocabulary learning has different goals, and the goal will shape the design of the exercise. Not all exercises can focus on word form or context. To accomplish a well-rounded vocabulary, with both receptive and productive word knowledge, there has to be a variation of exercises that have different vocabulary learning goals. Through

matching activities and dictionary look-ups, learners are likely to pair form and meaning, and contribute to developing their receptive knowledge of a word.

Stages 10 is the only book that makes the learners explicitly aware that certain words might have different meanings. This is done through explicit vocabulary exercises that emphasise the fact that certain words have different meanings according to context. Example 3.2 in section 3.2.1.2 may serve as an illustration. For convenience, it is repeated in example 4.1 below:

Look up the word *relation* in a dictionary. Find at least three different meanings and write down example sentences.

Example 4.1: from Stages 10 (2015) p. 19

There are two exercises in *Stages 10* that emphasize that words might have different meanings according to context. In addition, *Stages 10* has four exercises that highlight synonyms and antonyms. In contrast, neither *Searching 10* nor *Voices in Time 3* have exercises that focus on polysemy, synonyms or antonyms. As mentioned in section 2.3.1, a word is versatile, and meaning can change according to the surrounding words. Collocational partners might shift when using a synonym, which again stresses the importance of presenting and using vocabulary in context (Flogenfeldt & Lund, 2016). By not including any exercises that focus on making the learners aware of the existence of synonyms, learners might fail to benefit from an efficient way of developing their writing skills.

4.1.3.2 Translation and dictionary use

Translation and dictionary use are generally the opposite of using the vocabulary in context. However, translation can be very useful in certain stages of language learning and in some situations (Prince, 1996, see section 2.3.1). When it comes to translation exercises, *Searching 10* has seven; *Stages 10* has three, while *Voices in Time 3* has none. Translation can be considered an efficient tool, especially with weaker learners (Prince, 1996, see section 2.3.1). In some of the exercises in *Searching 10*, where the learner is required to translate, there is focus on understanding the new vocabulary. For example, in exercise L2 from a “Focus on Language” section, p. 147 (see

example 4.2) the exercise recommends the learner to translate the idioms to explain why the idioms on the list mean what they do.

Try to explain why the idioms on the list mean what they do. It helps trying to translate them.

Example 4.2: exercise L2, p. 157 in Searching 10 (2008)

It is interesting to see the different approaches the different author(s) have taken. As mentioned above, *Voices in Time 3* does not have any exercises that require the learner to translate. In addition, all glossaries are with English explanations (see section 4.3.6). It is evident that the textbook writer is focused on only using the target language, and not the use of L1 translations. In *Searching 10*, on the other hand, 22% of the explicit vocabulary exercises require the learners to translate a word, expression, sentence or paragraph. However, according to Prince (1996), L1 translations might help learners to remember new words more successfully. By providing students with an L1 equivalent, the L2 words can be more easily associated and remembered for learners and especially in regards to weaker students (Prince 1996).

None of the three textbooks use dictionaries to a great extent. In most of the cases it is suggested as an additional source to find information if needed. *Voices in Time 3* only has one exercise that mentions using a dictionary, and the suggestion is to use it if one does not understand the vocabulary. Dictionary use is one way to ensure a link between form and meaning and will be further discussed in the next section.

4.1.3.3 Linking form and meaning

Linking form and meaning is essential to knowing a word. To be able to connect form and meaning, some exercises are more likely to create a linkage than others. Nation and Webb (2011) mention word cards, reading with glosses and looking up words in a dictionary as activities that are likely to promote the linkage (see section 3.2.2.5).

Among the three textbooks, *Voices in Time 3* is the one with the highest percentage of exercises that are likely to link form and meaning, with 53%. *Searching 10* has a percentage of 44%, while in *Stages 10*, 29% of the explicit vocabulary exercises are likely to ‘guarantee’ a linkage. One of the reasons for the high number of linking exercises in *Voices in Time 3* might be because of the number of explaining exercises.

There are several exercises in the textbook that require the learners to explain words, see example 4.3 below:

- Read the Basic-text on p. 149 in TB.
- a) Find out what these words mean: *allowance*, *doubt*.
 - b) Which words in the poem says [*sic*] that you should not lie?

Example 4.3: Exercise B1, from Voices in Time 3 (2008), p. 155

When exercises require the students to explain a word, learners are likely to comprehend the meaning and see how the word is spelled. However, learners do not get to use the word in context or see it in different situations or with its collocations. As a result, exercises that involve the learners to explain might not always be sufficient enough. Nonetheless, it is a very efficient way to connect meaning and form, and a useful tool in vocabulary learning, especially in combination with other exercises (Nation, 2013). In example 4.3, learners are required to explain vocabulary that are introduced in a poem from the textbook, and therefore get the opportunity to first see the words in context. This is a way to expand the exercise from only explaining, and in addition, see it used in a meaningful context.

Stages 10 has a lower percentage of exercises that link form and meaning, which might be a result of the amount of productive exercises (see section 4.1.4 below). A tendency in the three textbooks is that exercises that focus on linking word and meaning are receptive, and are often combined with other receptive exercises. The textbook writers of *Stages 10* seem to have more focus on productive exercises than the other textbook writers, and therefore the focus shifts from explaining words to using them in context.

4.1.3.4 Decision-making

Decision-making exercises seem to be relatively popular in the three textbooks (see section 3.2.1). All three textbooks include four of the five different types of activities. Of the five activities, identifying is the most frequent one. Even though identifying is considered the least cognitively demanding activity, it is mapped several times due to gap-fills when listening or reading a text. *Searching 10* is the textbook with the highest percentage of identifying exercises. 28% of all explicit vocabulary exercises

require the learner to identify a word from a text or a recorded text. Exercises that require the learners to fill in words while listening to a text, gives learners the opportunity to hear new vocabulary in a meaningful context. Even though several of the identifying exercises can be considered productive, as learners have to fill in words, learners do not get the chance to draw on their mental lexicon or produce the context themselves (see section 2.3.3). As a result, there is no guarantee that students connect meaning and form in identifying exercises.

Selection is not widely used in the three textbooks, but it does occur. *Stages 10* has the highest percentage, with 15% of selection exercises. These are exercises where learners have to select certain words from a text or record. The learners then might use these words to retell the story to other pupils or just compare the words they selected. Selection tasks are a way of “consolidating word knowledge” (Flogenfeldt & Lund, 2016, p. 84), and are more challenging than identification exercises.

Matching activities are also a frequent exercise in the three textbooks, especially in *Stages 10* and *Voices in Time 3*. Two of the matching activities in *Stages 10* are combined with a gap-fill exercise (see example 4.4 in section 4.2.1). By combining the two activities, the textbook writers have required the student to first match the vocabulary with its meaning, and then to use the words in a meaningful context. This combination seems to be relatively efficient, as it gives the learners an opportunity to first learn the form and meaning, and then see it in context. The design of the exercises also matches the recommended exercises by Decarrico (2001) and Nation (2013) mentioned in section 2.3.2.3. In addition, it gives the learner an opportunity to repeat the vocabulary. As mentioned in section 2.3.3, repetition is crucial when it comes to vocabulary learning (Nation, 2014).

In regards to sorting, there is a relatively big difference between the three textbooks. *Stages 10* has zero sorting exercises, while *Voices in Time 3* has 14. That makes up 30% of all explicit vocabulary exercises in *Voices in Time 3*. The reason for the high number of sorting exercises is that learners are required to make a Word Wall several times throughout the workbook. When creating a Word Wall, learners need to categorise the relevant words into one or several sections in the Word Wall, depending on the design of the exercise. According to Pihlstrøm (2013), making a list with words and phrases the students associate or want to learn about the topic, like a Word Wall, “enables the students to build a cognitive bridge to connect the

knowledge and vocabulary he already knows with the vocabulary required in the curriculum” (p. 15).

There is only one exercise that can be considered a ranking and sequencing exercise in the three textbooks. Ranking and sequencing is the most cognitively challenging decision-making task, as learners usually have to make decisions based on personal opinions or according to the criteria set by the exercise (Flogenfeldt & Lund, 2016). It is an efficient way to get learners to understand vocabulary and to remember it through personal decisions. In the analysis, *Stages 10* is the only textbook with this type of exercise (see example 4.5 in section 4.2.3). Overall, there are few exercises where the learners have the opportunity to express a personal opinion in vocabulary exercises. There are several exercises where learners can make decisions and choose the vocabulary they want to learn, but almost none where personal opinions or feelings are required.

Decision-making exercises are a way to “solidifying the existing webs of words in the learners’ brains” (Flogenfeldt & Lund, 2016). They contribute to help the learners organise words, and to give them cognitive work in vocabulary learning, which give the potential to improve learners’ memory of new words (Flogenfeldt & Lund, 2016). Thornbury (2002) explains how the decision-making exercises are mostly receptive. However, the exercises in the three textbooks are often combined with another activity, and are rarely the only requirement in an exercise. As a result of the combining exercises, some are also mapped as productive.

4.1.3.5 Multi-word units

Since the qualitative analysis of this thesis is based on multi-word units, I will not go into detail about such units in this section. However, I will mention that all three books have a limited number of exercises that only focused or highlighted the importance of how resourceful multi-word units can be. *Searching 10* has two exercises that indicated a focus on multi-word units, *Stages 10* has four and *Voices in Time 3* has three. See section 4.2 for more information and results.

4.1.3.6 Word formation

Word formation processes can be very useful tools when it comes to “either productive use or receptive comprehension of vocabulary” (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 81). Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2000) further explain that mastery of word

formation processes will lead to “native-like productive lexical knowledge” (p. 81). However, in the three textbooks, it does not seem to be a priority for the textbook writers to include exercises that focus on productive processes of word formation. When it comes to compounding, none of the textbooks contain any exercise that focus on making the learner aware of it. By not including any exercises that make the learners aware of how compounding works, might make the learners less prepared for meeting new words in new contexts.

Affixation on the other hand, is included in the explicit vocabulary exercises in two of the three textbooks. *Searching 10* and *Stages 10* each have included at least one exercise that focuses on affixes. In *Searching 10*, the exercise is a “Focus on language” section, and therefore has two pages dedicated to the topic. *Voices in Time 3* does not have any exercises that focus on affixation. By not including any exercises about affixation, the learners are less likely to be aware of the influence affixation can have on their language. As affixation can create new words, it might help learners comprehend vocabulary they might not know otherwise. Affixation can be used as mnemonic items (Nation, 2013): if the learners know what the prefix *un-* indicates, they are more likely to remember the meaning of *unhappy* or *unattractive*. Learners can help connect new vocabulary by “relating them to the meanings of the known parts they contain” (Nation, 2013, p. 390). That relation will most likely not happen if the learners are not made aware of their existence. In addition, word families consist of the root of a word, its inflective and its closely related derivative forms (Nation, 2013, see section 2.1.1). To be able to really know a word, learners could take advantage of knowing the whole word family. However, word families are not mentioned by any of the three EFL textbooks. None of the three textbooks makes the learners aware of the connection certain words have, and how they are connected. As mentioned in section 2.1.1, awareness of how word families are related to each other can make learning and expanding the students’ vocabulary easier (Flogenfeldt & Lund, 2016).

There is only one exercise in the three textbooks that touch upon conversion. Exercise B1 on page 64 in *Voices in Time 3*, does not really mention conversion in the description of the exercise, however, it requires the learner to read a text from the textbook and explain two words: ‘bling’ and ‘cred’. To be able to explain these two words, the students have to read a text by D. Crystal, where he mentions that ‘cred’ started as an adjective use, but that it is mainly used as a noun today (*Voices in Time*

3, 2008, p. 24). It can be discussed if this count as an exercise that focuses on conversion, but it does explain for the learners the dynamic nature of language. As mentioned in section 2.1.1, a language's vocabulary is always changing, and conversion is one example of how the users of a language change it. This is the only exercise that involves any focus on conversion at all in the three EFL textbooks. A lack of conversion exercises has a similar effect as the lack of compounding exercises: it might make learners less prepared when they meet new words. If learners know that a word can change word class, without adding other elements, and they encounter a word they know as a noun but is used as a verb, it may make it easier to understand the meaning and context of that word.

4.1.3.7 Repetition

Repetition is a part of the criteria, as it is crucial when it comes to remembering new vocabulary (see section 2.3.3). Examples of repetition include dictionary look-ups, unassisted retrieval or opportunities for using the vocabulary in different contexts (Nation, 2014). In the three textbooks, there are different degrees of focus on repetition and retrieval. *Searching 10* does not have any explicit vocabulary exercises that require the students to repeat vocabulary in one exercise. *Stages 10*, on the other hand, has eight exercises, while *Voices in Time 3* has 11. In these exercises, the learner is required to use the new vocabulary, or meet the vocabulary in a different context, at least twice¹. As the three textbooks vary in number of exercises, it might give an indication of how relevant the textbook writers see repetition. Yet, it might also indicate how much textbooks and students are required to get through in a year, and as a result, repetition is not prioritized in textbooks. Nonetheless, textbooks often set the standard of classroom activities (see section 1.2.1) and it might therefore be practical to include repetition activities in the textbooks.

4.1.4 Receptive and productive word knowledge

As mentioned in sections 2.1.1 and 3.2.1, receptive and productive knowledge is essential to really know a word. According to Nation (2013), one has receptive and

¹ As mentioned in section 1.1, the focus is on explicit vocabulary exercises, and I have therefore not examined the texts in the three textbooks. As a result, vocabulary might have been introduced in the texts related to an exercise. However, vocabulary should be repeated more than twice, and consequently, the criterion has been included in the thesis.

productive word knowledge when it comes to form, meaning and use of a word (see table 2.1). In the three textbooks, there are some differences in the amount of exercises that focus on either receptive or productive knowledge. In the analysis, some exercises were both receptive and productive. These exercises have been counted as productive since that was most often the final requirement in an exercise. The results of the analysis can be seen in table 4.3 below:

Table 4.3

Number of receptive and productive explicit vocabulary exercises

	Receptive		Productive	
	n	%	n	%
<i>Searching 10</i>	21	66	11	34
<i>Stages 10</i>	17	50	17	50
<i>Voices in Time 3</i>	35	74	12	26

Heading abbreviations for table 4.3:

- n Frequency
- % Percentage out of all explicit vocabulary exercises

Nation (2013) explains how a person's receptive vocabulary usually is bigger than the productive one, and to develop receptive or productive knowledge, one needs to have exercises that focus on either one (see section 2.1.1). In table 4.3, one can see that there are differences in the amount of productive and receptive vocabulary exercises in the three textbooks. *Stages 10* stands out as the only textbook with 50 % receptive and 50% productive vocabulary exercises. On the other hand, *Voices in Time 3* has 74% explicit vocabulary exercises that focus on receptive knowledge of a word, and only 26% productive. *Searching 10* has a more even distribution of productive and receptive word knowledge exercises than *Voices in Time 3*, but there is still an overweight of receptive vocabulary exercises. The findings from *Searching 10* and *Voices in Time 3* are in agreement with Nation's (2013) claim that receptive word knowledge is more often worked with explicitly than productive vocabulary knowledge.

It is evident that there are more exercises that focus on receptive vocabulary knowledge compared to productive vocabulary knowledge. Productive exercises that are reoccurring most frequently in the three textbooks are gap-fills and creation of

new sentences. Especially in *Searching 10* and *Stages 10* are completion exercises the most common productive vocabulary exercise. In *Voices in Time 3*, on the other hand, there are no gap-fills, but rather creation exercises (see section 3.2.1). When it comes to receptive exercises, the most frequent ones in the three textbooks are translation, matching and dictionary/explain vocabulary. In addition, in *Voices in Time 3*, one of the most frequent receptive exercises is to make a Word Wall (see section 4.1.2).

It is interesting to see how different the three textbooks are when it comes to the distribution of receptive and productive explicit vocabulary exercises. It is not possible to conclude on why the textbook writers have included the exercises they have, but it is evident that they have focused on different areas.

4.1.5 General discussion of the quantitative analysis

When looking at the results from the quantitative analysis, there are evident differences in how the textbook writers have designed their books. Nevertheless, there are also many similarities. For instance, none of the textbooks rely on dictionary use to a great extent. They all include decision-making exercises, some more than others. However, there are also differences. The criterion *word meaning* is only mapped in one textbook, *Stages 10*, and there it occurs six times. Word meaning includes focus on polysemy, synonyms and antonyms, and the fact that none of the other textbooks included any exercises that drew attention to it, was surprising. Since polysemy, synonyms and antonyms are central parts of knowing a word, I thought there would be more exercises included that mentioned these aspects of word knowledge. As mentioned in section 2.3.1, a word can have different meanings according to the vocabulary it co-occurs with, and synonyms can have different collocational partners (Flogenfeldt & Lund, 2016). It is therefore relevant to make learners aware of such differences in collocations and meaning.

The number of exercises that require the students to translate is also diverse: *Voices in Time 3* does not have any vocabulary translation exercises, while *Searching 10* has seven. In general, *Voices in Time 3* does not use linkage to L1 at all, and this can also be reflected in the limited use of dictionary. However, the textbook also uses several exercises where it requires the learners to explain words or expressions. Even though the author of *Voices in Time 3* does limit translation and dictionary use, the exercises are designed to require the learners to make own wordlists in English. The

criteria linking form and meaning, affixes and repetition also have some differences in the three textbooks.

Another interesting finding, is how none of the explicit vocabulary exercises have included work with corpus. Corpus is not mentioned at all in any of the three EFL textbooks, and does not seem to be something that the textbook authors have considered. As mentioned in section 2.3.4, different corpora can contribute to students seeing how a target word can be used, or students can use corpus to find examples of polysemous words and their different meanings (Hasselgård, 2014). Since corpus is considered such a useful tool in vocabulary learning today, it was noteworthy to see that it was not mentioned at all in the three textbooks. However, the lack of corpus correlates with Burton (2012). He states that several textbooks today do not use corpora due to the lack of demand, as teachers, school administrators and policy makers do not request corpus findings in textbooks, and as a result, there is no motivation for publisher to include it. This might be one reason for the lack of focus on corpus in the three analysed EFL textbooks.

To sum up, the tendency seems to be that *Stages 10* has a more varied spectre of exercises, compared to the other two. *Voices in Time 3* has a many explicit vocabulary exercises, but tend to repeat the same ones, like Word Wall, sorting exercises and Loop. *Searching 10* on the other hand, fits in between the two other textbooks: less exercises, but relatively varied in the exercises it provides. The two main focuses of the textbook authors seem to be on context and linking form and meaning. The two criteria have a relatively high percentage compared to the other criteria, and correlate with several of the vocabulary research discussed in chapter 2. Nation (2013) stresses the importance of linking form and meaning throughout his book. He explains how to really know a word one has to know its form, meaning and use (Nation, 2013). When it comes to context, Beheydt (1987) explains how it is virtually impossible to determine the meaning of an isolated word. To fully comprehend the meaning, one needs to see the word in context and with its collocations.

In this section of the chapter the quantitative analysis has been presented and discussed. In the following section, the results from the qualitative analysis will be presented and discussed in light of theory from chapter 2.

4.2 The Qualitative Analysis

In the quantitative analysis above, an overview of the different explicit vocabulary exercises was presented. In this section of the chapter, I will look at how the exercises are designed. As mentioned in section 3.2.2, it would not be possible to analyse every explicit vocabulary exercise in the three textbooks. Consequently, I have narrowed it down by analysing the exercises that focus on multi-word units. First the results from the TFA will be presented, with a following discussion of each criterion in the analysis. Then the findings from the TFA will be elaborated in light of what kind of exercises are included, and multi-word units. As mentioned in section 3.2.2, the qualitative findings will have traits of a quantitative analysis. Numbers and tables have been used to present the findings from the qualitative analysis, since it makes it easier to present and compare the analysed exercises.

In section 3.2.2, Nation and Webb's (2011) TFA is explained. The analysis is used on each exercise assessed. By using the analysis, it will give a general overview of the exercise, and what it requires of the learner.

4.2.1 The technique feature analysis

The three textbooks include different numbers of exercises that focus on multi-word units. In *Searching 10* there are two exercises. In *Stages 10* there are four exercises and in *Voices in Time 3* there are six exercises that focus on multi-word units. However, in *Voices in Time 3*, three of the explicit vocabulary exercises that focus on multi-word units, require the use of the website and additional handouts. These three exercises are therefore excluded in both analyses, as the main goal of the present study is to look at the textbooks and workbook, and not the websites. The findings from the analysis are:

Table 4.4

The results from the TFA

<i>Searching 10</i>	<i>Stages 10</i>	<i>Voices in Time 3</i>
11	8	8
11	11	12
	12	11
	7	

From table 4.4, one can see that the scores range from 7 to 12 points out of 18 possible. As mentioned in section 3.2.2, the design of an exercise typically decides the “quality of the learning outcomes” (Nation & Webb, 2011, p. 4). The analysis therefore gives an indication of how well an exercise is constructed and how efficient it is for language learning (see section 4.3.1). The higher the score an exercise achieves, the more processing is accomplished and more successful learning is achieved (Nation and Webb, 2011).

In Table 4.5 below, the scores on each criterion is presented by textbook and a total score. By presenting it in a table, one can see what criterion has been mapped in each exercise and which criterion the textbook authors have not prioritized when they designed explicit vocabulary exercises.

Table 4.5

Findings from the TFA

Criteria	<i>Searching 10</i>	<i>Stages 10</i>	<i>Voices in Time 3</i>	Total
Is there a clear vocabulary learning goal?	2	4	3	9
Does the activity motivate learning?	2	2	1	5
Do the learners select the words?	2	2	2	6
Does the activity focus attention on the target words?	2	4	3	9
Does the activity raise	2	3	2	7

awareness of new vocabulary learning?				
Does the activity involve negotiation?	1	1	3	5
Does the activity involve retrieval of the word?	1	4	3	8
Is it productive retrieval?	0	1	2	3
Is it recall?	0	1	3	4
Are there multiple retrievals of each word?	0	2	0	2
Is there spacing between retrievals?	0	2	0	2
Does the activity involve creative use?	2	3	2	7
Is it productive?	2	2	2	6
Is there a marked change that involves the use of other words?	2	1	2	5
Does the activity ensure successful linking of form and meaning?	1	3	0	4
Does the activity involve instantiation?	2	0	0	2
Does the activity involve imaging?	0	1	1	2
Does the activity avoid interference?	1	2	2	5

The findings will be discussed below. First an exercise will be used as an example of how the analysis was performed. To present the TFA and the process of evaluating the exercises, one exercise was chosen. The exercise with the highest score was considered the most appropriate one, as it represents what is considered more efficient when it comes to vocabulary acquisition than the exercises with a lower score. There are two exercises that score 12 points, one from *Stages 10* and one from *Voices in Time 3*. To illustrate how the analysis was conducted, exercise 8 on page 82 in *Stages 10* was chosen by random between the two exercises.

8a) Match the phrasal verb with its Norwegian translation	
Speak out	Møte tilfeldig
Believe in	Vekse opp
Grow up	Skunde seg
Look after	Tru på
Run into	Passe på, ta vare på
Put off	Utsette
Keep up	Si meininga si
Hurry up	Fortsette
8b) Use the correct phrasal verb from task a in the sentences below. Use correct phrasal verb once.	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ram ____ without parents. 2. Don't ____ until tomorrow what you can do today. 3. ____ or we will miss the demonstration! 4. We should all ____ against justice. 5. I ____ an old friend in Mumbai. 6. ____ the good work! 7. Tom's wife had to ____ their sons while he was away. 8. Gandhi ____ an independent India. 	

Example 4.4: from Stages 10, p. 82

According to the TFA, the exercise scores 12 points, see table 4.6 below:

Table 4.6

Technique feature analysis of exercise 8, page 82

Criteria	Score	Comment
Is there a clear vocabulary learning goal?	1	Yes
Does the activity motivate learning?	1	Yes
Do the learners select the words?	0	No, the target words are given
Does the activity focus attention on the target words?	1	Yes
Does the activity raise awareness of new vocabulary learning?	1	Yes
Does the activity involve negotiation?	0	No
Does the activity involve retrieval of the word?	1	Yes, have to use the target words in 8b
Is it productive retrieval?	0	No, the target words are provided.
Is it recall?	0	No, target words are provided
Are there multiple retrievals of each word?	1	Yes, first you match the target words, and then you use it in a

		sentence.
Is there spacing between retrievals?	1	Yes, on a word level
Does the activity involve generative use?	1	Yes, fill in blanks in original sentences
Is it productive?	1	Yes, there are small changes in form
Is there a marked change that involves the use of other words?	1	Yes, small inflectional changes
Does the activity ensure successful linking of form and meaning?	1	Yes, through a matching exercise
Does the activity involve instantiation?	0	No, the learner has to fill in the word, and there are no examples.
Does the activity involve imaging?	0	No
Does the activity avoid interference?	1	Yes
Total score	12	

The exercise provides the students with a combination of tasks. First, they need to match the correct phrasal verb with its Norwegian translation, and second, use the phrasal verbs in a closed gap-fill. When analysing the exercise according to the TFA, each point is evaluated and given zero or one point. The next section of this chapter will go through each sub-heading in the analysis and discuss the results of all nine exercises.

4.2.1.1 Motivation

The nine analysed exercises all have a relatively clear vocabulary learning goal. As mentioned in section 3.2.2.1, by having a clear goal the exercises are more likely to motivate learners (Nation & Webb, 2011). A motivational exercise is more inclined to be an efficient device in vocabulary learning, and the results show that five out of nine exercises gets a point for motivating learning. These five exercises correlate with Nation and Webb's (2011) motivational activities (see section 3.2.2.1), as they are either matching activities, raise awareness of successful learning or is a new challenge for learners. All these activities are more likely to raise motivation than other vocabulary exercises.

Another factor that might contribute to create an interest in vocabulary learning for students is if the learners get to choose the target words themselves. Among the nine exercises, six require the learners to select the words to learn. In Laufer and Hulstijn's (2001) Involvement Load Hypothesis, they differ between a *moderate* and *strong* degree of need. In this case, where the exercises require the

learners to select words, there is a *moderate* degree of need. The learners are potentially more inspired to learn when they can choose the target vocabulary themselves, but they are still told that they have to pick words. However, it is still more likely to motivate the learner when they have a choice, rather than being told exactly which words to learn.

4.2.1.2 Noticing

When it comes to noticing, all nine exercises get a point on the criterion that require the exercise to focus attention on the target words. This is achieved in various ways, like bolding the target words or through “instructions that require the learners to pay attention to the words when completing the activity” (Nation & Webb, 2011, p. 8). By giving attention to the target words, the exercise increases the potential for vocabulary learning. The learners are then aware of which words are relevant and the focus of the exercise.

However, raising awareness does not guarantee vocabulary learning. As mentioned in section 3.2.2.2, the students also need to see why it might be relevant to learn the target words. Seven of the nine exercises accomplish this: two from *Searching 10*, three from *Stages 10* and two from *Voices in Time 3*. The exercises achieve this by providing the learners with the target words in context or by having them selecting the target words among other words. By not raising awareness, the learners might not see the relevance in what they are required to work with and eventually learn. If learners do not see the relevance, they are less likely to be motivated and remember the new vocabulary.

As discussed in section 3.2.2.2, negotiation is inclined to contribute to learners remembering new vocabulary. Among the analysed exercises, five require the students to work in pairs or groups. Of these five, one is in *Searching 10* and one in *Stages 10*, while all analysed exercises from *Voices in Time 3* require the learners to work with other pupils. Nation (2013) discusses how several vocabulary researches show that negotiated words have a bigger chance of being learned than non-negotiated ones. He refers to Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki (1994) and Newton (2013) in particular (in Nation, 2013). In addition, research has found that learners observing negotiation can learn as much as the learners who do the actual negotiation (Nation, 2013).

4.2.1.3 Retrieval

As mentioned in section 3.2.2.3, retrieval is essential to be able to remember new vocabulary. Eight of the analysed exercises involve retrieval to a certain extent. In several of the exercises, learners need to retrieve or match form and meaning and/or use it in a new context. Even though both form and meaning are given in some of the exercises, they require the learner to retrieve different derivations of the word. However, only three of the exercises include productive retrieval. Three exercises, one from *Stages 10* and two from *Voices in Time 3*, require the learners to retrieve and produce new vocabulary. Productive retrieval is more challenging than receptive retrieval, and might therefore be considered to be even more efficient when it comes to remembering a word.

Four of the nine exercises get a point for including recall. Recall is when learners have to retrieve both form and meaning from memory. Three of the four exercises are from *Voices in Time 3*, and one from *Stages 10*. Another crucial part of language learning is repeating. As mentioned in section 2.3.3, a word will need several retrievals to be remembered, and every successful retrieval will assist the students with learning new vocabulary (Nation and Webb, 2011). Of the analysed exercises, two includes several retrievals of the target vocabulary. Both of these are found in *Stages 10*. One of these is example 4.4 above and the other has the same design (see exercise 3, p. 32 in appendix A). The exercises require the students to first match and then use the phrasal verbs. As a result of the combination of tasks, the learners have to use the verbs twice. Since the order of the target words is not in the same order in A and B, there is some spacing between the different phrasal verbs. The spacing can contribute to students remembering the words better than they would have if there were no spacing in-between the words (see section 3.2.2.3). In addition, as the exercises are divided in two sections, the spacing between the target words also provides a different context for the vocabulary.

4.2.1.4 Creative Use

By meeting a word in a new way, learners are more likely to remember new vocabulary (see section 2.3.3 and 3.2.2.4). Seven of the analysed exercises are designed in a way where the learners meet the target vocabulary in a new context. The only exceptions are one exercise from *Stages 10* (exercise 3, p. 27) and one from *Voices in Time 3* (exercise A1, p. 85). In these two exercises, the learners have to list

or explain words, but do not use or see them in context. The remaining seven get one point through presenting words in a new context, or through creation and completion exercises. Since two of the exercises do not present or use words in context, it can be discussed if they are efficient as vocabulary learning exercises compared to the other seven. However, one can hardly judge an exercise with one out of eighteen different criteria, but, as mentioned in section 2.3.1 and 2.3.3, context is an important part of learning a word and remembering it. Nevertheless, as Nation (2013) discusses: different exercises have different goals, and the main goal of the two exercises, which do not include focus on context, is most likely to connect form and meaning.

Six of the analysed exercises can be considered productive. They are productive through sentence production or completing a gap-fill. In this instance, there are more productive exercises among the nine, than receptive. This does not agree with Nation's (2013) claim that receptive vocabulary gets more practice (see section 2.1.1). He states that learners' receptive vocabulary knowledge is broader than their productive, and this is because receptive use usually gets more practice. But in the nine analysed exercises, productive learning is central in a majority of the exercises.

Out of the six productive exercises, five include a *marked change that involves the use of other words*. As mentioned in section 3.2.2.4, it can occur in different degrees. Of the analysed exercises, four contain sentence production, which indicates a high generation. The last one is example 4.4, where the gap-fill includes inflectional changes to the words. In this exercise, the generation is low (see section 3.2.2.4), as there are small inflectional changes, however it is enough to get a point in the TFA.

4.2.1.5 Retention

Of the nine analysed exercises, four ensure successful linking of form and meaning. This is achieved through matching activities and dictionary look-ups. In addition, exercise L1, which is a part of a "Focus on Language" section, p. 146 in *Stages 10*, gives an explanation of each idiom in the description of the exercise. If one looks at example 4.4 above, 8B does not ensure linking with gap-fills. However, as it is combined with 8A, a matching activity, linking is more likely to happen. Nation (2013) stresses the importance of linking form and meaning, see section 2.1.1, and indicates that to know a word one needs to know its form, meaning and use.

When it comes to instantiation, of the analysed exercises, only *Searching 10* has included examples of this. In the two exercises analysed, the target words are presented in a meaningful context for the learners before they complete the exercise. The learners get to see the words in genuine examples and this might contribute to understanding and to remembering the words. However, it is relevant to mention that in both cases, the exercises were a part of a “Focus on Language” section, and that the section covers two pages with focus only on the target topic.

Two of the nine exercises involve imaging: one from *Stages 10* and one from *Voices in Time 3*. These exercises provide the learners with tables or lists of words that might make it easier for learners to remember and retrieve the words at later occasions.

When it comes to avoiding interference, five of the analysed exercises accomplish this. An example of avoiding interference can be seen in example 4.4 above. Even though the target words are all phrasal verbs, the activity avoids interference, since the meaning does not interfere. However, this can be discussed, as the phrasal verbs are so similar in how they are constructed. With a verb + adverb/verb + preposition it might lead to confusion for language learners. Even though it is a marginal one, the exercise gets a point, since meaning is not overlapping.

This section of the chapter illustrates the results of the TFA. All exercises and their individual analysis have been included in Appendix A.

4.2.2 Exercises included

The exercises are constructed differently and based on varied activities. Among the nine exercises the following activities are included: matching, explaining and/or discussing, Word Wall, sentence production/reproduction, dictionary use, ranking and sequencing and gap-filling. The results show that the author(s) have used different activities to promote multi-word units and confirms the idea that there are different ways to teach vocabulary. Since there are a limited number of exercises that focus on multi-word units, one cannot discuss tendencies in each book. However, one can see inclinations to a certain degree in the different books of what the author(s) have preferred to include.

The two exercises included in *Searching 10* are both “Focus on Language” exercises. Since these sections go over two pages, only the first exercise, L1, has been analysed in both cases. L1 on page 24 requires the learners to work in pairs and use the expressions given above the exercise to create ten new sentences each. L1 on page 146 requires the learner to create ten new sentences using the idioms given above the exercise.

The four exercises in *Stages 10* vary in design. Exercise 3 on page 27 requires the learners to look up synonyms. Exercises 3 (p. 32) and 8 (p. 82), both require the learner to first match the target words and then use them in gap-fills. The last exercise analysed in *Stages 10* is exercise 8 on page 264. That exercise requires the learner, in pairs, to use the provided lexical phrases to answer two questions.

Two out of the three exercises in *Voices in Time 3* are designed in the same manner. The two exercises require the learners, in groups, to explain an idiom (referred to as an expression in exercise A3, p. 105), followed by the requirement of creating two more idioms relating to the topic of the section. The last exercise is designed to make the learner create a Word Wall (see section 4.1.2) with other students. The Word Wall should contain words that explain the given idiom.

The combination of exercises analysed in the three textbooks illustrates some variation and some similarities. An evident similarity is that five out of the nine exercises require the learners to work in pairs or groups. By working in pairs or groups there might be a bigger chance for negotiation and a discussion about the target word and its meaning. According to Nation and Webb (2011), words that are negotiated, have a greater chance of being learned (see section 3.3.2 and 4.2.1.2). Pair and group work also has an important role in CLT. Activities or exercises that require students to work in pairs are an efficient way to develop the students’ communicative skills (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Group work also gives the opportunity for learners to practice reading the situation and gives the exercise and exchange a purpose (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

When looking at the TFA, the score goes from eight to 12 out of eighteen. As one can see from the results in table 4.4, all three books have both low and high scores. When calculating the average of the scores, there are some differences. *Searching 10* scores an average of 11, *Stages 10* 9.25 and *Voices in Time 3* have an average of 10.33. The scores confirm the idea that there is not one correct way to teach vocabulary. Even though the three textbooks all have a variety of exercises and

different scores on the individual exercises, they end up with a relatively similar average on the TFA.

Stages 10 is the book that has the most variety in the design of the exercises of the three books. The four exercises cover five different activities, while *Searching 10*'s two exercises cover one and *Voices in Time 3*'s three exercises cover three different activities. By having a variety of activities, the students are more likely to be motivated, and by being motivated the learning is more likely to be successful (Nation & Webb, 2011). By achieving a high score on the TFA, it shows that the exercise has a high level of processing and is more likely an efficient vocabulary exercise (see section 3.3.2).

4.2.3 Multi-word units

In section 2.3.2, the importance of multi-word units is discussed. There are different types of multi-word units, and they differ in transferability and fixedness. In some of the exercises the description of the task makes it clear what multi-word units the exercise will focus on. However, this is not the case for every exercise. In four out of the nine exercises, the exercise description does not specify what kind of multi-word units the learners are required to learn. In the four exercises, it is apparent that multi-word units are in focus, but not always clear in the description what type the author(s) want the students to learn. Nonetheless, in the four exercises, the textbook writers give explicit attention to multi-word units without naming the specific expression. However, by not explicitly naming the expressions used, there might be a lack of raising awareness of the new vocabulary. By not making the learners aware of the importance the new vocabulary can have, it might influence the efficiency of the learning outcome (Nation & Webb, 2011).

In *Searching 10* the two exercises focus on lexical phrases and idioms. In *Stages 10* the four exercises focus on idioms, phrasal verbs and two not specified. One of the not specified exercises can be considered to contain both phrasal verbs and collocations, see example 4.5 below:

3a How many words and expressions related to *looking at someone* can you think of? Use a dictionary and find more synonyms. Write a list.

Staring, ...

3b Place all your words and expressions on this scale:

Taking a very quick look ←-----→ looking intensely

Example 4.5: exercise 3, p. 27 from Stages 10

The main goal of the exercise in example 4.5 seems to be to learn synonyms to *looking at someone* to develop a broader vocabulary and writing skills. *Looking at* is a phrasal verb, however synonyms presented in 3b are collocations. Learners are most likely to find collocational synonyms, as there are few examples that describe *looking at someone* with only one word. The other non-specified exercise focuses on lexical phrases (exercise 8, p. 264 in appendix A). As a result, *Stages 10* is the only textbook that includes exercises where the focus is on phrasal verbs. In *Voices in Time 3*, the three exercises focus on idioms, where one is not specified (see exercise A3, p. 105 in appendix A).

It is evident from the results that the focus is on idioms among the different multi-word units in the three EFL textbooks. Out of the nine analysed exercises, five of them focus directly on idioms. When it comes to collocations, there are certain exercises that include collocations, however none of these make the learner aware or pay attention to the fact that certain words co-occur together (see section 3.2.2.6). Hodne's (2009) findings in her master thesis show that around 35% of isolated words in exercises are part of collocations in the texts that is connected to the exercises. This indicates that there are a relatively high number of collocations included in exercises and texts, however, as the findings in this thesis illustrates, there are few exercises that actually address the concept of collocations and makes the learner aware of their existence.

In general, it is evident that explicit learning of collocations has not been a priority for the authors of the three EFL textbooks. By not including any exercises that focus explicitly on collocations, the author(s) might miss out on an efficient way to teach students useful and relevant multi-word units. Even though students learn vocabulary implicitly through reading, see section 2.2, Nation's (2013) language-focused learning emphasises deliberate teaching of vocabulary. Collocations are

considered a significant part of learning a language (DeCarrico, 2001; Drew & Sørheim, 2016; Thornbury, 2002) and helps learners develop a more fluent language.

4.3 General Discussion

In this section, the discussion of the findings in the quantitative and qualitative analysis will be further elaborated in light of context, multi-word units, memory and teaching methods. It is divided into five sections that discuss the following: is there emphasis on presenting the new vocabulary in context, how does the exercises make sure that the learners remember the new vocabulary, receptive and productive word knowledge, how does the exercises reflect the present national curriculum and teaching methods.

4.3.1 Context

After analysing the explicit vocabulary exercises, the findings show that there is a difference in how the new vocabulary is presented. Some of the exercises present the new vocabulary in context or with examples, while others do not. In addition, the glossaries and wordlists in the textbooks vary to some degree.

4.3.1.1 Exercises and context

Eight out of the nine analysed exercises in the qualitative analysis have in common that they are all in English and require the students to explain/discuss/match the expressions etc. in English. Only one exercise, exercise 8 (see example 4.4 above), has included a Norwegian translation of the English phrasal verbs. One exercise directly requires the learners to use a dictionary (exercise 3, see example 4.5 above). When looking at these results, it seems that the EFL textbook author(s) encourage the students to use the new vocabulary in an English context, and not by translating or relying on an L1 equivalent.

However, the exercises do not always present the target words in context, as an example of how the words can be used. According to Nation and Webb (2011) it is important to see a word used “in a meaningful situation where the object, action, or quality referred to is visually present” (p. 10). If the learners get to see a new expression in a genuine situation, they are more likely to remember the words and be

able to use them in other situations. The exercises that do not have any examples or introduction with the target words, either introduces the words before the exercise or require the students to explain the expressions.

As discussed in the quantitative analysis (see section 4.1.3.1), there are a high number of exercises that present, or require the learners to use words in context. The same can be seen in the findings in the qualitative analysis. Seven of the nine analysed exercises focus on getting the learner to see or use the new vocabulary in a meaningful situation. The two exceptions are one from *Voices in Time 3* and one from *Stages 10*. Both these exercises require the learners to find words or expressions that describe the given multi-word unit or synonyms. When it comes to presenting, or requiring the learners to use vocabulary, in context, the two analyses illustrate the same findings. It is evident that the textbook authors of the three books have put emphasis on using the target language in context. This is in agreement of CLT, where the goal is to use the target language. To be able to communicate, learners need to know how to use the words in context.

4.3.1.2 Glossaries and wordlists

When examining the vocabulary exercises in the three textbooks, it was interesting to look at the glossaries and wordlists at the same time. Analysing glossaries is extensive work, and to narrow it down, I chose to look at what types of glossaries and wordlists that are included in the three textbooks. Many EFL textbooks today focus on having authentic texts and glossaries that coincide. This is a popular method in Norwegian textbooks, and several textbooks for Year 10 have texts that include a glossary next to the texts (*Crossroads 10A*, *Searching 10*, *Stages 10*, *Voices in Time 3*). The glossaries can be used to provide students with meaning, grammatical information or background information (Nation, 2013). By including texts with glossaries, textbook writers combine reading and glossing.

Looking at section 2.3, there is some debate on what kind of glossaries to include, if it should be a monolingual one, or a bilingual one. In the three textbooks, both a bilingual and a monolingual glossary have been included. *Searching 10* has a bilingual wordlist and bilingual glossaries next to the texts. *Stages 10* has bilingual glossaries, and no wordlist included at all. *Voices in Time 3* on the other hand, has monolingual glossaries, but a bilingual wordlist at the end of the textbook. The fact that the three books have a variation of bilingual and monolingual glossaries and

bilingual dictionaries, runs contrary to what seems as a consensus among researchers that it depends on the level the language learner is at (see section 2.3.1). All three textbooks are written for Year 10, but they still have differences. This indicates that textbook writers in Norway do not necessarily follow the same research when it comes to glossaries and wordlists. It might also indicate that they believe that the students are at different levels of language learning, and therefore choose to include different glossaries or wordlists.

It is problematic to try to understand why the textbook authors have included different glossaries, but one reason might be found by looking at a specific teaching method. For instance, in the Direct Method, there was emphasis on using the target language at all times (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In *Voices in Time 3*, there is a clear focus on only using the target language, as can be seen in both the quantitative and the qualitative analysis. In the quantitative analysis, the findings show that the textbook has no translation exercises and only one that encourages dictionary use. In the dictionary exercise, it is not specified what type of dictionary. In addition, the glossary is monolingual. On the other hand, *Voices in Time 3*, does include a bilingual dictionary at the end of the textbook. Again, the findings do not correlate with any apparent theory or approach, as, especially *Voices in Time 3* illustrates.

4.3.2 Memory

To remember new vocabulary, it is important to repeat the new words, as it is not enough to hear it once. As mentioned in section 2.2.3, research shows that during the 24 hours of initial learning, up to 80% of the material is forgotten (Thornbury, 2002). For language learners, it is important to get to work with, and repeat, a word to be able to retrieve it at later occasions. According to Nation (2014), there is a clear connection between repetition and vocabulary learning. To be able to learn and reproduce new words, learners have to encounter the words several times, and preferably in different contexts. However, in both the quantitative and qualitative analyses the findings show a great variation in number of exercises that require the students to repeat a word or expression. As mentioned in section 4.1.3.7, *Searching 10* does not include any exercises that involve repetition, *Stages 10* has eight, and *Voices in Time 3* has 11. In the nine analysed exercises, only two give the learners the opportunity to repeat the target words. Both exercises are from *Stages 10*, and, as seen

in example 4.4, are a combination of a matching activity and a completion activity. After requiring the students to link form and meaning, the learners get to use the words in context, and see how they can be used in sentences. As a result, the students get the opportunity to connect meaning and form, in addition to see how it can be used in a meaningful situation in the same exercise. These findings indicate that repetition has generally not been prioritised among the textbook authors.

Section 2.2.3 mentioned different ways to make sure that the students remember new vocabulary. Among these suggestions, are Thornbury's (2002) decision-making activities. He divides it into five sub-groups: see section 2.2.3. Decision-making activities can be found in both the quantitative and qualitative analysis. In the qualitative analysis, decision-making exercises are found in seven of the nine analysed exercises. The two exercises that do not include any decision-making activities are from *Voices in Time 3*, where the learners have to create new sentences. The remaining seven are distributed as follows: three selection activities (*Searching 10* and *Stages 10*), two matching activities (*Stages 10*), one sorting (*Voices in Time 3*) and one ranking and sequence (*Stages 10*). These activities are mostly receptive, however, in the textbooks they are often combined with other activities. By adding another component in the exercise, and often a productive one, it is more likely that the students will remember the new vocabulary. By incorporating decision-making exercises in the textbooks, the students get to make decision about the target vocabulary, and hopefully be able to incorporate the vocabulary with their existing one. If that is achieved, the new vocabulary is more likely to move into long-term memory (DeCarrico, 2001, see section 2.3.3).

4.3.3 Productive and receptive exercises

In the qualitative analysis, there seems to be an emphasis among the textbook author(s) to make the learners use the new vocabulary. Out of the nine exercises, six are productive. The different exercises are productive through creation of new sentences using the target vocabulary, or by closed gap-fills. There is a clear focus to make the learners use the new language, which is an important and relevant part of language learning. By including exercises that require the students to use the language, their productive vocabulary might expand.

However, in the quantitative analysis the findings show that exercises that focus on receptive word knowledge are more common than focus on productive knowledge, see section 4.1.4. As mentioned in section 2.1.1, research has shown that most language learners have a bigger passive vocabulary than they do a productive one (Nation, 2013). Because of the findings in the quantitative analysis and general vocabulary research, it might be a coincidence that more than half of the exercises that focus on multi-word units emphasize productive word knowledge. Another circumstance might be that the author(s) sees the communicative value multi-word units have, and therefore wants to incorporate multi-word units in the learners' productive vocabulary as soon as possible. However, these are just speculations, as it is not possible from a textbook analysis to say what the textbook writers had in mind when designing the textbooks.

4.3.4. Teaching methods

When teaching a new language there are different approaches one can take. The writers of an EFL textbook are most likely inspired by different teaching methods, both consciously and sub-consciously, in addition to following the national curricula. In the exercises that were analysed it is a challenge to specifically identify if a certain teaching method or approach have inspired the design, especially due to the fact that the author(s) is most likely influenced by several teaching approaches. However, there are certain tendencies that can be recognised. When it comes to CLT, one can find several traits of the approach in the three EFL textbooks. There is, for example a tendency in the exercises to require the students to discuss the target words with other pupils. There is a focus on communication between students, which can be transferable to the outside world. These factors can be recognized as relevant and important in CLT, where the focus is to be able to communicate on an efficient level (see section 2.3.4). In addition, there is a definite focus among the textbook authors to present, or require the students to use, the vocabulary in context. However, there seems to be a lack of focus on word meaning, not in the sense that form and meaning is not linked, but that words can be polysemous, and that a word can have synonyms and antonyms. To achieve a coherent and clear understanding of a word, learners do need to be aware of its form, meaning and use (Nation, 2013), but they also need to be

aware of words that share a similar meaning with the target word, or words with opposite meanings (Thornbury, 2002).

The findings of the two analyses also confirm, to a certain extent, the idea that Norwegian EFL textbooks have adapted the ‘weak’ version of CLT (see section 2.4.4). Howatt’s (1984) version of ‘weak’ CLT can be seen through several explicit vocabulary exercises, where the focus is to get students to use aspects of the language they just read about in the textbooks. Explicit vocabulary exercises are only a part of vocabulary learning and a language course. However, by including these types of exercises, it seems to be a tendency of the ‘weak’ version of CLT in Norwegian EFL textbooks.

When it comes to the Lexical Approach, word chunks or multi-word units are an essential part of it. By having exercises that involve multi-word units the textbook writers recognize the importance they have in developing fluency and communicative competence. When learning ready-made word chunks, learners can create sentences more efficiently and fluently (see section 2.4.4.1). By including explicit vocabulary exercises that focus on multi-word units, the author(s) acknowledge the importance of word chunks and most likely see the relevance they have for vocabulary learning. However, even though the textbook authors have included exercises that focus on multi-word units, there are relatively few of them. Of the 1134 exercises included in the three textbooks, only nine focus explicitly on lexical chunks.

In regards to previous popular teaching methods, there are definite traits to be seen in certain exercises included in the three textbooks. Looking at the two analyses, one can see tendencies from the GTM, the Direct Method and the Audiolingual Method. For instance, GTM can be seen in exercises that require the students to translate or match L2 words with L1 equivalents. These types of exercises are typical for the GTM, and it seems like they are still relatively popular among textbook writers, particularly in *Searching 10*, and to some extent in *Stages 10*. In *Voices in Time 3*, on the other hand, the textbook author puts emphasis on using the target language, and not relying on translation to link form and meaning. Only using the target language is typical for the Direct Method, see section 2.4.2 and 4.3.1.2, however, it can also be found in CLT. When it comes to the Audiolingual Method, certain examples can be found, but they are limited. However, an example is how some exercises provide the learner with phrases that the learners need to repeat to

answer questions. This can be found in example 3.14 in section 3.2.1.7. For convenience, it is repeated in example 4.6 below:

Vocabulary building: expressions of certainty and doubt. In pairs, discuss the two questions below. Use the different expressions of certainty and doubt.

- c) Do you think Victor is responsible for bringing Cody back to life?
- d) Do you think Victor is an angel?

- I am 100% sure
- I am absolutely sure
- I am certain
- I am positive
- Definitely/definitely not
- Certainly/certainly not
- Of course/of course not
- I suppose
- I am not sure
- I doubt it
- I wouldn't like to say for certain
- I have my doubts
- It is doubtful
- It is very unlikely/likely
- It is possible / it is impossible
- He might be/he might not be/he could be
- Maybe/maybe not/probably

Example 4.6: exercise 8, page 264 from Stages 10

The exercise is focused around oral proficiency, as the students should work in pairs. The learners are provided with the vocabulary to use, which according to Drew and Sørheim (2016) is typical for the method, as learners have to drill the new language through text of dialogues (see section 2.4.3). Drill exercises can also be found in the Lexical Approach. In example 4.6, the learners do not have to drill the new language, but they do not get to be creative in how to complete the exercise either. However, the language in the exercise is relevant and the phrases included are the typical everyday language learners are very likely to use later in life.

4.3.5 The CEFR and LK06

The CEFR focuses on multi-word units in the section called “lexical elements”, where it explains how lexical competence is achieved (see section 2.51). In the illustrative scales in the CEFR for vocabulary range, it says that to be on the C2 level, the student “Has a good command of a very broad lexical repertoire including idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms; shows awareness of connotative levels of meaning” (p. 112). The quote illustrates how relevant the CEFR believe multi-word units to be. To be able to be a fluent-like language speaker, learners need to be able to master idiomatic expressions. However, as the findings of the analysis demonstrate, there is limited focus on multi-word units in the three EFL textbooks. In addition, the CEFR mentions how words can be polysemous. As mentioned in section 4.1.3.1, there is very little focus on the fact that words might have a different meaning in different contexts in the three analysed EFL textbooks. Even though there is limited focus on certain vocabulary areas, there are definite traits of the CEFR to be found in the three textbooks. They all have a clear communicative perspective on the exercises included, by including words in context, negotiation and a general oral proficiency focus.

As mentioned in section 2.4, the Norwegian LK06 is heavily influenced by the CEFR. It is, however, customized to the Norwegian school system. Through the competence aims, teachers, students and textbook authors in Norway have an overview of what is expected from the students after certain years. After Year 10 in lower secondary school there are several competence aims that involve vocabulary learning. The exercises that are analysed in the qualitative analysis can help teachers to achieve the set aims. To illustrate this, exercise 8, on page 82 (see example 4.4) is a good example. The exercise illustrates how an exercise can “identify significant linguistic similarities and differences between English and one’s native language and use this knowledge in one’s own language learning” (Ministry of Education and Research, 2013, para. 1). By connecting the students’ native language with the English phrasal verbs, the students can use the L1 to connect and understand the L2. Several of the analysed exercises also help students to “understand and use a general vocabulary related to different topics” (Ministry of Education and Research, 2013, para. 2), through, for example, focus on idioms which help language learners to develop fluency.

If one looks at the competence aims for Year 10 in section 2.5.2, there are 10 competence aims that can be considered relevant for vocabulary teaching. All

together there are 30 competence aims for Year 10 (see appendix B). Even though some of the competence aims are overlapping, and the aims also include incidental vocabulary learning, the number of vocabulary exercises in the three textbooks does not seem to be as high as compared to the competence aims (see table 4.1).

Borgersen's (2009) master thesis looked at the number of vocabulary exercises in textbooks for upper secondary school and compared them to textbooks from R94¹. Her findings indicated that the number of vocabulary exercises actually had reduced in textbooks written for LK06. Her study focused around upper secondary school, and I can only assume that one can see the same tendencies in lower secondary school. Borgersen (2009) stated that she assumed that the reduction was a result of new topics and focus areas that were introduced in LK06, especially when it comes to learning strategies. As mentioned in section 2.2, teachers, students and textbooks need to cover a lot more than explicit vocabulary learning during a school year. Even though the competence aims include aims that are relatively explicit when it comes to vocabulary learning, it is not always reflected in the textbooks. There seems to be a relatively high number of vocabulary related competence aims compared to the number of explicit vocabulary exercises.

In the last two sections (4.3.4 and 4.3.5), the aim was to connect the analysed exercises with the framework that the textbook authors have. It is problematic to assume or conclude on why the author(s) have chosen to include what they have, but one can see certain tendencies. After analysing the explicit vocabulary exercises and studying research about teaching methods, the CEFR and LK06, it seems like the author(s) are focusing on a communicative base, with input from previous methods.

4.4 Summary

After performing the quantitative and the qualitative analyses, there are several interesting findings. A central finding is that the textbook authors have included explicit vocabulary exercises. Another central finding is how both the quantitative and the qualitative analyses confirm the idea that context is helpful and contributes to be able to know the meaning of a word. Seven of the nine analysed exercises present, or

¹ Curriculum for Upper Secondary Education – English – Common general subject for all areas of study – Reform 94, implemented in 1994 in Norwegian upper secondary classes.

require the learner to use, the new vocabulary in context. In addition, among all the 113 explicit vocabulary exercises, 65% do the same. In addition, the two analyses have the same results when it comes to linking form and meaning. In the qualitative analysis, four of the nine exercises focus on linking form and meaning, which results in 44%. In the quantitative analysis, 43% of the 113 exercises pay attention to linking form and meaning.

In regard to multi-word units, there seems to be a lack of explicit vocabulary exercises that focus on lexical chunks. Even though vocabulary learning is only one part of a language course, and multi-word units being a sub-group in vocabulary learning, I did expect more attention to multi-word units, especially collocations. However, the exercises that are included in the textbooks are relevant and relatively up to date according to vocabulary research. They involve the student with discussions, selection, matching or expressing opinions, which covers several of the recommended vocabulary activities presented by scholars like Celce-Murcia (2001), Nation (2013), Schmitt (2000, 2010), and Thonbury (2002) in sections 2.2-2.2.3.

There seems to be a difference in what the author(s) focus on. In *Searching 10* and *Stages 10*, there is one exercise in each that focus on idioms; in contrast, *Voices in Time 3* has three. From the TFA, the results show that the three books are relatively close when it comes to the average score. This might tell us that even though there are a different number of exercises that focus on multi-word units, they all have a relatively high level of processing.

There seems to be a lack of exercises requiring the learners to repeat the target vocabulary. To remember new vocabulary, it needs to be repeated and retrieved several times, ideally up to 12 times (Nation, 2014). However, few exercises gave the learners the opportunity to repeat the words even twice. On the other hand, the three textbooks did include exercises where the learners have to make decisions about the target vocabulary. By incorporating decision-making exercises, the textbook writers give learners the opportunity to work with and hopefully move the new vocabulary into long-term memory.

When looking at previous and present teaching methods and approaches, one can see several tendencies in the textbooks. The Grammar-Translation Method can be seen in how there are still some dictionary and wordlist exercises. When it comes to the Direct Method, some traits can be found. For instance, there are some dictation exercises included. The learners are required to dictate certain phrases presented in a

couple of exercises that were typical for the Direct Method, and can also be found in the Audiolingual Method. However, there is an evident overweight of traits typical for the CLT approach.

5. Conclusion

The aim of the present thesis has been to get an overview of explicit vocabulary exercises in EFL textbooks designed for Year 10 in Norway. This has been done through a textbook analysis, with both a quantitative and a qualitative analysis. In the present chapter, the findings from the two research questions will be summed up, followed by teaching implications and a discussion of possible further research.

5.1 Research Questions

5.1.1 The quantitative analysis

The aim of the quantitative analysis was to be able to answer research question A:

- A. Are there explicit vocabulary exercises included in the three textbooks, and if so, what do the exercises focus on when it comes to vocabulary acquisition?

The findings show that there are 113 explicit vocabulary exercises divided over the three textbooks. The different exercises vary in design and goals, and it illustrates how textbook authors have emphasized different approaches. However, the present thesis did not focus on the fact that one textbook might be better than the others as the different approaches rather indicate that there are different ways of teaching vocabulary explicitly.

The most noticeable results are how the textbook writers of the three books have all included, and focused, on presenting words in context. At the same time, the writers made sure to link form and meaning. All three books have an overweight of exercises that focus on presenting, or requiring the learners to use, the new vocabulary in context, and/or link form and meaning. There seems to be a communicative goal in all textbooks, as the focus is often on authentic language that the students might get use of both inside and outside the classroom. Even though the textbook authors seem to be influenced by CLT and the communicative approach, there is limited inspiration from the Lexical approach in the three textbooks. Of the 113 explicit vocabulary exercises in the textbooks, nine focus explicitly on multi-word units.

It is evident that the textbook writers have included different exercises and focused on similar, but also different areas of vocabulary learning. *Stages 10* has the

most variation in its exercises. Table 4.2 shows that the explicit vocabulary exercises in the textbook cover 16 of the 20 criteria. In contrast, *Voices in Time 3* covers 10 criteria in the same table. This indicates that even though *Voices in Time 3* has a high number of exercises, the same topics and focus areas are occurring several times, whilst in *Stages 10*, the textbook writers have focused more on variation among the explicit vocabulary exercises. *Searching 10* covers 12 criteria and falls in between the two other textbooks.

5.1.2 The qualitative analysis

The main aim of the qualitative analysis was to get a more in-depth perspective of the explicit vocabulary exercises that are included in the three textbooks by answering research question B:

- B. How are the explicit vocabulary exercises designed in light of vocabulary acquisition?

The qualitative analysis also included quantitative elements to present the findings in a clear way, and make it easier to compare and contrast the analysed exercises. To narrow down the selection of explicit vocabulary exercises, I chose to focus on multi-word units. As a result, nine exercises were analysed with the TFA. The TFA indicates what the textbook authors focus on when designing an explicit vocabulary exercise. The findings reveal that the textbook writers prioritise having a clear vocabulary goal and attention on the target words. In addition, eight of the nine analysed exercises include retrieval of the target vocabulary. The findings indicate that the textbook authors highlight retrieval of the target vocabulary, and being clear what the goal of the exercise is. When giving attention to the target vocabulary, learners know what the goal for that specific exercise is. On the other end of the scale, are multiple retrievals, spacing between retrievals, instantiation and imaging, with two points each. As mentioned in section 3.2.2.5, not every criterion is equally important in vocabulary learning. However, retrieval is highly recommended as a vocabulary learning tool (Nation, 2013). Hence, it was surprising to find the criterion on that end of the scale.

In general, the nine exercises that were analysed did score moderately on the TFA. The TFA shows that the three EFL textbooks have a relatively similar score, from 9.25 to 11 points of 18 possible. For one exercise to get 18 points is not common, as Nation (2013) explains how different vocabulary exercises have different goals, and that it is not necessary to include all aspects of vocabulary teaching in one exercise. However, by the scores of the TFA, the analysed exercises seem to be relatively efficient when it comes to vocabulary learning.

The findings also show that among the different types of multi-word units, idioms are the one type that is included the most. Of the nine analysed exercises, five focus on idioms, while the remaining four are divided between phrasal verbs, lexical phrases and one partly on collocations. As mentioned in chapter 2, numerous scholars stress the relevance and efficiency of multi-word units as to vocabulary learning (DeCarrico, 2001; Drew and Sørheim, 2016; Nation, 2013; Schmitt, 2010, 2000; Thornbury, 2002). It was therefore surprising to find limited focus on multi-word units in the three textbooks.

5.2 Teaching Implications

The findings of the present study might contribute to making teachers and textbook writers more aware of the importance of explicit vocabulary learning. One of the reasons I chose to focus on vocabulary for my thesis is because I had limited knowledge about vocabulary learning from my own education, both at school and at university level. I hope this thesis can contribute to teachers and textbook writers to see the significance of spending time on explicit vocabulary learning.

When focusing on explicit vocabulary exercises, it is relevant to make sure that the time spent, and exercises used, are divided between receptive and productive word knowledge. If time is mostly spent on receptive exercises, the learners might struggle to actually use the language in communicative settings. Another important factor to take into consideration is what to focus on when teaching vocabulary. To know a word, students need to be aware of a word's form, meaning and use.

The findings from this thesis show that even though there is a varied selection of explicit vocabulary exercises, there is a limited focus on multi-word units. Multi-word units are an efficient and useful way to learn ready-made chunks, or to know

what words the target word usually co-occurs with. One method teachers and textbook writers can use to implement multi-word units, is to look at the lexical approach as a part of vocabulary acquisition. By taking inspiration from the lexical approach, teachers and textbook writers can find ways to introduce and make students aware of prefabricated chunks. Hopefully, the findings from this thesis can illustrate how efficient multi-word units can be to develop the students' language, and inspire teachers to focus more on multi-word units in the classroom.

Even though teachers generally are the ones who decide what to focus on in the classroom, textbooks are still a big part of how teachers plan their classes. The findings illustrate that EFL textbooks in Norway include a number of explicit vocabulary exercises, but there is relatively little variation among the exercises included. One factor that none of the textbooks included was corpus-based exercises. Even though researchers and scholars highly recommend using corpus in language acquisition (Hasselgård, 2014; Nation, 2013; Richards & Rodgers, 2014), there were no exercises that mention corpora at all. As mentioned in section 2.3.3, corpus can be used as a tool for different vocabulary teaching goals. For instance, corpus can be used to see what words typically co-occur, or to see examples of a target word in an authentic setting. Consequently, textbook writers could take advantage of the position they have in schools and classrooms, and include a varied selection of explicit vocabulary exercises, and see the value of using corpora in future EFL textbooks in Norway.

5.3 Future Research

In the present study, three textbooks for Year 10 in the Norwegian school have been analysed. As the present study has analysed textbooks from Year 10, it could be interesting to see if textbooks from another year would result in different findings. From what I have encountered, I have found limited research on explicit vocabulary learning in Norwegian classrooms. For instance, would the findings have been different in textbooks written for Vg1?

The three textbooks analysed in the present study are the newest ones from their publishers. However, two of the publishers have new textbooks coming out for Year 10 very soon. Further research might achieve different results when analysing

the new textbooks for Year 10, since language learning changes with new trends as a result of new research. Consequently, the outcome of an analysis on the newer textbooks might turn out to be different than the findings in the present study.

Another perspective could be to see it from a teacher's perspective and not that of a textbook analysis. Eide (2010) did similar research when she tried out two different approaches to vocabulary teaching (see section 1.2.1). However, Eide's (2010) study focused mainly on implicit vocabulary learning. It could be interesting to see if teachers in Norway give explicit vocabulary learning, and especially multi-word units, attention in their classrooms. To adapt the analyses used in the present study to an empirical classroom study could provide vocabulary research in Norway and Norwegian English didactics with interesting and valuable information. It could illustrate what is being done, and/or what could be done differently in classrooms when it comes to explicit vocabulary learning.

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7. Appendices

7.1 Appendix A

This appendix contains all the exercises analysed in the qualitative analysis. Attached are also the results from the technique feature analysis.

7.1.1 Searching 10

7.1.1.1 Exercise L1, p. 24

Work together in pairs and tell each other what you like and dislike. Use different expressions and make at least ten sentences each

Criteria	Score	Comment
Is there a clear vocabulary-learning goal?	1	Yes
Does the activity motivate learning?	1	Yes, in this case the students get to express personal feelings and use the words in context
Do the learners select the words?	1	Yes
Does the activity focus attention on the target words?	1	Yes
Does the activity raise awareness of new vocabulary learning?	1	Yes
Does the activity involve negotiation?	1	Yes, work in pairs
Does the activity involve retrieval of the word?	1	Yes
Is it productive retrieval?	0	No, all target expressions are given
Is it recall?	0	No
Are there multiple retrievals of each word?	0	No
Is there spacing between retrievals?	0	No
Does the activity involve creative use?	1	Yes, sentence production
Is it productive?	1	Yes
Is there a marked change that involves the use of other words?	1	Yes
Does the activity ensure successful linking of form and meaning?	0	No
Does the activity involve instantiation?	1	Yes, examples that are included in the exercise
Does the activity involve imaging?	0	No
Does the activity avoid interference?	0	No, examples that can overlap
Total score	11	

7.1.1.2 Exercise L1, p. 146

He is quite a **loose cannon**
They were having a **field day**
She was caught **red-handed**
This is **top notch** work
I'll **drop you a line** next week
This story is a **bit far-fetched**
He is quite **tightfisted**
She was **all ears**
I'm really tired; I think I'll **hit the sack**
Let's **stay in touch**
He was caught **with his pants down**
This house is pretty **run-down**
He's **nuts**
Let's **grab a bite** to eat
I'll **give you a hand** with that

He is quite unpredictable
They were enjoying themselves very much
She was caught in the act
This is excellent work
I'll write to you next week
This story is exaggerated
He is quite mean with his money
She was listening carefully
I'm really tired; I think I'll go to bed
Let's keep in contact with each other
He was caught in the act
This house is pretty shabby
He's crazy
Let's get some food
I'll help you with that

L1:

Write ten new sentences using some of the idioms above.

Criteria	Score	Comment
Is there a clear vocabulary learning goal?	1	Yes, to learn using idioms
Does the activity motivate learning?	1	Yes, in this case the students get to express personal feelings and use the words in context
Do the learners select the words?	1	Yes, they can choose from several idioms
Does the activity focus attention on the target words?	1	Yes, bolding of the idioms in the list connected to the exercise
Does the activity raise awareness of new vocabulary learning?	1	Yes, learners need to use the word in context
Does the activity involve negotiation?	0	No
Does the activity involve retrieval of the word?	0	No, both meaning and form is given
Is it productive retrieval?	0	No
Is it recall?	0	No
Are there multiple retrievals of each word?	0	No
Is there spacing between retrievals?	0	No
Does the activity involve creative use?	1	Yes, sentence production
Is it productive?	1	Yes
Is there a marked change that involves the use of other words?	1	Yes, sentence production
Does the activity ensure successful linking of form and meaning?	1	Yes
Does the activity involve instantiation?	1	Yes
Does the activity involve imaging?	0	No
Does the activity avoid interference?	1	Yes
Total score	11	

7.1.2 Stages 10

7.1.2.1 Exercise 3, p. 27

3a How many words and expressions related to looking at someone can you think of? Use a dictionary and find more synonyms. Write a list.

Staring, ...

3b Place all your words and expressions on this scale:

Taking a very quick look ←-----→ looking intensely

Criteria	Score	Comment
Is there a clear vocabulary learning goal?	1	Yes
Does the activity motivate learning?	0	No
Do the learners select the words?	1	Yes, need to find the synonyms themselves, but the “target word” is given
Does the activity focus attention on the target words?	1	Yes
Does the activity raise awareness of new vocabulary learning?	0	No
Does the activity involve negotiation?	0	No
Does the activity involve retrieval of the word?	1	Yes, students need to find synonyms in a dictionary. Retrieval of new words, were they already know the meaning.
Is it productive retrieval?	1	Yes, students need to find the words and expressions themselves.
Is it recall?	1	Yes
Are there multiple retrievals of each word?	0	No
Is there spacing between retrievals?	0	No
Does the activity involve creative use?	0	No
Is it productive?	0	No, the learners do not produce new sentences with the target vocabulary.
Is there a marked change that involves the use of other words?	0	No
Does the activity ensure successful linking of form and meaning?	1	Yes, use of dictionary usually ensures a successful linking.
Does the activity involve instantiation?	0	No
Does the activity involve imaging?	1	Yes, use of a scale might contribute to students remembering the words or expressions
Does the activity avoid interference?	0	No
Total score	8	

7.1.2.2 Exercise 3, p. 32

A Match each idiom from Shakespeare to its meaning.

Idiom	Meaning
A in stiches	1 a difficult situation
B night owl	2 get sick
C break the ice	3 someone who stays up late
D a pickle	4 impossible to understand
E all Greek to me	5 laughing hard
F wild goose chase	6 anything is possible
G catch a cold	7 start a conversation
H the world is your oyster	8 hopeless search for something

B Find the missing idiom from the exercise above

1. Please close the window, or we'll all ___.
2. My brother is a ___ and often reads until 2:00 am.
3. When you are young and healthy, ___ -
4. The comedian had the audience ___ with his jokes.
5. After wandering around for hours, I realized we were on a ___.
6. Maria is in ___; she has two dates for the party.
7. The rules of cricket are ___.
8. Talking about the weather is a good way to ___.

Criteria	Score	Comment
Is there a clear vocabulary learning goal?	1	Yes
Does the activity motivate learning?	1	Yes
Do the learners select the words?	0	No
Does the activity focus attention on the target words?	1	Yes
Does the activity raise awareness of new vocabulary learning?	1	Yes
Does the activity involve negotiation?	0	No
Does the activity involve retrieval of the word?	1	Yes, matching activity
Is it productive retrieval?	0	No
Is it recall?	0	No
Are there multiple retrievals of each word?	1	Yes, first matching, then using it in a sentence with gap-fills
Is there spacing between retrievals?	1	Yes
Does the activity involve creative use?	1	Yes
Is it productive?	1	Yes, on word level
Is there a marked change that involves the use of other words?	0	No
Does the activity ensure successful linking of form and meaning?	1	Yes, by matching word and meaning
Does the activity involve instantiation?	0	No
Does the activity involve imaging?	0	No
Does the activity avoid interference?	1	Yes
Total score	11	

7.1.2.3 Exercise 8, p. 82

8a) Match the phrasal verb with its Norwegian translation

Speak out	Møte tilfeldig
Believe in	Vekse opp
Grow up	Skunde seg
Look after	Tru på
Run into	Passe på, ta vare på
Put off	Utsette
Keep up	Si meininga si
Hurry up	Fortsette

8b) Use the correct phrasal verb from task a in the sentences below.
Use correct phrasal verb once.

9. Ram ___ without parents.
10. Don't ___ until tomorrow what you can do today.
11. ___ or we will miss the demonstration!
12. We should all ___ against justice.
13. I ___ an old friend in Mumbai.
14. ___ the good work!
15. Tom's wife had to ___ their sons while he was away.
16. Gandhi ___ an independent India.

Criteria	Score	Comment
Is there a clear vocabulary learning goal?	1	Yes
Does the activity motivate learning?	1	Yes
Do the learners select the words?	0	No, words are given
Does the activity focus attention on the target words?	1	Yes
Does the activity raise awareness of new vocabulary learning?	1	Yes
Does the activity involve negotiation?	0	No
Does the activity involve retrieval of the word?	1	Yes, have to use the words in B
Is it productive retrieval?	0	No
Is it recall?	0	No, words are provided
Are there multiple retrievals of each word?	1	Yes, first you match it, then you use it in a sentence.
Is there spacing between retrievals?	1	Yes, different order on the words, get some space between the words
Does the activity involve creative use?	1	Yes
Is it productive?	1	Small changes in form
Is there a marked change that involves the use of other words?	1	Yes
Does the activity ensure successful linking of form and meaning?	1	Yes, match with translation
Does the activity involve instantiation?	0	No
Does the activity involve imaging?	0	No
Does the activity avoid interference?	1	Yes
Total score	12	

7.1.2.4 Exercise 8, p. 264

Vocabulary building: expressions of certainty and doubt. In pairs, discuss the two questions below. Use the different expressions of certainty and doubt.

- e) Do you think Victor is responsible for bringing Cody back to life?
- f) Do you think Victor is an angel?

- I am 100% sure
- I am absolutely sure
- I am certain
- I am positive
- Definitely/definitely not
- Certainly/certainly not
- Of course/of course not
- I suppose
- I am not sure
- I doubt it
- I wouldn't like to say for certain
- I have my doubts
- It is doubtful
- It is very unlikely/likely
- It is possible / it is impossible
- He might be/he might not be/he could be
- Maybe/maybe not/probably

Criteria	Score	Comment
Is there a clear vocabulary-learning goal?	1	Yes
Does the activity motivate learning?	0	No
Do the learners select the words?	1	Yes, they can choose which expressions to use
Does the activity focus attention on the target words?	1	Yes
Does the activity raise awareness of new vocabulary learning?	1	Yes
Does the activity involve negotiation?	1	Yes, they need to discuss and know the meaning to use the words
Does the activity involve retrieval of the word?	1	Yes, the learner has to remember what the expressions mean
Is it productive retrieval?	0	The target expressions are provided
Is it recall?	0	No
Are there multiple retrievals of each word?	0	No
Is there spacing between retrievals?	0	No
Does the activity involve creative use?	1	Yes, learner needs to use the expressions
Is it productive?	0	No
Is there a marked change that involves the use of other words?	0	Not necessary
Does the activity ensure successful linking of form and meaning?	0	No
Does the activity involve instantiation?	0	No
Does the activity involve imaging?	0	No
Does the activity avoid interference?	0	No, can overlap
Total score	7	

7.1.3 *Voices in Time 3*

7.1.3.1 *Exercise A1, p. 85*

The title "Between the Lines" is an idiom. What does it mean to you? Fill in a Word Wall with other pupils.

Criteria	Score	Comment
Is there a clear vocabulary learning goal?	1	Yes
Does the activity motivate learning?	1	Yes
Do the learners select the words?	0	No
Does the activity focus attention on the target words?	1	Yes
Does the activity raise awareness of new vocabulary learning?	0	No, there is no focus on why the idiom is important or any examples on how to use it or when.
Does the activity involve negotiation?	1	Yes, fill in Word Wall with other students
Does the activity involve retrieval of the word?	1	Yes, meaning is retrieved
Is it productive retrieval?	0	No
Is it recall?	1	Yes, students need to find meaning of the idiom.
Are there multiple retrievals of each word?	0	No
Is there spacing between retrievals?	0	No
Does the activity involve creative use?	0	No
Is it productive?	0	No
Is there a marked change that involves the use of other words?	0	No
Does the activity ensure successful linking of form and meaning?	0	Not necessary
Does the activity involve instantiation?	0	No
Does the activity involve imaging?	1	Yes, students can picture the Word Wall if they encounter the idiom again.
Does the activity avoid interference?	1	Yes
Total score	8	

7.1.3.2 Exercise A3, p. 105

Here are some expressions that you can use to talk about Shakespeare's plays and characters.

- a) Form groups and find out what the expressions mean and what kind of situations they might be used in.
- b) Add two more expressions and use all four in questions and answers to each other.

Criteria	Score	Comment
Is there a clear vocabulary learning goal?	1	Yes
Does the activity motivate learning?	0	No
Do the learners select the words?	1	Yes, to a certain degree. Students are first given two expressions, but later have to come up with their own.
Does the activity focus attention on the target words?	1	Yes
Does the activity raise awareness of new vocabulary learning?	1	Yes, the students have to use the expressions in context.
Does the activity involve negotiation?	1	Yes, work in groups
Does the activity involve retrieval of the word?	1	Yes
Is it productive retrieval?	1	Yes, students are required to come up with two more expressions
Is it recall?	1	Yes
Are there multiple retrievals of each word?	0	No
Is there spacing between retrievals?	0	No
Does the activity involve creative use?	1	Yes
Is it productive?	1	Yes
Is there a marked change that involves the use of other words?	1	Yes
Does the activity ensure successful linking of form and meaning?	0	Not necessary
Does the activity involve instantiation?	0	No
Does the activity involve imaging?	0	No
Does the activity avoid interference?	1	Yes, if the students know not to include related expressions, there should not be any interference
Total score	12	

7.1.3.3 Exercise A3, p. 123

- a) Form groups and find out what the two idioms below mean.
- b) Add two more idioms or expressions that you can use to talk about independence and peace.
- c) From groups. Use the idioms and expressions in questions and answers to each other

Be at peace with	
See eye to eye	

Criteria	Score	Comment
Is there a clear vocabulary-learning goal?	1	Yes
Does the activity motivate learning?	0	Not according to Nation and Webb (2011)
Do the learners select the words?	1	In b, the learners get to choose two new idioms.
Does the activity focus attention on the target words?	1	Yes
Does the activity raise awareness of new vocabulary learning?	1	Yes, the learners need to use the idioms in context
Does the activity involve negotiation?	1	Yes, work and discuss in groups
Does the activity involve retrieval of the word?	1	Yes
Is it productive retrieval?	1	Yes
Is it recall?	1	Yes
Are there multiple retrievals of each word?	0	No
Is there spacing between retrievals?	0	No
Does the activity involve creative use?	1	Yes
Is it productive?	1	Yes
Is there a marked change that involves the use of other words?	1	Yes, sentence production
Does the activity ensure successful linking of form and meaning?	0	Not necessary
Does the activity involve instantiation?	0	No
Does the activity involve imaging?	0	No
Does the activity avoid interference?	0	No, learners have to find several idioms one can use to express independence and peace.
Total score	11	

7.2 Appendix B

This appendix contains the competence aims for Year 8-10

7.2.1 English Subject Curriculum

Competence aims after Year 10

Language learning

The aims of the studies are to enable pupils to

- use different situations, working methods and learning strategies to develop one's English-language skills
- comment on own work in learning English
- identify significant linguistic similarities and differences between English and one's native language and use this knowledge in one's own language learning
- select different digital resources and other aids and use them in an independent manner in own language learning

Oral communication

The aims of the studies are to enable pupils to

- choose and use different listening and speaking strategies that are suitable for the purpose
- understand and use a general vocabulary related to different topics
- demonstrate the ability to distinguish positively and negatively loaded expressions referring to individuals and groups
- understand the main content and details of different types of oral texts on different topics
- listen to and understand variations of English from different authentic situations
- express oneself fluently and coherently, suited to the purpose and situation
- express and justify own opinions about different topics
- introduce, maintain and terminate conversations on different topics by asking questions and following up on input

- use the central patterns for pronunciation, intonation, word inflection and different types of sentences in communication
- understand and use different numerical expressions and other kinds of data in communication

Written communication

The aims of the studies are to enable pupils to

- choose and use different reading and writing strategies that are suitable for the purpose
- understand and use a general vocabulary related to different topics
- demonstrate the ability to distinguish positively and negatively loaded expressions referring to individuals and groups
- understand the main content and details of texts one has chosen
- read, understand and evaluate different types of texts of varying length about different topics
- use own notes and different sources as a basis for writing
- write different types of texts with structure and coherence
- use central patterns for orthography, word inflection, sentence and text construction to produce texts
- use digital tools and formal requirements for information processing, text production and communication
- be familiar with protection of personal privacy and copyright and chose and use content from different sources in a verifiable way

Culture, society and literature

The aims of the studies are to enable pupils to

- discuss and elaborate on the way people live and how they socialise in Great Britain, USA and other English-speaking countries and Norway
- explain features of history and geography in Great Britain and the USA
- discuss and elaborate on different types of English literature from English-speaking countries
- describe and reflect on the situation of indigenous peoples in English-speaking countries

- create, communicate and converse about own texts inspired by English literature, films and cultural forms of expression
- communicate and converse about contemporary and academic topics