THE ATTITUDES OF ENGLISH INSTRUCTORS WORKING AT PAMUKKALE UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES TO VOCABULARY TEACHING

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June, 2010

DENİZLİ

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Pamukkale University

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June, 2010

DENİZLİ

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ ONAY FORMU

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bilim Dalı öğrencisi **Şefiye Tuzcu** tarafından Yrd. Doç. Dr. Selami Ok yönetiminde hazırlanan **"The Attitudes of English Instructors Working at Pamukkale University School of Foreign Languages to Vocabulary Teaching"** başlıklı tez aşağıdaki jüri üyeleri tarafından **24/06/2010** tarihinde yapılan tez savunma sınavında başarılı bulunmuş ve Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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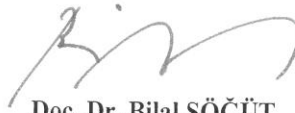
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Müdür

Bu tezin tasarımı, hazırlanması, yürütülmesi, araştırmalarının yapılması ve bulgularının analizlerinde bilimsel etiğe ve akademik kurallara özenle riayet edildiğini; bu çalışmanın doğrudan birincil ürünü olmayan bulguların, verilerin ve materyallerin bilimsel etiğe uygun olarak kaynak gösterildiğini ve alıntı yapılan çalışmalara atfedildiğini beyan ederim.

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ÖZET

PAMUKKALE ÜNİVERSİTESİ YABANCI DİLLER YÜKSEKOKULUNDA ÇALIŞMAKTA OLAN İNGİLİZCE OKUTMANLARININ SÖZCÜK ÖĞRETİMİNE YÖNELİK TUTUMLARI

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, Pamukkale Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulunda çalışan okutmanlar tarafından en çok sıklıkla ve en az sıklıkla tercih edilen sözcük öğretim tekniklerini ve okutmanların bu tekniklere karşı tutumlarını araştırmaktır. Buna ek olarak, bu çalışma okutmanların yeni sözcüğü sunma teknikleri ile sözcük öğretimine yönelik tutumları arasında önemli bir korelasyon olup olmadığını analiz etmeyi de hedeflemektedir.

Veri toplamak için, çalışma nitel ve nicel veri analizinin bir arada olduğu bir desenlemeye dayandırıldı ve bu amaca yönelik olarak gözlem, sormaca ve ikili görüşme kullanıldı. Bu çalışma, Pamukkale Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulunda İngilizce okutmanı olarak çalışan 46 katılımcı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. 36 katılımcı gözlemlendi, 46 katılımcıya sormaca uygulandı ve 10 katılımcıyla ikili görüşme yapıldı.

Sonuçlar, okutmanlar tarafından en sık kullanılan tekniklerin 'bağlamdan anlam çıkarttırma', 'basit tanımlama', 'sözcük öbeklerini kullanma', 'beden dili, jest ve mimikler', 'kelimelerin eş ve zıt anlamını verme' olduğunu göstermiştir. En az sıklıkla kullanılan teknikler ise 'kelimenin Türkçe çevirisi', 'kısa hikâye', 'emirler', 'oyunlar', ve 'şarkılar'dır. Okutmanların tutumları eğitim durumlarına ve öğretmenlik deneyimlerine göre değerlendirildi. Sonuç olarak, eğitim durumuna göre özellikle Lisans ve Yüksek Lisans dereceleri arasında çok farklılık yoktur. Doktora derecesine sahip okutmanların bütün sözcük öğretim yöntemlerine yönelik tutumları olumludur. Öğretmenlik deneyiminde ilk beş yılında olanların genellikle bu tekniklere karşı olumlu tutumları vardır. Tecrübe yılı arttıkça, farklı tutumların ortaya çıkışı artmaktadır. Korelasyon değerleri, katılımcıların sözcük öğretimine yönelik tutumlarının yeni bir sözcük öğretiminde kullandıkları teknikleri doğrudan yansıtmadığını göstermiştir. İkili görüşmeler bu farklılığın sebeplerini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu sebepler, yoğun ders müfredatı, zaman yönetimi, öğrenci ilgi ve farkındalığı, öğrenci seviyesi ve kaynak eksikliği gibi nedenler olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Sözcük, Tutum, Öğretim Teknikleri, Hazırlık Sınıfları, Okutmanlar

ABSTRACT

THE ATTITUDES OF ENGLISH INSTRUCTORS WORKING AT PAMUKKALE UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES TO VOCABULARY TEACHING

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The aim of this study was to find out the most and least frequently preferred vocabulary teaching techniques by instructors working at Pamukkale University, School of Foreign Languages and the attitudes of these instructors towards vocabulary teaching. In addition, it was analyzed whether there was any significant correlation between the instuctors' techniques of presenting the new vocabulary and attitudes towards vocabulary teaching.

In order to collect the data, this study was based on a design including both qualitative and quantitative data analysis and to this end, observation, questionnaire and interview were used. The study was conducted in Pamukkale University, School of Foreign Language with 46 participants working as English langugage instructors. 36 participants were observed, 46 participants were applied questionnaire and 10 of the participants were interviewed.

The results showed that the most frequently preferred techniques were 'having students guess the meaning from context', 'simple definition', 'collocation', 'body language, mimes and gestures' 'antonym and synonym of the words'. The least frequently preferred techniques were: 'Turkish translation of the words', 'short stories', 'commands', 'games' and 'songs'. The attitudes of the instructors analyzed according to their education status and teaching experience. As a result there are not many differences according to the education status especially between Bachelor's and Master's Degree. Instructors who have PhD Degree showed more positive attitude towards all the vocabulary teaching techniques. The instructors in their first five year of teaching experience generally have positive attitudes towards these techniques. As the year of experience increases, the occurrence of different attitudes also increases. Correlation values show that the participants' attitudes towards these techniques do not directly reflect the technique they use when they are teaching a new vocabulary item. The interviews revealed the reasons of this difference. These reasons are intensive syllabus, time management, learner's interests and awareness, learner's level and the lack of the materials.

Keywords: Vocabulary, Attitude, Teaching Techniques, Preparatory Classes, Instructors

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Ph D: Philosophy of Doctorate
L1: Mother Tongue
L2: Second Language
ESL: English as a Second Language

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1.Background of the Study

All languages need words to have a particular communication. This causes vocabulary to be a crucial component in language learning and of critical importance to the typical language learner because if students do not have enough vocabulary, they will be unsuccessful to function in communication. Wallace (1982, p. 9) explains that "not being able to find the words you need to express yourself is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language." This shows that students must have sufficient knowledge of vocabulary to communicate exactly. On the other hand, vocabulary is not assumed as "the whole story". Language is a body consisting of many important parts. Harmer points out that "if language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and flesh." Additionally, Wilkins (1974, p. 111) explains that "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed." What is important at this point is that a teacher should present both the vocabulary students need in a context and the structure which will help to express the situation in the context. The balance between vocabulary and structure is the key to be communicative.

A good knowledge of vocabulary is a must for a real communication. Therefore, vocabulary teaching plays an important role in foreign and second language teaching. However, in traditional language teaching methods vocabulary teaching was considered

as giving learners long lists of words for memorizing, translating or defining the words. On the other hand, in following years vocabulary study was neglected due to the efforts of applying natural and authentic classroom tasks and activities. Zimmerman (1997, p. 121) thinks that vocabulary can be learned incidentally, so no or little teaching is needed for vocabulary. This means that no time should be allocated for teaching vocabulary; the learners will learn it coincidentally while they are engaging in language in other ways while they are doing grammar, reading, speaking, listening or writing tasks.

The importance of teaching vocabulary is ignored and neglected by most of the language teachers. Gairns and Redman (1986, p. 1) emphasized that "in recent years vocabulary has not received the recognition it deserves in the classroom". Vocabulary is not a main focus for learning itself, but it is given to learners when learning structures. Also Nunan (1998, p. 117) supports Gairns and Redman stating that '… audio–lingualists suggested that the emphasis should be strongly on the acquisition of the basic grammatical patterns of the language. It was believed that learners were able to internalize these basic patterns, and then building a large vocabulary could come later'. The negligence here is based on the audio-linguist approach and this approach favors grammar at first and other skills are believed to be learned later in time.

In recent years, there have been many changes in this area. In vocabulary teaching, teachers should keep some main important points in mind. Not only each word is usually associated with its mother-tongue equivalent, but also each word is linguistically and situationally isolated when they are given as a word-list. However, words are not learnable as isolates. Words must be presented in a context to make the meaning clear. Celce-Murcia and McIntosh (1979, p. 241) suggest that the use of a variety of stimuli may help to correct this assumption and at the same time will exploit the fact that, according to psychologists, people learn words better which have been presented to them with a range of visual and other associations. To provide a translation equivalent of an unfamiliar word is not to teach its meaning although it probably helps the pupil to understand the new word in that particular context. As a technique of teaching meaning, translation is in the long run unsound. Learning vocabulary is learning how words relate to external reality and how they relate to one another. Thus, many techniques were developed to present the meaning of a word.

The lexical approach to second language teaching has received interest in recent years as an alternative to grammar based approaches. The lexical approach concentrates on developing learners' proficiency with lexis, or words and word combinations. Lewis (1993, p. 95) explains that an important part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical phrases as unanalyzed wholes, or "chunks," and that these chunks become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar. Lewis (1997a, p. 212) points out that instructions should focus on relatively fixed expressions that occur frequently in spoken language, such as, "I'm sorry," "I didn't mean to make you jump," or "That will never happen to me," rather than on originally created sentences. Within the lexical approach, special attention is directed to collocations and expressions that include institutionalized utterances and sentence frames and heads. As Lewis (1997a, p. 204) maintains, "instead of words, we consciously try to think of collocations, and to present these in expressions. Rather than trying to break things into ever smaller pieces, there is a conscious effort to see things in larger, more holistic, ways". This approach supported the presenting new vocabulary items in a meaningful context, not as a separate item. This was believed to be more meaningful and communicative.

1.2.Statement of purpose

The important thing in vocabulary teaching is not only presenting it with different techniques but also choosing the correct vocabulary items for active use. Celce-Murcia and McIntosh (1979, p. 242) suggest that language teachers should keep some points in mind when teaching vocabulary. First of all, s/he must be able to ascertain definitely whether the vocabulary items at hand are needed by his or her students for active use (i.e., recall, production) or passive use (i.e., recognition, comprehension). Active use in speaking or writing is, of course, all encompassing in that it necessitates to co-exist receptive and productive facility altogether. An understanding of this distinction will influence one's approach to the teaching of vocabulary. Likewise, vocabulary items which are necessary for the development of formal reading and writing skills may not be appropriate when one is learning the less formal vocabulary typical of listening or speaking. Another related consideration is that

the teacher must decide whether passive vocabulary is to be learned permanently or temporarily (i.e., acquired merely to understand a given passage in a piece of writing or a movie with no consideration for later use). All these can influence the way vocabulary is presented and taught in the ESL classroom.

The purpose of this study is to determine various techniques of vocabulary teaching in an authentic classroom setting that vary due to the influences suggested by Celce-Murcia and McIntosh (1979, p. 242). At the end of this study it is aimed to reach findings about the vocabulary teaching techniques preferred by Pamukkale University English instructors working at preparatory class. The observations which are carried out by the researcher specify the techniques preferred by the instructors. In addition, the questionnaire will determine what their attitudes towards these techniques are and how often and which techniques they apply in their programs. This study also examines whether instructors' attitude and their education status and teaching experience contribute to their selection of vocabulary teaching techniques in their teaching. Finally, the reasons for not preferring some techniques are analyzed by means of an interview.

1.3. Statement of assumptions

It was assumed that all the participants in the study find vocabulary teaching important; allocate time for it and apply some vocabulary teaching techniques.

1.4. Statement of limitations

The study was limited to English language instructors working at Pamukkale University School of Foreign Languages. Instructors only the ones who are teaching core language lessons at English preparatory class and using Success series as textbook were included in this study. Vocabulary teaching can be applied in all skills but it is not studied according to skills. Vocabulary teaching techniques are limited to those used in core language courses. Thus, the observations were made only in core language classes and the instructors were observed only once.

1.5. Statement of the research questions

The research questions which are examined in this study are:

1. Which techniques do English language instructors at Pamukkale University prefer to use when they are teaching new vocabulary items to adults in preparatory classes?

    1.a. Which techniques are most frequently preferred?

    1.b. Which techniques are least frequently preferred?

2. What are the attitudes of English language instructors towards vocabulary teaching?

    2.a. What are the attitudes of English language instructors towards vocabulary teaching when their education status is concerned?

    2.b. What are the attitudes of English language instructors towards vocabulary teaching when their teaching experience is concerned?

3. Is there any significant correlation between their techniques of presenting the new vocabulary and attitudes towards vocabulary teaching?

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. **Introduction**

In this chapter, firstly the question 'What does a word mean for a language?' will be explained, and then the basic word elements and active- passive vocabulary will be explained and exemplified. Certainly the most important point in vocabulary knowledge 'What does knowing a word mean?' will be covered. This chapter also covers teaching and learning vocabulary, vocabulary learning strategies, what to teach and teaching techniques.

2.1. What is in a Word?

All languages in the world have words. Thornburry (2002, p.1) points out that "language emerges first as words, both historically, and in terms of the way each of us learned our first and any subsequent languages". The occurrence of new words never ends even in our first language, it is like a cause-affect chain; as our life continues, we need new terms and words, and this continues forever. The same process occurs when we are learning subsequent languages.

In order to define what a word is, we need some criteria. Jackson and Ze Amvela (2000, p. 50) state that the following four characteristics are considered essential in our definition of the word in English:

1. The word is interruptible unit.

2. The word may consist of one or more morphemes.

3. The word occurs typically in the structure of phrases.

These characteristics explained by Jackson and Ze Amvela (2000) are guidance to decide whether an item is a word or not. The decision as to what counts as a word might seem rather academic but there are important implications in terms of teaching. In the following sections of this chapter different aspects of the word are explained. Knowing these aspects, as Thornburry (2002, p.3) explains, "helps us understand the decisions that syllabus planners, materials writers and teachers make when it comes to the teaching of vocabulary".

2.2. Basic Word Elements

Word elements consisting of form & meaning, frequency & availability, structure & content, range, relationship between words, concordances are important since they have direct relevance to language teaching. Without considering these elements, McCarthy (1995, p. 79) emphasizes that " it becomes difficult to evaluate syllabuses and materials, difficult to understand for oneself why particular vocabulary is to be taught, and, often, difficult to explain to learners why they are being asked to learn particular words". To consider these elements would be helpful for the instructors for better teaching implications.

2.2.1. Form and Meaning

A word cannot be evaluated without its meaning, Vygotsky (1972, p. 181) explains that "a word without meaning is an empty sound; meaning therefore is a criterion of word, its indispensable component." As a result, meaning of a word helps us to understand the context. What is more, there are some words which look the same, having the same form but which are different lexical items, because they have different meanings.

> e.g.   (1) The first **letter** of a sentence starts with a capital letter.
>
>   (2) I wrote many **letters** to my darling when he went abroad.

In the examples above, we see the same form for different meanings of *letter*. In the first example, it means a mark or character used as the representative of a sound, or

of an articulation of the human organs of speech; a first element of written language. In the second example, it is a written or printed communication; a message expressed in intelligible characters on something adapted for conveyance, as paper, parchment, etc.

Another point that should be considered is that some words with the same form and similar meaning may represent different parts of speech. Riddell (2003, p. 58) points out a different point of form and meaning relationship and emphasizes that more than one part of speech (e.g. it may be a verb and a noun) may be the same word.

e.g.   (1) I would like to have a glass of **water**. (Part of speech: noun)

(2) I **water** my flowers every day. (Part of speech: verb)

When the form and meaning relationship is handled, it is easier to get the meaning of a context. Otherwise, some statements can be misunderstood, and this causes a lack of communication.

2.2.2. Frequency and Availability

The teacher concerned with vocabulary teaching must also be aware of the work that has been done in the area of word lists. There have been many word-lists based on frequency (Thorndike and Lorge, 1944, Kucera and Francis , 1967). Word-lists based on both frequency and usefulness of the various meanings of a word have also been prepared, e.g., West (1959). Celce-Murcia and Rosensweig (1989) state that these word-lists have been applied to ESL for the following reasons: (a) to guide teachers in the selection of controlled vocabulary used in beginning courses, and (b) to assist textbook writers in the simplification of texts for initial reading experience in English.

On the other hand, these applications caused some discussions. For example McCarthy (1995) claims that the words in the most frequent list are usually the most informationally empty words (i.e.. grammar/function words), and yet communicating and understanding messages with considerable content right from the very beginning are needed by the learners. Although two words may be more or less equal in frequency, they may not be equally available: Available words are known in the sense that they come to mind rapidly when the situation calls for them. For instance, a word may be more available because it represents a concrete object rather than an abstraction.

Sinclair and Renouf (1988) support the same idea adding that the most frequent words do not necessarily mean that they are the most useful for learners. This, in turn, makes it more difficult for students to learn to use the right word in the right place. Likewise, Fries and Traver (1940, in Celce-Murcia and Rosensweig, 1989) warn language teachers using word-lists to remember that few frequent words have one meaning-usually they have at least fifteen to twenty meanings, so the teacher must decide which meanings to present and which to ignore. They also point out that usefulness is not exclusively determined by frequency-i.e., frequency is only one factor determining usefulness and beginning courses in English must include (regardless of frequency) important function words, substitute words, and words with affirmative and negative distribution (e.g., some/ any, already /yet, etc.).

2.2.3. Structure and Content

Words that play different roles in a text fall into eight different word classes: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverb, prepositions, conjunction and determiner. Some words for example; *book* can belong to two or more word classes. The determiners are unrepresented class- words e.g. *a, the, some*. Thornburry (2002) states that in terms of the meanings combined with these words classes, they can be divided into two main groups: first group consists of words like *for, and, them, to* that mainly contribute to the grammatical structure of the sentence. These are called structure (function / grammatical) words and are generally prepositions, conjunctions, determiners and pronouns. On the other hand, there are content words, those that carry a high information load. Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are content words. Thornburry (2002, p. 4) compares the structure and content words saying that the sense of a text is approximately recoverable when these words are used alone and gives these examples:

e.g. (1) Like looking bits pieces old second hand record players doing up look new.

   (2) I for and like and them to like.

These sentences can be understood although they are not clear. These types of sentences especially consisting of content words alone do the job where space is very important like newspaper headlines or road signs.

As time passes, we may need new words and new words are produced according to our needs. For instance in terms of technology about a century ago there were no words like *internet, chat site.* These words are content words and it can be said that function words are not as productive as content words. Thornburry (2002) emphasizes this difference between content and function words saying that content words are considered as an open set since there is not a border to the content words that can be added to the language, for example *download, emoticon.* These are the words that have been added in recent years. On the contrary, grammatical words are a closed set. The last time a pronoun was added to the language was in the sixteenth century and it was *them.* This difference also causes one of the factors that affects the choice of the vocabulary items which are going to be taught in a class. Since grammatical words belong to the domain of grammar teaching, teaching vocabulary is closely related to the content words.

2.2.4. Range

The amount of different words in a text helps us decide the range of those words. What is range? Thornburry (2002) explains that lexical variety means an indication of the different words in the text. In return, a high proportion of different words is an indicator of an extensive vocabulary knowledge – what is called range. McCarthy (1995) clarifies a point that in some cases, a word may be quite frequent; however, a majority, or even all, of its occurrences might be in just one or two texts. Although its frequency might look significant, its range might be quite small. As a result, teachers should keep in mind that the useful words for the learner are those words which (a) are frequent and (b) have a fairly wide range, that is, those which occur across a wide variety of texts.

2.2.5. Lexical Density and Variation

Lexical density constitutes the estimated measure of content per functional (grammatical) and lexical units in total. It is used in discourse analysis as a descriptive parameter which varies with register and genre. For example, spoken texts tend to have a lower lexical density than written ones. Taylor (1998, p. 38-39) explains the density as "the proportion of lexical words in a text compared to the number of function words", and confirms that "written language is more dense than spoken language lexically due to the time allocated for composing a more concentrated discourse". McCarthy (1995, p. 71) states that "when measuring the lexical density of a text, count the total words in a text and then count the lexical words, excluding the grammar or function words, and calculating the lexical words as a percentage of the total words; the higher the percentage, the higher the lexical density".

Lexical variation can be understood clearly provided that the distinction between token and type is explained. McCarthy (1995) explains that if a text consists of 100 words, it is said to contain 100 tokens, meanwhile many of these tokens may be repeated within the text, and this may give us a considerably lower total of types. For example:

She did not want to write but she did.

This sentence consists of 9 tokens but 7 types, and the ratio between tokens and types for this sentence is 9:7. The difference between the two numbers is great, indicating a fairly low load of differing items. If we have a context with the ratio types and tokens are equal, it means vocabulary is quite highly loaded, without repetition. Considering these information, lexical variety can be described as Thornburry (2002, p. 136) states "a measure of the different words in the text."

2.2.6. Concordances

Vocabulary items can be used as data for analysis and at this point the teacher must be aware of concordance. Gavioli (2005) defines that a concordance is a word or a phrase listed according to their occurrences in a corpus. Concordance is the best way of learning which meaning of a word is used frequently. This can be a good guide to

decide to teach which meaning first. McCarthy (1995) states that concordance information can be a basis of a dictionary entry or could inform decisions about what to teach language learners concerning the word's most typical uses. Furthermore, some advantages of concordances are emphasized in terms of learners. Nation (2001) points out that via concordances, "learners meet vocabulary in real contexts". He adds that, "the use of concordances provides opportunities for discovery learning, where learners are engaged in words and their usages in real contexts, and are challenged to draw generalizations and patterns of the words and their usage" (p. 111).Thus, for example, the computer concordance below clearly shows us what adjectives are commonly used with the word we are looking at (Harmer, 2001, p. 18).

Table.2.1 *thing as* used in the *Wall Street Journal,* sampled from the *British National Corpus* (BNC) cited in Harmer

```
          no matter how much of some other good  thing. And the administration does not really
             rake such concessions, that is one  thing. But for the king to be the one to make
              to nurture a child or do the right  thing by our parents. Lee Atwater, stricken
                 John Major envisions some vague  thing called a "Citizen's Charter" which
            The proposal "sounds like the same   thing he's been doing all along, using
    U.S. and Japan are trying to do the same     thing, he says. Slugs, it seems, have
             about lawyers. A few minutes into the thing, however, and it is clear that these
               Moody's said it's concerned the same thing may happen to the 33 issues under
       "Once martial law is declared, the first  thing (Moscow) will do is stop this kind of
        "Node" figure of a few years back are a  thing of the past. The ads bear a strong
                 "confident" he is doing the right thing. Schneider, a European power in the
             Scud missile launchers, said the only thing still holding Israel back is a lack
               also might have played a role. One thing that certainly had a part in the
              in governing ourselves. The only    thing that is important, and that makes our
    rabbits to pull out of a hat. The only       thing that will save this company is product
     says. "Losing subscribers is the last       thing the newspaper industry needs." At
     he can choose to focus on "the vision        thing. "The old argument — that recognizing
    of the people who go in for this kind of      thing. "They're medieval junkies," she says.
             Crop substitution won't be an easy  thing to accomplish as long as North America
                    — Bookshelf: The Next Best    Thing to Being There?----- By Lee
```

Nowadays, there are many computer software programmes that help to create the concordance of a word in a context easily; for example, WordCruncher - a concordance program which produces frequency lists of corpora and key words in a context displays, searches words, word combinations and parts of words and another example is TACT which offers roughly the same features as WordCruncher does, including a collocate function and a display which shows a word's distribution within the corpus. Also another version of TACT -TACTWeb is a concordance program based on TACT but designed for the World Wide.

2.2.7. Relationship between words

Every time we use a vocabulary item, we choose it rather than any other, as in the example of *tall* and *long* when a person is mentioned we prefer tall: e.g. John is very tall. If the subject is not a person we prefer long, like in the example 'her hair is very long'. These examples show that some kind of meaning relation exists between items. In this part the following issues will be explained: how words are related to one another in terms of their meaning; how similar they are to one another; how they may or may not substitute for one another. McCarthy (1995, p. 16) describes that "the relations which most language teachers encounter with the greatest frequency in day to day teaching are synonym, antonym, and hyponymy. These are respectively relations of sameness, oppositeness, and inclusion".

2.2.7.1. Synonym

Perhaps the most obvious meaning relationship between two words is that they can both mean the same thing. In this case, we talk of the two words being synonym. Beauer (1998) exemplifies synonym that Americans call a truck whereas, the British call a lorry. Thus, we can say that truck and lorry are synonyms, and he emphasizes that if synonyms are thought to be words which always mean the same thing, so one of them can replace the other in absolutely any sentence, then synonyms are extraordinarily rare. It is not possible to say that two items are exact synonyms. McCarthy (1995) listed some reasons of not being exact synonym of a word considering Collinson (1939):

1. Two words may be close in meaning and yet not collocate with the same items. Native speakers of English would accept A, but not B or C:

A   The baby began /started to cry as soon as they had left.

B * I couldn't begin my car; the battery was flat.

C * Before the world started, only God existed.

2. Words may have different syntactic behavior. ' Leave' and 'depart' may refer to the same event but with different syntactic restrictions:

A The plane leaves/departs from Gatwick, not Heathrow.

B We left the house at six.

C We departed the house at six.

3. Words may belong to different contexts and situations. We are here concerned with distinctions such as technical/ non-technical, speech/writing, formal/ informal, etc.

4. Words may be separated by geographical distribution. British use 'lifts', Americans use 'elevators'.

5. Some words may be more archaic than others, and in the process of dropping out of the language, for example 'wireless' and 'aerodrome' have been superseded by 'radio' and 'airport' in modern English.

The reasons listed above show that two different words can have similar meaning but they may have some differences in terms of collocation, syntactic restriction, context, geographical distribution; thus an exact synonym cannot be mentioned.

2.2.7.2. Antonym

The term antonym is used rather loosely in ordinary language to talk about the way in which buy is 'opposite to' sell and good is 'opposite to' bad, even though these are rather different kinds of 'opposite'. Beauer (1998) states that the term antonym is preferred to be restricted by linguists to those opposites which are labeled by adjectives as being at the opposite ends of some scale, and which can thus be called as being gradable: good versus bad, deep versus shallow, pleased versus displeased and desirable versus undesirable. There are three different types of oppositeness: complementary, gradable antonyms and converses.

Complementary antonyms are pairs of words like male-female, true-false, alive-dead, single-married, pass-fail, boy-girl, etc. In this type, the members of a pair are complementary to each other and Carter says (1987, p. 19) "... there is no continuum or gradation between the terms". That is to say, the assertion of one is the denial of the other, the denial of one is the assertion of the other. For example, if a person is not dead, he must be alive; if he is dead, he must not be alive. There is no intermediate ground between the two. A man can be neither *alive* nor *dead*.

Gradable antonym is the most common type of antonym. When we say two words are antonyms, we usually mean pairs of words like *good: bad, long: short, big: small.* Such pairs are examples of gradable antonym. Gairns and Redman (1986, p. 27) give an example which grades small and big on a scale:

Huge / very big / BIG / quite big/ medium-sized / quite small / SMALL / tiny

Gradable antonyms are mainly adjectives and they have the following characteristics: First, they are gradable. That is, the members of a pair differ in terms of degree. The denial of one is not necessarily the assertion of the other. Something which is not "good" is not necessarily "bad". There is a great common ground in between. Second, antonyms of this kind are graded against different norms. There is no absolute criterion by which we may say something is *good* or *bad*, *long* or *short*, *big* or *small.* The criterion varies with the object described. *A big car* is in fact much smaller than *a small plane*.

Converse antonym is also known as relational opposites. Useini (2003, p. 36) explains the converses as "...contrastive lexical relations where there is a measure of logical reciprocity". Pairs of words like *buy: sell, lend: borrow, give: receive, parent: child, husband: wife, host: guest, employer: employee, teacher: student, above: below, before: after* belong to this type of antonym. In this type of antonym, the members of a pair do not constitute a positive-negative opposition. They show the reversal of a relationship between two entities. *X buys something from Y* means the same as *Y sells something to X. X is the parent of Y* means the same as *Y is the child of X.* It is the same relationship seen from two different angles.

2.2.7.3. Hyponymy

This is the term for the relation of inclusiveness. Aitchison (1996) defines the hyponymy as the meaning relation when red, yellow, blue are presented under the label colour. It is a matter of class membership. For example, the meaning of *desk* is included in that of *furniture*, the meaning of *tiger* is included in that of *animal*, and the meaning of *rose* is included in that of *flower*. In the Diagram 2.1., you may see an example of hyponymy.
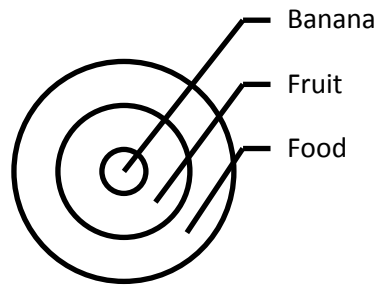
Diagram 2.1. Hyponymy of a word 'food'

2.3. Active and Passive Vocabulary

Active and passive vocabulary is an important issue that should be known by the teachers for teaching application. As stated in the research purpose, knowing this difference will affect a teacher in choosing which vocabulary items will be taught. A learner's passive vocabulary is the words that they understand but don't produce yet. This can be compared with active vocabulary items, which are words that learners understand and use in speaking or writing. Celce-Murcia and McIntosh (1979) state that active use of vocabulary in speaking or writing includes co-existent receptive and productive usage. Hedge (2000) explains that passive vocabulary cannot be easily produced in speech or writing as active vocabulary on the other hand that can be recognized in a context.

Many advanced English learners have a large passive vocabulary, but they worry about the size of their active vocabulary. They can understand many difficult English words when reading or listening, but they do not use most of them when speaking or writing in English. They feel that this is a problem. They would like to use all the difficult words that they know. People understand many more words than they use in their own conversations. The total number of words actively used in one's whole life is much smaller than the total number of words understood in one's whole life. This statement has nothing to do with foreign languages. It is about how people use their native language. In their native language, there are thousands of words that they do not use (but they understand them all). It has been estimated that an English native speaker can understand between 45,000 and 60,000 items, but "no native speaker would pretend that his productive vocabulary would approach this figure" (Gairns and Redman 1986, p. 65). Allen (1983, p. 195) states that "even in our own native language, we recognize and understand many more words than we say or write." Additionally, you notice most

of the words in your second language that you understand but never use. At some point, your English active vocabulary will simply let you express anything you want just like your active vocabulary in your native language.

An understanding of this distinction will influence one's approach to the teaching of vocabulary. Likewise, vocabulary items necessary for the development of formal reading and writing skills may not be appropriate when one is learning the less formal vocabulary typical of listening or speaking. Another related consideration is that the teacher must decide whether passive vocabulary is to be learned permanently or temporarily (i.e., acquired merely to understand a given passage in a piece of writing or a movie with no consideration for later use). All these factors can influence the way vocabulary is presented and taught in the ESL classroom.

2.4. Knowing a Word

Much information about word and its relations have been explained so far; however, we do not mention how we decide that we know a word. It can be seen that knowing a word is a complex concept. Learning a word in isolation does not enable us to use it adequately, as words might need other particular words to accompany them. Learning the written form of the word does not mean that we can pronounce it properly. Unless grammatical patterns in which to use the word have been mastered we will not be able to use it accurately. Nation (1990, p. 31) explains what knowing a word requires:

a. the meaning(s) of the word.

b. the written form of the word.

c. the spoken form of the word.

d. the grammatical behavior of the word.

e. the collocations of the word.

f. the register of the word.

g. the frequency of the word.

These are different kinds of knowledge that generates the elements of knowing a word. Wallace (1982) approaches knowing a word in terms of abilities like:

a. recognize it in its spoken or written form;

b. recall it at will;

c. relate it to an appropriate object or concept;

d. use it in the appropriate grammatical form;

e. pronounce it in a recognizable way in speech;

f. spell it correctly in writing;

g. use it with the words it correctly goes with, in the correct collocation;

h. use it at the appropriate level of formality;

i. be aware of its connotations and associations.

(p. 27)

For learners of other languages there is a tremendous amount of work to be done in building up word knowledge to cover all criteria of knowing a word. Teachers need to keep in mind that students need on-going exposure to all these possibilities so that the knowledge is built up. Each time a word is encountered in a new way it should result in an increase of the knowledge of the word. Teachers can help by using lots of words in lots of situations and by drawing learners' attention to the features mentioned above and also share the levels with them so that they can say at which level they know the word. This makes them aware of what they need to do about that word.

2.5. The Importance of Vocabulary

Most students spend many years studying English grammar, but they still cannot speak fluent, natural English. Grammar is only a part of a language. No doubt, knowing the grammar can help us speak and write correctly. "When students travel, they don't carry grammar books, they carry dictionaries" (Lewis, 1993, p. 3). However, more importantly, you need to have a good vocabulary capacity to speak and write naturally and effectively. One crucial factor is the amount of vocabulary one possesses as vocabulary forms, the biggest part of the meaning of any language (McCarthy, 1995). Having a good vocabulary is more than knowing a large amount of words: the point of

having a good vocabulary is being able to choose words with greater precision. If every word is thought to be a tool, ready to be used at the right time, the more tools you master, the better your chances are of finding the right one for the communication task at hand. But having a huge stock of words at your disposal is not the ultimate goal. Every time you grasp a new word, you end up with more than just a new tool: you understand the ones you already know better.

Learning a second language involves the manipulation of four main skills; speaking, writing, listening and reading, which lead to effective communication. As Zimmerman notes, "Vocabulary is central to language and of critical importance to the typical language learner" (1997, p. 5). Lack of vocabulary knowledge will result in lack of meaningful communication. By comparing the meaning of new words with the ones you already know, you understand them in a deeper way, enabling you to choose them more effectively. This means knowing the easier words and their meaning more thoroughly. Hence, a good vocabulary often makes your communication simpler but more effective.

2.6. Teaching and Learning

Learning as a concept can be defined (Atkinson et al., 1993) as an output or a change in one's behavior permanently caused by regular practice. Brown (1994, p. 79) explains learning as "acquiring or getting knowledge of a subject or a skill by study, experience or instruction". Brown also clarifies some components for the definition of learning in seven categories:

(1) Learning is acquisition or 'getting'
(2) Learning is retention of information or skill.
(3) Retention implies storage systems, memory, and cognitive organization.
(4) Learning involves active, conscious focus on acting upon event outside or inside the organism.
(5) Learning is relatively permanent but subject to forgetting.
(6) Learning involves some form of practice, perhaps reinforced practice.
(7) Learning is change in behavior.

(Brown, 1994, p. 79)

These components show us that learning is an active process and it is personal and individual. Its storage system emphasizes that new learning is constructed over the

foundations of our own earlier learning. We make use of whatever knowledge and experience we already have in order to help us learn and understand new things.

Another concept which should not be separated from learning is teaching. Teaching as a simple definition is enabling learners to learn or setting the conditions for learning. Brown (1994, p. 7) defines teaching as " showing or helping someone to learn how to do something, giving instructions, guiding in the study of something, providing with knowledge, causing to know or understand".

Teaching and learning a new language mainly depends on the learner. To have good results of teaching and learning, we should have good learners. Stern (1975) and Rubin (1975) were probably among the first researchers who brought up the idea of successful language learners. The idea can probably help us with both understanding more about the nature of language learning and also to facilitate the language teaching for others. Rubin (1975) suggested that good L2 learners are willing and accurate guessers; have a strong drive to communicate; are often uninhibited; are willing to make mistakes; focus on form by looking for patterns and analyzing; take advantage of all practice opportunities; monitor their speech as well as that of others; and pay attention to meaning. Being a good L2 learner is the first must to have a sufficient vocabulary capacity and improve the quality of relationship between the teaching and learning.

The improvement between teaching and learning vocabulary is also supported by some steps followed by learners and teachers. Brown and Payne (1994) describe these steps in the process of learning vocabulary in a foreign language:

(a) having sources for encountering new words,

(b) getting a clear image, either visual or auditory or both, of the forms of the new words,

(c) learning the meaning of the words,

(d) making a strong memory connection between the forms and the meanings of the words,

(e) using the words.

Consequently, Fan (2003) states that all vocabulary learning strategies and teaching techniques should be related to these five steps.

To sum up, the students are individual learners, and there may be many differences in their learning experience. Knowing all these features about how learners learn will help better or more productive teaching situation. As Brown (1994, p. 8) states, "your understanding of how the learner learns will determine your philosophy of education, your teaching style, your approach, methods and classroom techniques." McKean (1962, p. 106) supports this idea that "all teachers should possess certain insights into the nature and conditions of learning which will help them choose sound teaching approaches and modify and improve them".

2.6.1. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Vocabulary learning strategies can be considered as a subcategory of general learning strategies in second language acquisition. Interest in learning strategies first increased in the 1970s with research to identify the characteristics of good language learners (Rubin, 1975). O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 1) define learning strategies as "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information". This very broad definition is echoed by Schmitt in defining vocabulary learning strategies. Schmitt defines learning as "the process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved and used...; therefore, vocabulary learning strategies could be any which affects this broadly defined process" (1997, p. 203). Cunningsworth (1995, p. 38) regards helping learners develop their own vocabulary learning strategies as "a powerful approach", which can be based on sensitization to the systems of vocabulary, encouragement of sound dictionary skills and reflection on effective learning techniques. Sökmen (1997, p. 225) argues for helping learners learn how to acquire vocabulary on their own, noting that it is "not possible for students to learn all the vocabulary they need in the classroom". In view of the importance of these strategies, it is useful to find out what vocabulary learning strategies are and examine how they help to build up one's vocabulary, and what strategies the textbooks should introduce to learners.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) explain vocabulary learning strategy from three different angles. First, a vocabulary learning strategy could be any action taken by the learner to aid the learning process of new vocabulary. Whenever a learner needs to study words, s/he uses strategy/strategies to do it. Second, a vocabulary learning

strategy could be related to only such actions which improve the efficiency of vocabulary learning. Hence, there are actions which learners might employ but which do not enhance the learning process – a perfectly possible scenario with poor learners. Third, a vocabulary learning strategy might be connected to conscious (as opposed to unconscious) actions taken by the learner in order to study new words. Ideally, learners should be made aware of 'good', efficient strategies, so that they could freely and consciously choose the one(s) suitable for them. It should be borne in mind, though, that a strategy that works well for one student may completely fail with another and that for a concrete learning situation one strategy may work better than another.

Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies is based on Oxford's (1990) division of language learning strategies into direct (memory, cognitive, and compensation) and indirect (metacognitive, affective, and social) strategies. In order to cover cases where meanings of new words are discovered without other people's assistance, Schmitt introduced another category – determination strategies. However, he excluded affective and compensation strategies as categories yet shifted some of the strategies to other groups (e.g., guessing). Schmitt's taxonomy is two-dimensional. These dimension are reflecting the different processes necessary for working out a new word's usage and meaning (discovery strategies) and for consolidating it in memory for future use (consolidation strategies). Schmitt's taxonomy with sample vocabulary learning strategies is presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. Schmitt's taxonomy (adapted from Schmitt, 1997, p.203)

	DISCOVERY	CONSOLIDATION
DETERMINATION	e.g., guess from textual context	
SOCIAL	e.g., ask classmates for meaning	e.g., interact with native speakers
MEMORY		e.g., use semantic maps
COGNITIVE		e.g., keep vocabulary notebook
METACOGNITIVE		e.g., use L2 media

Schmitt (1997) defined each strategy as follows: Determination strategies are used "when faced with discovering a new word's meaning without recourse to another person's expertise" (p. 205). According to him, social strategies are used to understand a word "by asking someone who knows it" (p. 210). He added that memory strategies are "approaches which relate new materials to existing knowledge" (p. 205). The definition of cognitive strategies adopted from Oxford (1990) as "manipulation or transformation of the target gauge by the learner" (p. 43). Finally, metacognitive strategies are defined as "a conscious overview of the learning process and making decisions about planning, monitoring, or evaluating the best ways to study" (p. 205).

2.6.2. Selecting What to Teach?

For many language teachers, selecting the vocabulary items to teach are under responsibility of someone else's (for instance; syllabus designers) or have already been determined by the choice of textbook. Even so, McCarthy (1995) states that teachers should be concerned with how their syllabuses and materials have been designed, what criteria have been followed in making decisions about vocabulary content in language courses, and what the goals of particular decisions are. Unless these questions are addressed, it becomes difficult to evaluate syllabuses and materials, difficult to explain to learners why they are being asked to learn particular words.

The vocabulary of the English language contains more than a million words, and many of them are scientific. One of the problems in vocabulary teaching is deciding on what words to teach. In most English teaching programmes, the selection of useful words has already been done by the writer of the textbook. But how many words must a learner know for a real communication? We have to say that the selected items should be useful, but how do we decide exactly what is useful? McCarthy (1995, p. 79) determines five criteria for selection of vocabulary:

a. range (the extent to which a word occurs in the different types of texts),
b. coverage (the capacity of a word to replace other words),
c. frequency (the number of occurrences of a word in the target language),
d. learnability (the extent to which a word can be learned without difficulty),
e. learners' needs (the extent to which a word is regarded as required by the learner in order to communicate).

Teachers can help their learners enrich and increase their vocabulary. They can also help the learners to build a new store of words to select from when they want to express themselves. If any learner can handle grammar correctly, that does not mean that he can express himself fluently unless he has a store of words to select from. Therefore, teachers are one of the very important factors in selecting and teaching English vocabulary, and they have to design vocabulary syllabi according to their learners' needs. The selection of words which are to be taught to the students is a very important procedure in the language learning process. However, the word selection process does not mean that the students will be fluent in expressing themselves in English upon learning that list, i.e., what students need to know regarding vocabulary is the word meaning, the word use, the word formation and the word grammar.

2.6.3. Vocabulary Teaching Techniques

In previous parts, it is stated that a good -motivated and self-directed- learner might be able to acquire a large vocabulary simply by using some vocabulary learning strategies. However, many learners expect guidance of their teachers when they are learning vocabulary items. At this point, Celce-Murcia and McIntosh (1979, p. 247) suggest that "The easiest and clearest way to present this approach is in a formula which, though not rigid, can be used as a guide" and list the steps:

> Step 1 **Lead-in:** The teacher establishes a context in which to teach the word. This can be done by asking a question or by simply making a statement.
>
> Step 2 **Convey meaning:** The teacher can convey the meaning of a word through various devices such as definition, active demonstration, visual aids, synonyms or antonyms, or translation.
>
> Step 3 **Repetition of the word:** The students should repeat the word in isolation until they have no difficulties pronouncing it.
>
> Step 4 **Verification:** The teacher needs to verify that the students have understood the word.
>
> Step 5 **Use:** The teacher asks the students some open-ended questions which will allow for varied student answers.
>
> Step 6 **Model sentence:** The model sentence should be constructed so that, when the students read the model sentence after class, they will understand the meaning of the word from the context of the sentence.

(Celce-Murcia and McIntosh, 1979, p.247)

The teacher can present five or six selected words in about twenty minutes with the help of this approach. It is the most general of the techniques presented below and can be applied to teaching almost any word. These steps should be applied with different techniques for different words so that words can be efficiently acquired. Some techniques such as games, songs, jokes, drama activities that give students an opportunity of using the new words in meaningful learning conditions can be helpful. Rivers (1981, p. 469) also asserts that "vocabulary learning must be active. Vocabulary learning should always be in a purposeful context. Students should be involved in an activity which requires them to retrieve from their long term memory store vocabulary which is appropriate in the circumstances." Therefore, language teachers can help their students by giving those ideas on how to learn vocabulary and they should sometimes give enough time to present vocabulary thoroughly and systematically. Nation (1990) supports this idea that vocabulary should be taught in a systematic and principled approach due to the following reasons:

> 1. Because of the considerable research on vocabulary we have good information about what to do about vocabulary and about what vocabulary to focus on.
>
> 2. There is a wide variety of ways for dealing with vocabulary in foreign or second language learning.
>
> 3. Both learners and researchers see vocabulary as a very important if not the most important element in language learning. Learners feel that many of their difficulties in both receptive and productive language use result from an inadequate vocabulary.

(p. 1- 2)

As a result, vocabulary teaching without any technique will be just boredom and time-consuming. Thus, various ways of teaching vocabulary which are interesting, colorful and enjoyable can be preferred. A teacher should know and apply various techniques targeting the needs and interests of the students to make teaching more motivating and productive.

2.6.3.1. Using Pictures, Flashcards and Drawings

Using pictures is one of the teaching aids that teachers depend on in their teaching. Harmer (2001, p. 134) states that teachers have always used pictures or

graphics – whether drawn, taken from books, newspapers and magazines, or photographs – "to facilitate learning". Using pictures in teaching new words makes the process enjoyable and memorable especially for young learners. They also feel that pictures attract students' attention and deepen their understanding of vocabulary. Pictures can also help learners with abstract words; an association of the words with a concrete object makes these words easier to remember. As Harmer (2001, p. 135) states, "one of the most appropriate uses for pictures is for the presenting and checking of meaning". However all new words cannot be taught using pictures but most concrete vocabulary can; particularly nouns. This can also be a good way to introduce blocks of related words, which is often utilized in foreign language classes, such as nouns and verbs related to the classroom or the house.

Pictures can also be used in flashcards, where pictures are matched to the word they represent. Using flash cards reinforces words during learning and allows the student to obtain the meaning fairly quickly since it is written at the back of the card. Flashcards can help improve visual memory, association, and comprehension. Nation and Waring (1997, p. 11-12) point out a different point here that learning vocabulary from cards, to a large degree out of context, may be seen by some teachers as a step back to outdated methods of learning and not in agreement with a communicative approach to language learning. Since the words are not presented in a context with flashcards, the technique does not include communicative approach. The words in the cards are isolated here and they are similar to word lists without context. For visual students, drawing can be a fun medium to explain vocabulary. You do not have to be a perfect artist - stick figures and basic sketches will often work well. You can even have students do their own drawings, which further reinforces their understanding of the vocabulary.

2.6.3.2. Using Realias

Realia refers to any real objects used in the classroom to bring the class to life. Why use realia in class? To make the learning experience more memorable for the learner is the main advantage of using real objects into the classroom. To give a couple of simple examples, if you are going to teach vocabulary of fruit and vegetables it can be much more affective for students if they can touch, smell and see the objects at the

same time as hearing the new word. This would appeal to a wider range of learner styles than a simple flashcard picture of the piece of fruit or vegetable.

Realia breathes life into new vocabulary, and the chances of your students remembering the new words you have taught them increases. Take the word peach: the probability of remembering it becomes much higher after experiencing the taste, touch and smell of the object. Realia doesn't have to be limited to food or drink. Timetables, tickets, newspapers, clothes... in fact any object you can think of can be used as a teaching aid. A second example would be if you are going to teach some functional language for asking for the timetable for a train. They will see information about prices, discounts, etc. Presenting information through realia helps to make English language input as comprehensible as possible and to build "an associative bridge between the classroom and the world" (Heaton, 1979, p. 279).

Realia provides language learners with multi-sensory impressions of the language which, as Rivers (1983, p. 112) notes, is "learned partly at least through seeing, hearing, touching, and manipulating" items. And interaction with authentic materials aids in contextually grounding instruction by bringing students into contact with language as it is used in the target culture in order to meet actual communication needs. The use of realia, then, can enhance linguistic and cultural comprehensibility, which are both prerequisites for real language learning.

It is possible to use realia to teach almost any subject. Using realia stimulates the mind, and is one way of encouraging creativity by involving the senses. It is a time saving activity and immediate, so it cuts out the need for lengthy explanations. Adults are usually very receptive to realia, and find this technique unusual and refreshing. Bringing realia into your lessons serves as a useful tool to prompt conversation. It also takes some of the attention and pressure off you by concentrating the students' minds on the object and word in question. Using realia and other visual aids will generate interest and help create an atmosphere conducive to learning.

2.6.3.3. Body Language, Mimes and Gestures

Body language is a broad term which is used for forms of communication through body movements or gestures instead of, or in addition to, sounds, verbal

language, or other forms of communication, but physical contact with another's body. It is also a popular expression which is generally used instead of kinesics.

Ray L. Birdwhistell (1970, p. 1), the pioneer in the field of kinesics 'the study of body movement', believes that "body motion is a learned form of communication, which is patterned within a culture and which can be broken down into an ordered system of elements." In addition, his idea was that body language may be similar to spoken language. Movements convey meanings and are a way of communication.

Teachers use gesture a lot especially during these situations: management of the class, evaluation and explanation. Besides that, teachers can use mime, action and gesture to convey meaning. Concepts like running, walking, or smoking are easy to present in this way. Teaching gestures appear in various shapes: hand gestures, facial expressions, pantomime, body movements, etc. However, its utility may depend on the kind of gesture used by the teacher. It has been highlighted that foreign emblems, for instance, may lead to misunderstandings when not known by the learners (Hauge, 1999). This situation may occur if a culture kinesics is preferred.

2.6.3.4. Using Dialogues

Dialogue is one of the ways showing the usage of unknown vocabulary in context. The aim of this type of teaching is to give learner a chance not only to understand the meaning of an unknown word, but also to exercise their memory. Learners remember a word better when it is shown in a natural context of conversation.

Using dialogues that introduce new vocabulary is beneficial for learners because of these two reasons. First, such dialogues provide students with a collection of useful expressions; for example, greetings, polite questions or suggestions. Second, using dialogues that introduce a new element of vocabulary force students to produce their own utterances on a new situation, it teaches them how to show their own reactions, feelings and emotions. On the other hand, it is not beneficial when students learn all statements of a given dialogue by heart.

Moreover, using dialogues in order to explain new vocabulary is profitable. The context of such dialogues is natural and appropriate enough for students to understand a

target expression. The language used in these dialogues is simple and that is why students are able to imagine and understand the meaning of an unknown word or expression.

Using dialogues in teaching vocabulary is also a very motivating way to oblige students to learn. For example, it is beneficial for students to write their own short dialogues. Allen (1983) explains the aims of dialogues in two ways: First it is a way of encouragement for students to find out how much they can produce in English. Secondly, what seems to be learned is shown to learners. Students, in pairs, first make a list of ten favorite words. Next, they compose a dialogue using these words. The more humorous the dialogues are, the more effective learning is.

2.6.3.5. Using Games

One of the problems with teaching English to adults is that a lot of students who have attended years of language classes and even passed written language exams can hardly string a sentence together. How is it ensured that students are really motivated to pay attention in classes and have confidence speaking their second language, as well as being able to read and write in it?

The games will be helpful for these things although some people may think that games are not appropriate for adults. That view is outdated in today's world; language games actually accelerate learning in a number of ways. It is absolutely vital that adult students know why they are using a particular game, what specific target grammar or vocabulary are they practicing, or what skill are they reinforcing by using the game? If students know and understand why they are doing a particular activity they will be much more inclined to cooperate and enjoy the learning.

Games can help the teachers to create contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful. Dawson (1984, p. 53) supports this idea saying that "many games involve concentration, repetition and a good memory -three good ingredients for memory". In the whole process of teaching and learning by games, the students can take part widely and open-mindedly. To win the games each student or group should competitively answer the questions addressed by the teacher or other students or groups. In order to do so they must understand what the teacher or others are saying or have

written, and they must speak or write in order to express their own point of view or give information.

2.6.3.6. Translation

We apply explaining the word in the native language when all other techniques do not work. Paker (1989, p. 39) warns that "teachers should use native language equivalents of the new words according to their contextual meanings". A word can have many different meanings changing according to the context so the teacher must be careful.

Translation is used mostly with low levels as a cue to make words revive in their memory. Ramachandran and Rahim's (2004) study shows that explicit instruction which uses L1 could encourage ESL students whose English proficiency is at the elementary level to recall and retain the words more effectively. Not only is translation effective for remembering the words but also it is the direct way. Thornburry (2002, p. 77) explains why the translation has a big advantage of being direct way to a word meaning saying that "there is a close match between the target word and its L1 equivalent". Because of these reasons, he considers translation technique 'economical'.

When running classes with beginning groups for approaching vocabulary, Hitotuzi (2006) believes "one can use props such as flashcards, cutout figures and realia for words representing concrete items; as for the representation of abstract items, drawing on L1 equivalents might solve the problem whenever contextualization, mimicry, and other techniques fail to gloss them convincingly" (p. 169). There are some words that cannot be introduced with any other technique but with translation but it should be "a last resort to apply". (Paker, 1989, p.39)

2.6.3.7. Explanation and Simple Definition

Defining words by means of simpler words is a technique used by many language teachers. This is not an easy technique; Allen (1983) explains the reason why it is not an easy technique that in order to use this as a teacher skill, teachers are required to have a considerable experience in teaching English to speakers of other

languages. Otherwise, they may not decide which word should be used for making the explanation simpler. To be familiar with the learner helps teacher decide their level and choose the right words for definition.

There are some advantages of using explanations. Useini (2003) explains these advantages in his thesis that with these explanations, extra exposure to target language is provided and another advantage is that in the future whenever learners have difficulty in remembering an exact word they may apply the same technique to explain the situation. From this point of view, this technique can be taught as a way to keep communication going on when it is blocked due to lack of the necessary vocabulary.

2.6.3.8. Giving Antonym and Synonym

Antonym and synonym best work if the learner already knows a word which can be presented with its antonym or synonym. For example, if the learner is taught previously 'pass' for being successful in exam, in the next stage 'fail' can be taught. As McCarthy (1995, p. 108) suggests, "new knowledge is most efficiently absorbed when it is assimilated to the already known." When the word 'fail' is presented depending on the knowledge of 'pass' this activation is achieved as McCarthy explained and learning will be more meaningful.

Teaching with antonym and synonym can also present two opposite words at the same time, for example near- far, sit-stand. Another example can be given as 'long-tall' emphasizing they have the same meaning but they are used in different contexts.

2.6.3.9. Short Stories

Short stories are ideal for classroom use, since they can be subjected to intensive grammatical and lexical study, without overtaxing learners' attention or memory, as may be the case with longer texts. Short stories are rich in vocabulary learning potential Murdoch (2002) indicates that "short stories can, if selected and exploited appropriately, provide quality text content which will greatly enhance ELT courses for learners at intermediate levels of proficiency" (p. 9). Teachers can improve the quality of teaching learning process in the class. The students can remember the meaning of the words

easily and their motivation to learn is improved. The students are active in the teaching learning process. Through short stories the students can pronounce the words correctly. Ellis and Brewster (1991, p. 1-2) give several reasons why teachers should use storybooks:

- Storybooks can enrich the pupils' learning experience. Stories are motivating and fun and can help develop positive attitudes towards the foreign language.
- Stories exercise the imagination and are a useful tool in linking fantasy and the imagination with the child's real world.
- Listening to stories in class is a shared social experience.
- Children enjoy listening to stories over and over again. This repetition allows language items to be acquired and reinforced.
- Listening to stories develops the child's listening and concentrating skills.
- Stories create opportunities for developing continuity in children's learning (among others, school subjects across the curriculum)

These reasons show that using short stories provide a meaningful context covering words related to each. While presenting the vocabulary with short stories, other skills like listening can be improved at the same time.

2.6.3.10. Having Students Guess Meaning from Context

One important skill for the learner's future comprehension tasks is guessing unknown words in context. Context can guide students to guess the meaning of unknown words Harmer (1991, p. 156) states that 'when we come across a word, and then, try to decipher its meaning we will have to look at the context in which it is used'. Thus teacher should use this as a technique; in fact, it is a skill for learners.

To improve this technique, the theory behind guessing should be explained. At this point, some clues may be shown that help guessing. Context clues vary a great deal, and thus can be classified into different types according to different criteria. In Appendix 1, these clues that are quite helpful to guess the meaning were provided (adapted from Brown 2001, p. 379).

Guessing can be quite hard for some situations even though these steps mentioned in the previous paragraph are followed. This can be related to the contextual

factors, according to Mondria and Wit-de Boer (1991, p. 252), mainly include "the redundancy of the context, the occurrence of synonyms and antonyms or words that are typically associated with the word concerned". Here it is understood that some texts cannot be suitable for guessing. Another issue Mondria and Wit-de Boer (1991, p. 253) point out that the following are useful and cannot be ignored: "knowledge of the words that occur in the context, the ability to analyze the word-form (with the aid of knowledge of morphology and etymology), the ability to make use of the syntactic and semantic (and possibly stylistic) context, knowledge of the world, a good knowledge of words in one's mother tongue (notably cognates), and a good knowledge of words in other foreign languages (notably related languages)". These are the factors which are related to the skills of the learner. At this point the role of the teacher is to show the steps of guessing. The effectiveness of the technique changes since learners may make use of this technique to a different extend due to the personal differences among learners.

2.6.3.11. Role Plays and Drama

The terms role play and drama are sometimes used interchangeably, but can be differentiated. Role play can involve students playing roles that they do not play in real life, such as dentist. Dramas are normally scripted performances, whereas in role plays students come up with their own words, although preparation is often useful. For both of them they need a context. Herrell and Jordan (2008, p. 172) state that "in this way, English language learners are given an opportunity to see the vocabulary in context ..." They explain the steps in applying role play in this way; at first key vocabulary should be identified. The vocabulary should be presented at first in a context, for example, in a story and the vocabulary can be connected to past experience. Then the words may be sorted to plan the ways they are used. For the next step, time should be allocated for students' practice and then they are ready to perform. As a last step, multiple word meanings can be emphasized. These steps create a communicative role-play activity.

Through these techniques, an instructor can challenge students to expand their knowledge. Verriour (1985b, p. 150) says "the teacher structures the drama to expand students' current spheres of reference and increase their understanding, so that each drama provides them with new experiences and fresh perspectives from which to reflect

on these experiences". Drama allows students to take risks with language and experience the connection between thought and action. Verriour also states that, "The teacher's primary aim is to devise dramatic situations which encourage students to engage in independent thinking in order to gain fresh insights about themselves and their world" (1985b, p. 150). Native language is acquired through multiple interactive experiences involving vocabulary and grammar. Verriour argues that "drama can also provide both teacher and students with opportunities for actively negotiating meanings in situations which require abstract, reflective thought and language" (1985a, p. 186). Drama provides active communication among students and between students and instructors.

2.6.3.12. Giving Commands

This is the technique which teacher can use in the classroom by using Total Physical Response method. This exercise is essential to demonstrate body movement and activity from students. It is hoped that when students are demonstrating the responses by acting out they will absorb and comprehend the meaningful sentences or utterances.

This technique can facilitate students with the meaning in real context. Students can memorize the vocabulary by looking at the action, even though the vocabulary is not translated. So the presence of action in the classroom is as an imperative to help teacher in explaining the materials for students and in understanding the meaning of vocabulary. Allen (1983) finds the commands useful and explains that when students are asked to respond physically to commands which use the new words, the activity is similar to what happens when one is learning one's mother tongue. By telling students to stand up, put their hands in the air, and pick up something and give it to another students, etc, are acting which commonly and naturally done by students so it is easy for them to memorize the vocabulary or utterance. This technique is commonly preferred for young learners.

2.6.3.13. Collocations

The common belief that words should be learned in context emphasizes the importance of collocations in second language acquisition. Nattinger (1988) states that to know the meaning of a word becomes the task of knowing its associations with other words: therefore, to teach it most effectively, it must be presented in this network of associations. Collocation entails two of the characteristics important for comprehension. One is that the meaning of a word has a great deal to do with the words with which it commonly associates. Not only do these associations assist the learner in committing these words to memory, they also aid in defining the semantic area of a word, and in helping the student infer meaning from context.

In vocabulary teaching, teachers must go beyond single word. When teaching 'arise', don't just tell what 'arise' means and give one or two examples. Instead, you should tell the students that nouns can precede 'arise' as subject. Firth (1968, p. 94) argued that "You shall know a word by the company it keeps" and he gave the example of the company of the English word "ass" which occurred in a limited set of contexts and in the company of a limited set of adjectives silly, obstinate, stupid, and awful. The idea of what it is to 'know' a word is also enriched with the collocational component. According to Lewis (1993), being able to use a word requires mastering its collocational range and restrictions on that range. Using all the opportunities to teach chunks rather than isolated words is a feasible idea that has been working well in classes. However, both teachers and learners need awareness raising activities to be able to identify multi-word chunks.

2.6.3.14. Brainstorming

This technique can be used as a warm-up exercise or as a way to teach new vocabulary. Raimes (in Paker, 1983, p. 10) explains the word brainstorming as "producing words, phrases, ideas as rapidly as possible, just as they occur to us, without concern for appropriateness, order or accuracy". Teachers write a single word in the middle of the board and ask students to brainstorm any words they can think of that are connected to that word in some way. Teachers write down all suggestions with a line connecting them to the original word. At the end of the exercise there will be a star-like

diagram of associated vocabulary linked to the original word. In this way students will have the opportunity to learn new words, suggested by others, which they did not know at the beginning of the lesson.

2.6.3.15. Using Songs

In lyrics, words usually appear in context, the sound of new words is easily remembered along with the melody of the song and by listening to the song, and students are exposed to the new words many times. When using songs to teach vocabulary of a foreign language, the pattern of learning is the same. It also starts with the listening and ends with fluent communication. Through songs, students are exposed to "authentic" examples of the second language. Furthermore, target vocabulary, grammar, routines and patterns are modeled in context.

By listening to English songs, students can hear the native pronunciation of words. It improves their ability of hearing the language. However, the vocabulary of many songs may be of poor quality and full of slang, but so is the natural language used in everyday situations, therefore it is necessary that students get acquainted with the slang. Nowadays, it is very easy to find any lyrics on the Internet. The technical equipment should not be a problem anymore since there is at least one CD player in most schools. Even though some songs are boring, the teacher may choose any other song. Murphey argues that "the supply is inexhaustible" (1992, p. 8) and summarizes this by saying "no material will answer all our different needs", and that success depends "on successful manipulation of the material by the teacher" (1992, p. 9).

Another reason for using songs in English lessons is that the lyrics are often rich, sometimes deep, at times silly or funny, that is something students appreciate. They are full of slang words that are not covered by traditional English textbooks. Some songs touch interesting topics that may be used for further discussion. Some lyrics are even demanding and can be useful when trying to teach students to see the deeper meaning of different texts. All of this should help students when learning new vocabulary. Listening to something students like makes it interesting and motivating to learn. Music also serves as escapism from class and makes the learning almost effortless meaning that students might learn the language without noticing it. Volín (1997) summarizes it

perfectly when he says that we all have experienced it. According to him, a song sticks in your head and it is not possible to get rid of it. He asks whether you know anybody who would have experienced a grammar exercise stick in their head.

2.6.4. Previous studies about vocabulary teaching techniques

English language teachers have been allocating time for teaching vocabulary and trying to use different techniques in recent years. As Nation (1990, p. 2) supports this saying that "A systematic and principled approach to vocabulary instruction results in better learning". They do not give the meaning of the word in mother language; they make use of different vocabulary teaching techniques.

One of the studies on vocabulary teaching techniques is by Paker (1989) who aims to find out how teachers deal with vocabulary teaching in their classes in the State Secondary Schools in Turkey. A questionnaire was administered to 60 teachers and results showed that the majority of the teachers made use of the following techniques: using pictures/flashcards, explaining in Turkish, showing real objects, using drawings, and giving simple definitions in English. However, most of the teachers did not make use of the following techniques: giving commands, presenting in a context (guessing), presenting new words for pre-game-like activities, teaching meaning through stories, using dictionaries, analyzing words, brainstorming, using role-plays, and using jokes and riddles.

Another study on vocabulary teaching is by Üseini (2003). In this study, he aims to describe the current status of vocabulary in Macedonia and to survey the literature on vocabulary teaching and how teachers of English deal with teaching techniques in their classes. The teachers found vocabulary and vocabulary teaching techniques important but some of them thought vocabulary teaching was neglected in Macedonian schools. The vocabulary teaching techniques used by the teachers in this study were translation and explanation, guessing from context, pictures and flashcards, reading texts, and collocations. The techniques which are not preferred by the teachers were semantic feature analysis and maps, vocabulary games, songs.

To conclude, vocabulary teaching is believed to be important and teachers use some techniques to teach vocabulary items in their classes; however, the techniques preferred by the teachers may differ according to the level and needs of the students.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents, the setting in which the study was conducted, identifying the participants and sampling of the study, the instruments for data collection and the data collection and analysis procedures.

3.2. Nature of the Study

In order to plan and carry out research, it is necessary to know what it is meant by research in general. Research is defined by Hatch and Lazaraton (1991, p. 9) as "an organized and systematic way of finding answers to questions". Research is systematic because there is a definite set of procedures and steps which you will follow. There are certain things in the research process which are always done in order to get the most accurate results. Research is an organized and planned procedure so that there is a structure or method in going about doing research and it is not a spontaneous one. It is focused and limited to a specific scope. Finding answers is the end of all research. Whether it is the answer to a hypothesis or even a simple question, research is successful when we find answers; sometimes the answer is no, but it is still an answer. Questions are central to research; if there is no question, and then the answer is of no use. In other words, research is focused on relevant, useful, and important questions.

The design is the structure of any scientific work. It gives direction and systematizes the research. The method you choose will affect your results and how you conclude the findings. Most scientists are interested in getting reliable observations that can help the understanding of a phenomenon. There are two main approaches to a

research problem (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982): quantitative and qualitative research. Qualitative research, broadly defined, means "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 17). Where quantitative researchers seek causal determination, prediction, and generalization of findings, qualitative researchers seek instead illumination and understanding to similar situations. Qualitative analysis results in a different type of knowledge than does quantitative inquiry. Quantitative research provides the researcher the opportunity of familiarizing him/herself with the problem or concept to be studied, and perhaps generates hypotheses to be tested. In this paradigm: (1) the emphasis is on facts and causes of behavior, (2) the information is in the form of numbers that can be quantified and summarized, (3) the mathematical process is the norm for analyzing the numeric data and (4) the final result is expressed in statistical terminologies (Charles, 1995).

Another classification according to styles of educational research is listed (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000):

a. Naturalistic and ethnographic research
b. Historical Research
c. Surveys, Longitudinal, Cross-Sectional and Trend Studies
d. Case Studies
e. Correlational Research
f. Ex post facto Research
g. Experiments, Quasi-Experiments and Single-Case Research
h. Action Research

A quantitative research requires using an instrument which includes measurable and common categories that can be applied to all of the subjects or wider and similar situations (Winter, 2000). The researcher's methods involve the "use of standardized measures so that the varying perspectives and experiences of people can be fit into a limited number of predetermined response categories to which number are assigned" (Patton, 2002, p. 14). For example, a quantitative researcher may prepare a list of behavior to be checked or rated by an observer using a predetermined schedule or numbers (scales) as an instrument in his/her method of research. Thus, a quantitative researcher needs to construct an instrument to be administered in standardized manner

according to predetermined procedures. To provide standardization in a quantitative research, reliability and validity should be considered as a must.

Reliability is the consistency of your measurement, or the degree to which an instrument measures the same way each time it is used under the same condition with the same subjects. In short, it is the repeatability of a measurement. A measure is considered reliable if a person's score on the same test given twice is similar. Kirk and Miller (1986) identify three types of reliability referred to in quantitative research, which relate to: (1) the degree to which a measurement, given repeatedly, remains the same (2) the stability of a measurement over time; and (3) the similarity of measurements within a given time period (pp. 41-42).

Validity can be explained as a situation when a research measures what it aims o measure or how reliable research results are. Cook and Campbell (1979) define it as the "best available approximation to the truth or falsity of a given inference, proposition or conclusion." Insofar as the definitions of reliability and validity in quantitative research reveal two strands, Golafshani (2003, p. 599) explains them in the following quotation, "Firstly, with regards to reliability, whether the result is replicable. Secondly, with regards to validity, whether the means of measurement are accurate and whether they are actually measuring what they are intended to measure". On the other hand, the concepts of reliability and validity are viewed differently by qualitative researchers and they believe that concepts defined in quantitative terms are inadequate.

Procedures for ensuring reliability and validity used in quantitative research are different in qualitative research. Alternate criteria such as credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability have been proposed to achieve trustworthiness in qualitative research. Credibility is related to the accurateness of description and to increase the credibility of this study, three different data collection techniques were used. The participants, methods and sample group were all stated clearly. Since qualitative research is flexible, direct quotations from the interviews were also included in data analysis to increase credibility (Şimşek & Yıldırım, 1999).

Dependability in a study is explained as consistency. Qualitative researchers admit that dependability is a problem since the change is inevitable. In this study, all the instructors were not observed at the same time. As the vocabulary teaching techniques

applied to different subjects by the teachers will not be exactly the same, the definite same result cannot be reached.

Transferability is one of the inadequacies of qualitative research since it depends on the context (Şimşek & Yıldırım, 1999). As situations are diversed by according to the context they are applied to, they cannot directly be transferred and generalized to another context. The generalization done in this study is not in the form of rules, but rather as samplings and observation checklist.

Conformability refers to the objectiveness of the data collected, and to attain this, the researcher has made use of different data collection techniques. The question of the interview was formed according to the results of the questionnaire carried out with the instructors (Şimşek & Yıldırım, 1999).

This study is based on a mixed design including both qualitative and quantitative data analysis. Each design has some deficiency; thus, using a mixed design reduces the problems. In a research study, it is possible to use multi-method that is called triangulation. Triangulation refers to the use of more than one approach to the investigation of a research question in order to enhance confidence in the findings. Since much social research is founded on the use of a single research method and as such may suffer from limitations associated with that method or from the specific application of it, triangulation offers the prospect of enhanced confidence. Frankel & Wallen (1993) state that when a conclusion is supported by data collected from a number of different instruments, its validity is thereby enhanced. To reach the highest confidence, in this study triangulation was preferred and the research was carried out by three different instruments: observation, questionnaire and interview.

3.3. Methodology of the Study

There are two parts of the study; pilot study and main study. Setting, participants and sampling, data collection instruments and procedures for the main and the pilot study are explained in the following items.

3.3.1. Setting

A pilot study can reveal deficiencies in the design of a proposed experiment or procedure and these can then be addressed before time and resources are expended on large scale studies. In the pilot study of this research, a questionnaire was carried out with 10 English language instructors. Three of them work in another university and seven of them worked at Pamukkale University at preparatory classes during the previous years. When choosing the participants, it was paid attention that all participants had experience of teaching in an English preparatory class and teaching core language lesson. Even though some of them work in another institution now, in the past they all used Success series. The questionnaire was e-mailed to these participants to receive data as soon as possible.

In the main study, the questionnaire was applied at Pamukkale University, School of Foreign Languages. When most of the participants gathered for an official meeting, the questionnaire was administered. After a while, it was recollected.

3.3.2. Participants and Sampling

The participants in the main study are 46 English language instructors working at School of Foreign Languages, Pamukkale University. 36 female and 10 male instructors were given the questionnaire. Not all the instructors working at School of Foreign Languages were included in the study because the sampling was based on the instructors who had the following characteristics:

a. teaching at preparatory department.

b. teaching core language course.

c. using Success series as the textbook.

No other variables, such as educational background of instructors, gender or years of experience, were taken into consideration in choosing the instructors in the study. The participants have different teaching experience and education status as seen in Table 3.1. and Table 3.2. below.

Table 3.1. Teaching Experience

	Frequency	%
0-2 years	10	21,7
2-5 years	12	26,1
5-10 years	15	32,6
more than 10 years	9	19,6
Total	46	100,0

Table 3.2. Frequency of Education Status

	Frequency	%
Bachelor	25	54,3
M.A.	16	34,8
PhD	5	10,9
Total	46	100,0

3.3.3. Instruments and Procedures for Data Collection

The observation, questionnaire and interview were used as research instruments to collect data from the English language instructors working at Pamukkale University School of Foreign Languages to investigate their attitudes towards vocabulary teaching techniques.

3.3.3.1. Observation

Observation can maintain deeper understandings than interviews alone, because it provides knowledge of the context in which events occur, and may enable the researcher to see things that participants themselves are not aware of, or that they are unwilling to discuss (Patton, 1990). The classic form of data collection is observation of participants in the context of a natural scene.

There are several observation strategies available. In some cases it may be possible and desirable for the researcher to watch from outside, without being observed. Another option is the research in a passive presence, being as unnoticeable as possible and not interacting with participants. A third strategy is to engage in limited interaction,

intervening only when further clarification of an action is needed. Or the researcher may exercise more active control over the observation to elicit specific types of information. Finally, the researcher may act as a full participant in the situation, with either a hidden or known identity (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973).

The aim of the observation in this study was to identify the techniques which the instructors use. In this study, the researcher was passive and did not interfere during the observation at all. The instructors observed were those whose teaching schedule allowed for such observation, so 36 instructors were observed. The instructors were asked for permission to be observed, but they were not informed about the exact day on which they were going to be observed. Also, they were not informed about the focus of the observation in advance so that it could be possible to observe the lesson in its natural flow. Each lesson was observed according to the checklist (see Appendix 2). The checklist was used as a criterion to determine the questionnaire items in the following step. The techniques which were not preferred by instructors were not included in the questionnaire.

3.3.3.2. Questionnaire

After identifying the instructors' attitudes, the researcher carried out a questionnaire in the second step of the data collection. The observation which was done to identify the techniques that instructors applied guided the preparation of the questionnaire in this study. It was piloted with ten instructors. Considering their suggestions, necessary revisions were made before it was applied.(see Appendix 3)

In background questionnaire, there are questions seeking to find out the following six variables: educational status of the instructors, their years of experience in teaching, ideas about importance of vocabulary teaching, ideas about ignorance of vocabulary teaching at university, vocabulary exercises in the textbook and gender. Some of these background questions were used in data analysis such as education status and teaching experience.

This study assumes that all instructors allocate time for teaching vocabulary and Table 3.3. proves that almost all instructors except one finds vocabulary teaching important.

Table 3.3. Teaching Vocabulary is Important for Language

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	1	2,2
	Yes	45	97,8
	Total	46	100,0

As can be seen in Table 3.3., 97,8% of the instructors believe that teaching vocabulary is of great importance.

In accordance with the previous comment concerning Table 3.3., Table 3.4. also supports the importance of teaching vocabulary.

Table 3.4. Teaching Vocabulary is Ignored at University

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	39	84,8
	Yes	7	15,2
	Total	46	100,0

It can be seen that 84,8% of the participants believe that teaching vocabulary is not ignored. Only 15,2% of participants think that vocabulary teaching is ignored.

Most of the participants believe in the importance of teaching vocabulary. Table 3.5. shows that when the textbook was evaluated in terms of vocabulary exercises, different responses were obtained.

Table 3.5. Textbook Covers Enough Exercises for Vocabulary Teaching

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	20	43,5
	Yes	26	56,5
	Total	46	100,0

Table 3.5. reveals that 43,5% of the participants do not find the textbook exercises satisfactory. The rest of the participants (56,5%) find the textbook exercises sufficient.

In this study one of the limitations is that the collected data were not analyzed through gender variables. As seen in Table 3.6., the proportion of genders is not equal.

Table 3.6. Gender of the Participants

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Female	36	78,3
	Male	10	21,7
	Total	46	100,0

Table 3.6. shows that the number of females is quite more than that of males, with the percentage of 78,3 and 21,7, respectively.

The questionnaire consisted of two parts each including 15 questions. In the first part, the questions aim to find out the instructors' attitudes towards each technique. In the second part, it was aimed to find out how often the instructors use each vocabulary teaching technique.

To find out the reliability of the questionnaire of the pilot study, an Alpha reliability value was calculated. In the current study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .82 for the pilot study. The values that are in the accepted level of reliability (Pallant, 2002) prove that the instrument is quite reliable for data collection. The data collected through the questionnaire in this study were analyzed with Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 16.0 data editor.

As mentioned before, the aims of the pilot study were to see the possible problems of the data collecting instruments of this study, find solutions to them, and make the necessary changes in advance. After applying the questionnaire, it was found out that there was no need to make changes in the questionnaire, and in the main study, the same questionnaire was applied to the participants as it had been applied in the pilot study.

3.3.3.3. Interview

As common with quantitative analyses, there are various forms of interview design that can be developed to obtain rich data utilization in qualitative analyses

(Creswell, 2007). There are three different formats for interview design which are summarized by Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003):

(a) informal conversational interview,

(b) general interview guide approach,

(c) standardized open-ended interview.

Interviews provide in-depth information pertaining to participants' experiences and viewpoints of a particular topic.

The informal conversational interview is explained by Gall, et.al (2003) for the purpose of relying "…entirely on the spontaneous generation of questions in a natural interaction, typically one that occurs as part of ongoing participant observation fieldwork" (p. 239). The general interview guide approach is more structured than the informal conversational interview although there is still quite a bit of flexibility in its application (Gall, et.al 2003). For instance, the ways that questions are potentially worded depend upon the researcher who is conducting the interview. The standardized open-ended interview, on the other hand, is extremely structured in terms of the wording of the questions. Participants are always asked identical questions, but the questions are worded so that responses are open-ended (Gall, et.al, 2003).

An interview guide is a list of questions or general topics that the interviewer wants to find out during each interview. Although it is prepared to insure that basically the same information is obtained from each person, there are no predetermined responses, and in general interview guide approach the interviewer is free to probe and explore within these predetermined inquiry areas. Interview guides ensure good use of limited interview time; they make interviewing multiple subjects more systematic and comprehensive; and they help to keep interactions focused. In keeping with the flexible nature of qualitative research designs, interview guides can be modified over time to focus attention on areas of particular importance, or to exclude questions the researcher has found to be unproductive for the goals of the research (Lofland and Lofland, 1984).

In this study, the standardized open-ended interview approach was administered. There was only one question which was defined according to the questionnaire results. It was "**Why do you prefer using some techniques rarely or never, although you believe that they should be used**?" This question was applied to randomly selected 10 participants who indicated that they preferred using some of the techniques 'rarely' or

'never' although they claimed that they (totally) agreed using them. As mentioned previously, some of the direct quotations from the interviews were also included in data analysis to increase credibility.

3.3.4. Procedures for Data Analysis

The data obtained from the questionnaires had to be collated and interpreted. In order to analyze the instructors' attitudes towards vocabulary teaching techniques and to see whether the instructors' attitudes correspond to their applications, it was necessary to quantify the instructors' responses to the questionnaire items. Therefore, to achieve this quantification, the data from the instructors' questionnaire were described quantitatively and the responses were computed accordingly and were converted into percentages.

In addition, the interviews were important to back up the data obtained from the questionnaires, so they were also analyzed. The repeated themes in the interviews were noted. The general theme units were categorized based on the question.

CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

This chapter provides information about the analysis of the results gathered from the instructors' observations, questionnaires and also analysis of the data obtained from interviews with the instructors. This study is based on a mixed design including both qualitative and quantitative analysis. For the first step, 36 instructors were observed. The observation was applied through a checklist and the aim was to identify the vocabulary teaching techniques which the instructors tend to use. The checklist was used as a criterion to determine the questionnaire items in the following step. The techniques which were not preferred by the instructors were not included in the questionnaire. After the instructors' attitudes were identified, a questionnaire was administered in the second step of the data collection. The participants of the study were 46 English language instructors. As the last instrument, the structured open-ended interview was used to find out "**Why do some instructors working at Pamukkale University prefer using some techniques rarely or never, although they believe that those techniques should be used?**" This question was applied to randomly selected 10 participants who indicated that they preferred using some of the techniques 'rarely' or 'never', although they claimed that they (totally) agreed on using them.

4.2.Findings from the Observation

During the observation, 36 English language instructors were observed during a class period in their core language class hour. The observer (the researcher) was

unobtrusive and only took notes according to the checklist. The checklist covered 20 vocabulary teaching techniques (see the Appendix 2). The vocabulary teaching techniques in the checklist were determined considering previous studies in the field. The checklist was used to determine the questionnaire items in the following step. The techniques which were not preferred by the instructors were not included in the questionnaire. Table 4.1. presents the frequencies (both raw scores and percentages) of the vocabulary teaching techniques used by the instructors.

Table.4.1. Frequencies of the techniques used by instructors

N: 36

Vocabulary Teaching Techniques	Number of instructors	Percentage
1. Simple definitions / explanation	23	16,3
2. Translation into Turkish	22	15,6
3. Having students guess meaning from context	20	14,1
4. Collocation	19	13,4
5. Body Language,Mimes & Gestures	14	9,9
6. Brainstorming	11	7,8
7. Antonym and/ or synonym of words	10	7
8. Realias	5	3,5
9. Dialogues	5	3,5
10. Visual materials	4	2,8
11. Drama / role play	3	2,1
12. Short stories	2	1,4
13. Games	1	0,7
14. Songs	1	0,7
15. Giving commands	1	0,7
16. Tongue twisters	0	0
17. Advertisements	0	0
18. English proverbs	0	0
19. Jokes	0	0
20. Riddles	0	0

Table 4.1. reveals that tongue twisters, advertisements, English proverbs, jokes and riddles were not used as vocabulary teaching techniques at all by the instructors; thus, the questionnaire did not cover these techniques. The most frequently used technique was simple definition and explanation (16.3%). Other common techniques were translation into Turkish (15,6%), having students guess meaning from context (14,1%), collocation (13,4%), body language (9,9%), mimes & gestures (9,9%), brainstorming (7,8%), antonym and synonym of the words (7%).

One possible reason for using these techniques more frequently is that the instructors do not have to present them with an extra material so they are practical. For example, when an instructor wants to use brainstorming, a board and a board marker are enough. On the other hand, bringing an advertisement as a teaching material requires a preparation before the lesson. Another reason may be that they are less time–consuming when compared to games, songs or role-plays.

4.3. Findings from the Questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of two parts each including 15 questions. In the first part, the aim was to find out the instructors' attitudes towards each technique. In the second part, it was aimed to find out how often the instructors used each technique. In this study, the results of the second part were used to investigate the following research question:

4.3.1. Findings on the first research question

The first research question is: **Which techniques do English language instructors at Pamukkale University prefer to use when they are teaching new vocabulary items to adults in prep classes?**

In order to determine which techniques were used frequently, the data were analyzed by means of descriptive statistics on SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences for Windows) 16.0. To obtain descriptive statistics for the questionnaire, frequencies (both raw scores and percentages) were used. Table 4.2. shows the frequencies of the questionnaire results. The research questions about the most and the least frequently used vocabulary teaching techniques were discussed according to Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. The frequency of using vocabulary teaching techniques

N: 46

While I am teaching vocabulary items, I use	Often raw score	%	Usually raw score	%	Sometimes raw score	%	Rarely raw score	%	Never raw score	%
1 Having students guess meaning from context	35	76,1	10	21,7	1	2,2	0	0	0	0
2 Simple definition of words in English	32	69,6	7	15,2	7	15,2	0	0	0	0
3 Antonym and/or synonym of words	31	67,4	11	23,9	4	8,7	0	0	0	0
4 Body language, mimes & gestures	30	65,2	13	28,3	3	6,5	0	0	0	0
5 Collocations	24	52,2	16	34,8	6	13	0	0	0	0
6 Brainstorming	19	41,3	14	30,4	10	21,7	2	4,3	1	2,2
7 Visual materials	16	34,8	13	28,3	15	32,6	0	0	0	0
8 Realias	14	30,4	14	30,4	12	26,1	6	13	0	0
9 Role-plays	11	23,9	11	23,9	12	26,1	12	26,1	0	0
10 Songs	8	17,4	11	23,9	16	34,8	9	19,6	2	4,3
11 Short stories	7	15,2	10	21,7	19	41,3	6	13	4	8,7
12 Dialogues	4	8,7	22	47,8	12	26,1	8	17,4	0	0
13 Games	4	8,7	11	23,9	23	50	7	15,2	1	2,2
14 Commands	4	8,7	11	23,9	15	32,6	12	26,1	4	8,7
15 Turkish translation of words	3	6,5	6	13	14	30,4	21	45,7	2	4,3

a. Which techniques are most frequently preferred?

In order to determine which techniques were used frequently, the data were analyzed by means of descriptive statistics on SPSS 16.0. To obtain descriptive statistics for questionnaire, frequencies (both raw scores and percentages) were used. Table 4.2. shows the frequencies of the questionnaire results. Based on these results, Figure 4.1. ranks the most frequently used techniques with a bar chart. In the scale 'often' corresponds to 'the most frequently'.
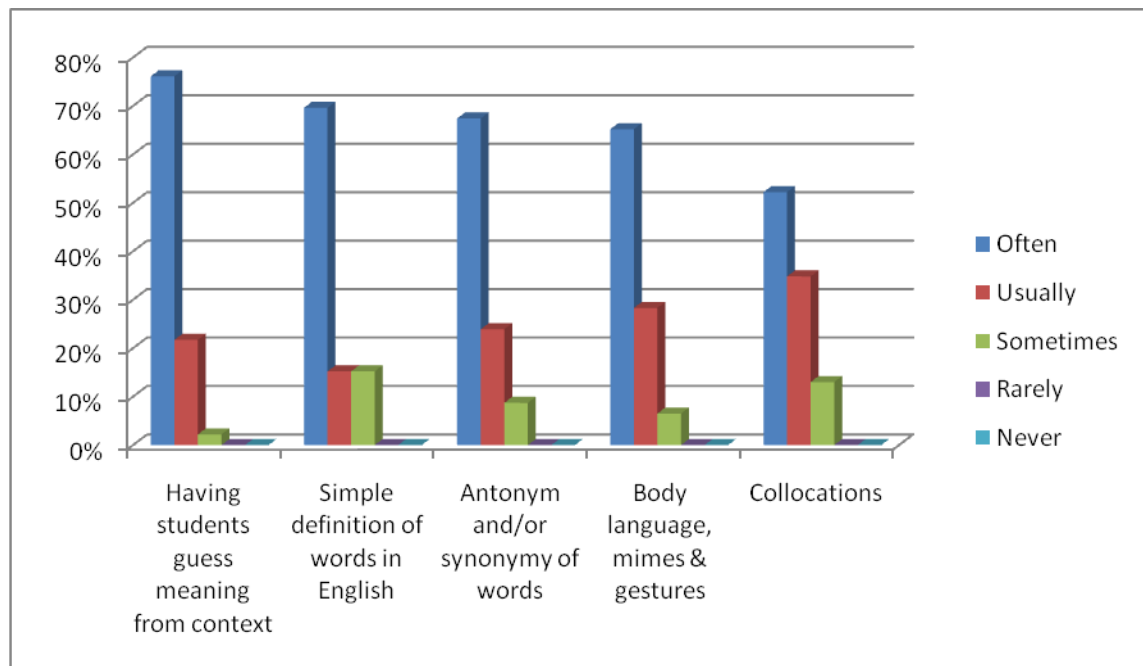
Figure 4.1. The Most Frequently Used Techniques

In this study, the results of the questionnaire showed that 'Having students guess meaning from context' is the most frequently preferred technique among the instructors working at preparatory classes as seen in Figure 4.1. 35 participants with 76% percentage reported that they often used this technique. 10 of the participants reported that they usually used it, only one participant said that (s)he sometimes used it. There was not any participant who reported that 'I rarely / never use it'.

The second most commonly used technique by instructors is 'simple definitions of words in English'. 69,6 % of the participants were detected to use this technique often. This corresponds to 32 instructors. Those who answered 'I usually use' and 'I sometimes use' are equal, each consisting of 7 participants. Similar to 'Having students

guess meaning from context', there is no participant who reported that 'I rarely / never use it'.

The third frequently used technique is 'antonym and/or synonym of words' with the percentage of 67,4%   reporting 'often', 23,9% reporting 'usually' and 8,7 % reporting 'sometimes', respectively. For this technique, no one expressed 'rarely' or 'never' usage.

The fourth technique which is used frequently, is 'Body language / mimes and gestures'. 30 participants said that 'I often use'. This is a high proportion with a percentage of 65,2. The fifth technique is 'collocations' with 52,2 % of participants. For these two techniques, no participants mentioned that 'I rarely/never use'.

In a study carried out by Paker (1989), the majority of the teachers made use of the following techniques: using pictures/flashcards, explaining in Turkish, showing real objects, using drawings, and giving simple definitions in English. However most of the teachers did not make use of the following techniques: giving commands, presenting in a context (guessing), presenting new words for pre-game-like activities, teaching meaning through stories, using dictionaries, analyzing words, brainstorming, using role-plays, and using jokes and riddles. In a similar study by Üseini (2005) it was found that the vocabulary teaching techniques used by the teachers were translation and explanation, guessing from context, pictures and flashcards, reading texts, and collocations.

The findings in this study show that the most frequently preferred techniques have similar proportions. The probable explanation for the common use of these techniques is that they are practical and they do not require an extra material when they are used for presenting a new vocabulary. This is important because preparing material needs time and effort.

The results of the study showed that using collocations is one of the most frequently preferred techniques. The probable account for this tendency is that the textbooks used in the preparatory programs also cover such activities. Another sample from the textbook in Appendix 5 shows a vocabulary exercise about collocations.

Body language and using mimes and gestures are also used a lot during the class hours. This can be due to the fact that these techniques are easy to apply. 'Body language' or 'using mimes and gestures' creates a communication through interaction in the target language. These reasons make this technique one of the most preferred techniques.

Another possible reason is the effect of the textbook used by the instructors. *Success* series, which is a skill-based textbook and cover elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate levels, is being used at preparatory classes. In these series, vocabulary is considered as an important factor to help the students improve their language skills. The textbook covers vocabulary presentation generally in a meaningful context with various kinds of activities. In the introduction part of the *Success Teacher's Support Book,* vocabulary sections are explained in the following way: "These are not just a selection of exercises based on a particular lexical set. They are mini lessons which very often finish with a speaking exercise in which students have to use the vocabulary they have just learned". The series aim to have the learners get involved in every stage of the learning process actively. Fricker (2007, p.7) explains the vocabulary focus in the series as follows:

- The activation, extension and enrichment of vocabulary are an essential element of *Success.*
- The course pays attention to the revision and recycling of lexis in the belief that students at this level have particular difficulty in maintaining their fluency and need help in developing strategies for learning vocabulary.
- There is a strong focus on the practice of fixed and semi-fixed phrases, based on research showing that we acquire language more quickly and effectively by 'learning in chunks'' rather than single items.
- New vocabulary is presented where relevant through grammar and reading lessons, as well as in separate vocabulary section.

One example for 'having students guess meaning from context' from textbook was shown in Appendix 3. In this example, the vocabulary items which are planned to be taught are presented in a reading passage in highlighted form. The passage was followed by a vocabulary exercise (see Appendix 4). In the exercise, students are expected to guess the meaning from context and use them in the correct sentence. There

are many examples similar to this activity in the book. The common usage of this technique can be an effect of the textbook.

To sum up, the reasons behind preferring some techniques more frequently than others can be the effect of the textbook, the practicality of the technique, providing interaction in the class and presenting the new vocabulary in a meaningful way instead of listing them.

b. Which techniques are least frequently preferred?

This part analyzes the least frequently preferred techniques and then findings are discussed. To obtain descriptive statistics for the questionnaire, frequencies (both raw scores and percentages) were used (Table 4.2.). Two comments were made for the least frequently preferred technique.

In the first classification, scale 'never' stands for 'the least frequent'. The participants report that 'Short stories' and 'Commands' are techniques which are least frequently preferred. For each technique, 4 participants reported that they never used them. 'Songs' and 'Turkish translation of the words' come next with the two participants for each who say 'I never use'. 'Games' and 'Brainstorming' are the least preferred because one participant chooses 'I never use' for these techniques.

As for the second classification, it is considered that both never and rarely categories stand for the least frequently preferred technique. When the results were analyzed considering the participants who report both 'I never use' and 'I rarely use', half of the participants (namely 23 participants) choose 'I never/rarely use Turkish translation of the words'. In addition, the instructors who say 'I often use' are only 3 participants. This shows that classification of the least frequently preferred techniques should not be based on only the 'never' scale. As seen in Figure 4.2., 'Short Stories' has higher percentage than 'Turkish translation' when the classification is based on only 'never'. On the other hand, the percentage of the participants who say 'I rarely use short stories' is quite lower than the percentage of the participants who choose 'I rarely use Turkish translation of the words'.
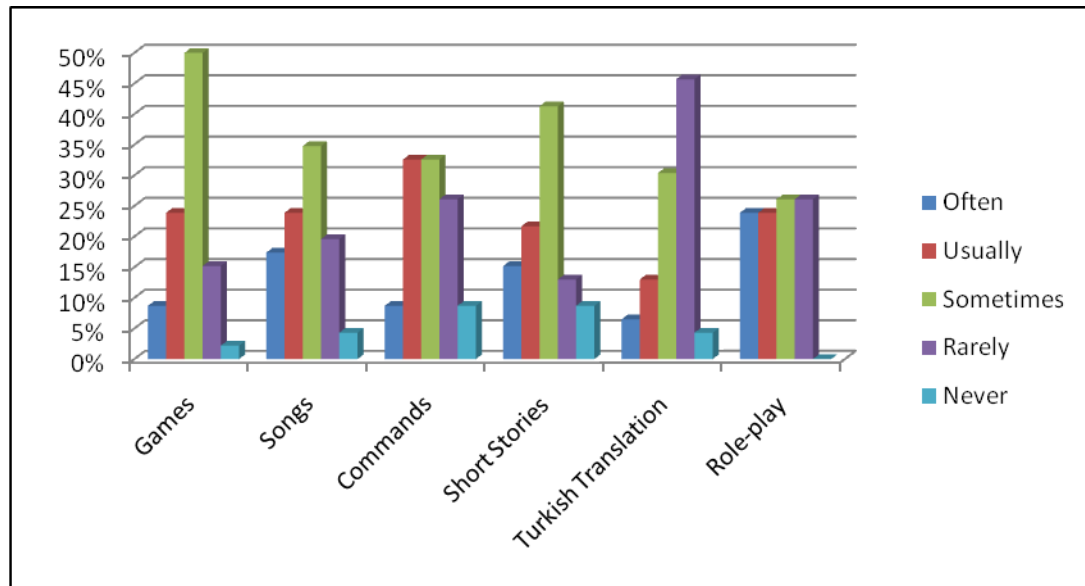
Figure 4.2. The Percentages of the least frequently preferred vocabulary teaching techniques

Figure 4.2. reflects that the best results can be received considering both 'rarely' and 'never' when the least frequently used technique is concerned. Thus, the least frequently preferred technique among the English language instructors working at preparatory department is 'Turkish translation'. The total percentage of 'rarely' and 'never' is 49 % with 23 participants. According to Figure 4.2., the second technique which is least frequently preferred is 'Commands'. The percentage of the participants who reported 'rarely' and 'never' is 34,8 % and this corresponds to 16 participants. Other techniques that instructors preferred least frequently are songs and short stories with the percentages 23,9% and 21,7%, respectively. Although some participants prefer 'rarely' and/or 'never' for these techniques (role-play (26,1%) games (17,4) dialogues (17,4%), realias (13%), brainstorming (6,5 %)), they are not considered as the least preferred technique because many participants reported that they (more) frequently used them. (see Figure 4.1.)

Explaining a word with its Turkish meaning is considered quite different according to the observation and questionnaire. Although many participants were noted that they gave the Turkish translation of the words during the observations (see Table 4.1.), they preferred not to answer it. There may be some reasons for this. Firstly, during the observations the participants were not informed about the focus of the research and the participants were in their natural atmosphere. Secondly, they may only prefer using them when only presenting some words which cannot be explained with the other

techniques e.g. some abstract nouns or culture specific words. Thus, they believe that they do not use it so frequently. Last but not least, the strong negative belief on using mother tongue when teaching a foreign language is probably effective on the instructors. Next, the questionnaire may have caused them to feel in a way that they should reflect the common belief on this technique instead of their own application.

The probable reason for using commands less frequently is that it is a helpful technique for activating especially young learners. The age of the learners at preparatory department may prevent the instructors from applying this technique. Another possible reason is that the words taught during the class may not let the application of this technique: for instance *punish, miss.* Verbs for physical activities such as *touch, throw* are more convenient for 'commands' technique.

The possible reason for using less songs or short stories is that it is not always likely to find a song or short story covering the words that are aimed to teach. Another reason may be that the instructors do not want to allocate so much time to use these techniques when they are teaching only a few words.

All in all, less preference of one technique heavily depends on the words that are taught, the time allocated for vocabulary teaching and the learner type, the teacher's planning and preparation, and the materials available.

4.3.2. Findings on the Second Research Question

The second research question is **'What are the attitudes of English Language Instructors towards vocabulary teaching?'** In this study, the attitudes were analyzed according to Part 1 of the questionnaire. To obtain descriptive statistics for the questionnaire, frequencies (both raw scores and percentages) were used. Table 4.3. shows the frequencies of the questionnaire results.

Table 4.3. The frequency of attitudes towards vocabulary teaching techniques

N: 46

While teaching vocabulary,		Totally Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Totally Disagree	
		raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%
1	Having students guess meaning from context should be used.	43	**93,5**	3	**6,5**	0	**0**	0	**0**	0	**0**
2	Body language, mimes & gestures should be used.	35	**76,1**	11	**23,9**	0	**0**	0	**0**	0	**0**
3	Visual materials should be used.	34	**73,9**	11	**23,9**	1	**2,2**	0	**0**	0	**0**
4	Realia should be used.	33	**71,7**	13	**28,3**	0	**0**	0	**0**	0	**0**
5	Antonym and/or synonym of words should be given.	32	**69,5**	13	**28,3**	1	**2,2**	0	**0**	0	**0**
6	Collocations should be used.	29	**63**	17	**37**	0	**0**	0	**0**	0	**0**
7	Dialogues should be used.	29	**63**	14	**30,4**	3	**6,5**	0	**0**	0	**0**
8	Role play should be used.	28	**60,9**	13	**28,3**	4	**8,7**	1	**2,2**	0	**0**
9	Brainstorming should be used.	25	**56,5**	16	**34,8**	4	**8,7**	0	**0**	0	**0**
10	Simple definition of words in English should be given.	24	**52,2**	19	**41,3**	1	**2,2**	1	**2,2**	1	**2,2**
11	Games should be used.	24	**52,2**	15	**32,6**	6	**13,0**	1	**2,2**	0	**0**
12	Songs should be used.	21	**45,7**	16	**34,8**	7	**15,2**	2	**4,3**	0	**0**
13	Short stories should be used.	17	**37,0**	18	**39,1**	9	**19,6**	2	**4,3**	0	**0**
14	Commands should be used.	10	**21,7**	13	**28,3**	21	**45,7**	2	**4,3**	0	**0**
15	Turkish translation of words should be given.	0	**0**	11	**23,9**	22	**47,8**	10	**21,7**	3	**6,5**

Table 4.3. shows that there is no participant who reports the categories of 'neutral' 'disagree' or 'totally disagree' for such techniques as 'realia', 'body language, mimes and gestures', 'collocation' and 'having students guess meaning from content'. Except

for 'realia', these are the most frequently preferred vocabulary teaching techniques. This means that not only are these techniques approved but also they are commonly used.

There is no participant who reports ''disagree' and 'totally disagree' for using the techniques 'visual materials', 'dialogues' 'antonym and/or synonym of words' and 'brainstorming'. These are also preferred to be used at a moderate level.

'Role play', 'games', 'songs', 'short stories' are the techniques on which none of instructors 'totally disagree'. There are some participants who disagree on using these techniques and report 'I never/rarely use' for these techniques. The attitudes towards these techniques and the applications are parallel to each other.

Only one participant 'totally disagrees' on giving 'simple definitions of the words in English' although this technique is the second most frequently preferred technique. Three participants totally disagree on using 'Turkish translation of the words' as a result of this attitude Turkish translation is also the least frequently preferred technique.

The first part of the second question is '**What are the attitudes of English language instructors towards vocabulary teaching when their education status is concerned'**? The frequency of the instructors according to their education status was given in Table 3.2.. 25 instructors at Pamukkale University have Bachelor's Degree, 16 instructors have Master Degree and 5 instructors have PhD degree. In order to show the instructors' attitudes, the findings were computed on Microsoft Office Excel programme. Three diagrams show the attitudes of the instructors with different education status.

a. **The Attitudes of Instructors with Bachelor's Degree Towards Vocabulary Teaching Techniques**

Figure 4.3. presents the attitudes of the instructors who have Bachelor's Degree. The techniques were listed with the percentages of frequency; the raw scores are in Appendix 6:
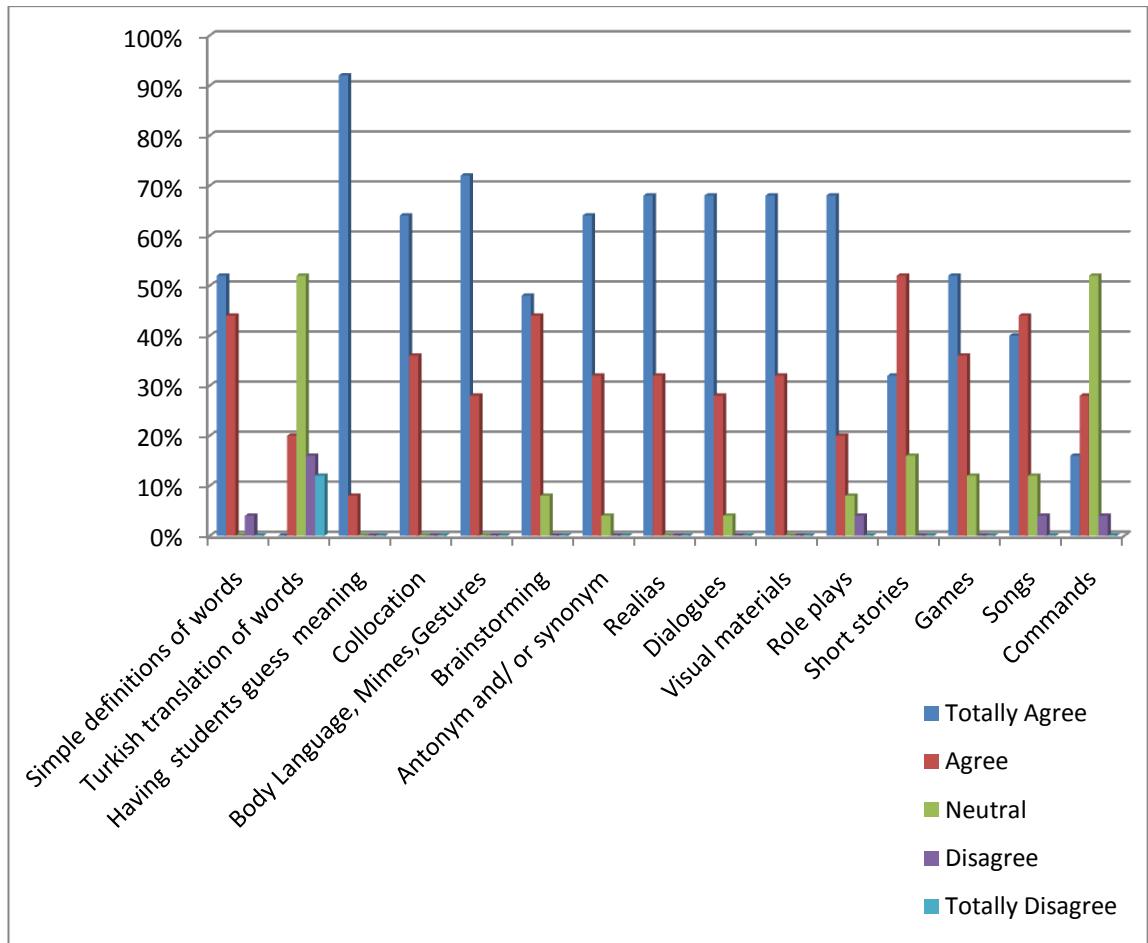
Figure 4.3. The percentages of the Instructors' Attitude with Bachelor's Degree

Figure 4.3. shows that instructors with Bachelor's Degree have positive attitude towards these techniques: 'simple definitions of words', 'having students guess meaning from context', 'collocations', 'body language, mimes& gestures', 'brainstorming', 'antonym and/or synonym of words', 'realia', 'dialogues', 'visual materials', 'role plays', 'games' and 'songs'.

Most of the instructors with Bachelor's Degree are neutral about these techniques: 'commands', 'Turkish translation of words'. Moreover, some instructors totally disagree on using 'Turkish translation of words.' This is the only technique which some of the Bachelor's Degree instructors 'totally disagree'.

There are also some participants in Bachelor's Degree group who disagree on applying these techniques: 'simple definition of the words', 'Turkish translation of words', 'role plays', 'songs' and 'games'.

Bachelor's Degree findings are parallel to all instructors' attitudes towards vocabulary teaching, with the exception of the technique 'simple definition of words' because there is only one participant who disagrees on this technique and (s)he is in Bachelor's Degree group.

b. The Attitudes of Instructors with Master's Degree Towards Vocabulary Teaching Techniques

In this study, 16 participants have Master's degree (34,8%). Figure 4.4. presents the attitudes of the instructors who have Master's Degree. The techniques were listed in Figure 4.4. with the percentages of frequency and the raw scores were shown in Appendix 7.

Instructors who have Master's Degree expressed that they (totally) agreed on most of the techniques such as 'realia', 'body language, mimes and gestures', 'collocation', 'antonym and synonym of the words' and 'having students guess meaning from context'. None of the participants in this group is 'neutral' about these techniques. Only one participant in this group choose 'I totally disagree' on 'simple definitions of the words'. Participants generally reported ' I (totally) agree' for this technique.

Participants' attitude towards 'Turkish translation of words' show that 'agree' and 'neutral' categories on the scale seem to have the same distribution (6 participants with 37,5%). 4 participants (25%) report that they 'disagree' on Turkish translation of the words.
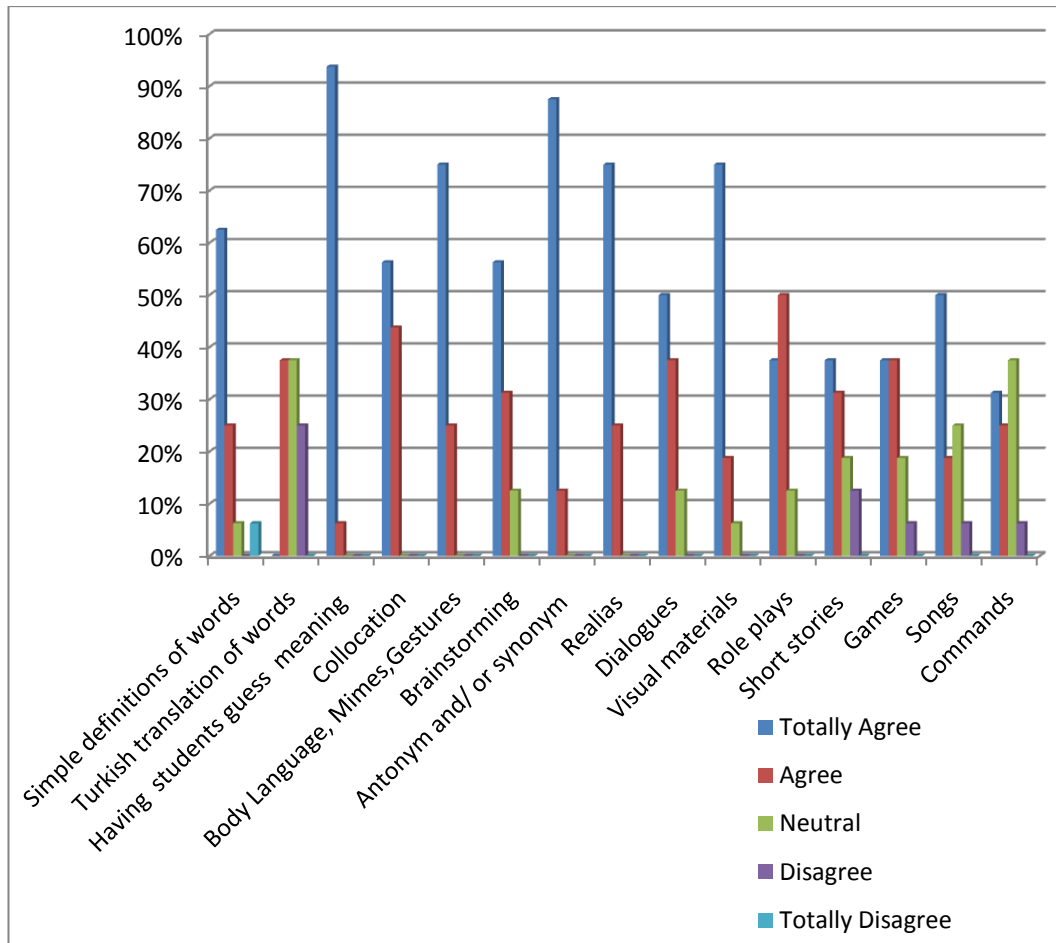
Figure 4.4. The percentage of the Instructors' Attitude with Master's Degree

As seen in Figure 4.4. , instructors generally think that these techniques should be used. There are not so many differences between the attitudes of instructors with 'Bachelor's Degree' and 'Master's Degree'.

c. **The Attitudes of Instructors with PhD Degree Towards Vocabulary Teaching Techniques**

In this study, 5 participants have Doctorate Degree. Figure 4.5. presents the attitudes of the instructors who have Doctorate Degree. The techniques were listed in Figure 4.5. with the percentages of frequency and the raw scores were shown in Appendix 8.
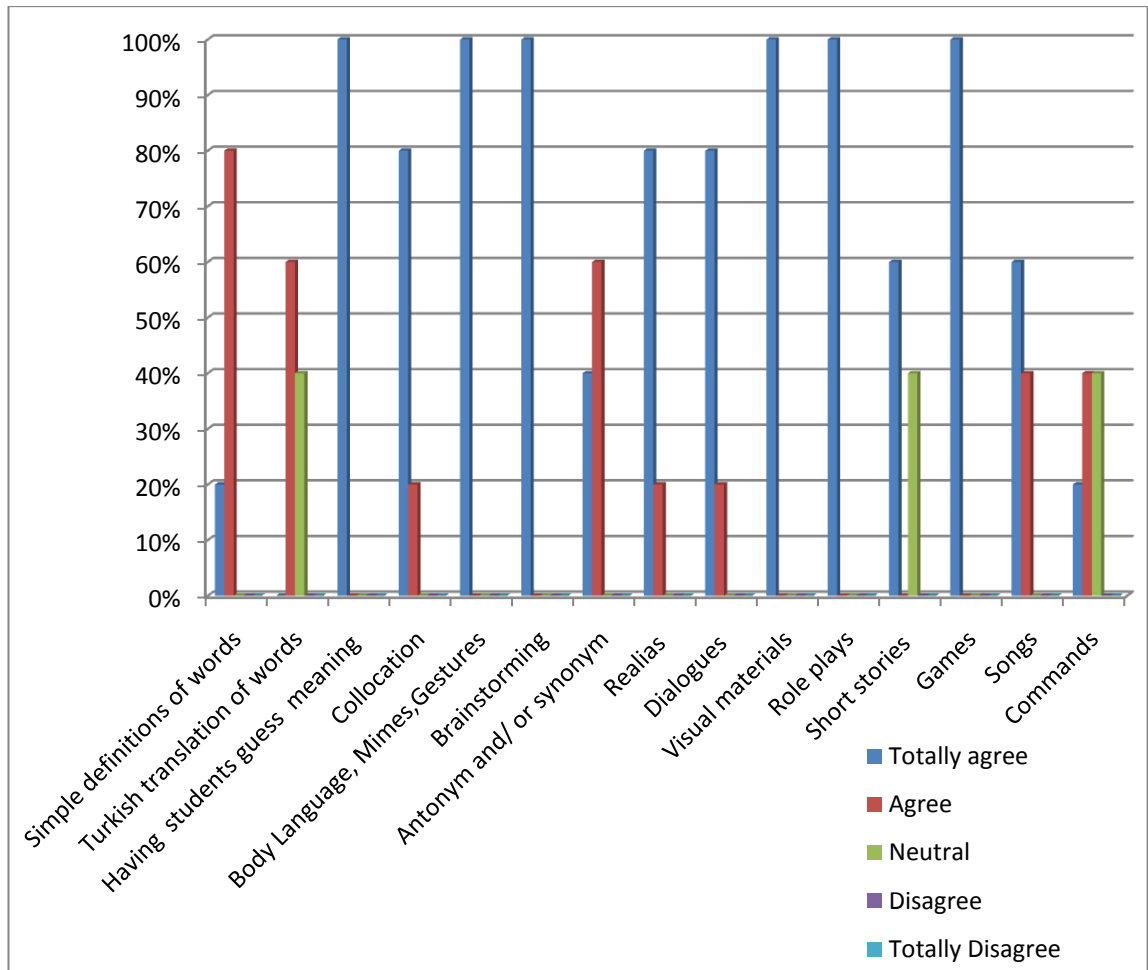
Figure 4.5. The percentage of the Instructors' Attitude with PhD Degree

The participants with Doctorate Degree have positive attitude towards all the techniques in the questionnaire. Thus, there is no participant who chose 'I (totally) disagree' on any of these techniques. Only three techniques 'commands', 'short stories' and 'Turkish translation of the words' were reported as 'neutral'.

The number of participants in this group is quite lower than the other groups, so the possibility of having similar ideas in a small group increases. Another reason may be that as the degree of the instructors gets higher, they may consider the efficiency of each technique better. They may believe that each technique can be used for different situations even 'Turkish translation'.

To sum up, the variable analyzed is 'education status' in the second research question. The tables in Appendix 6, 7 and 8 listed the techniques with the raw scores and Figure 4.3., 4.4. and 4.5. showed us the percentages in graphics. As a result, there

are not many differences according to the education status especially between the instructors with Bachelor's and Master's Degree. They '(totally) disagree' on some techniques such as 'Turkish translation of words', 'role plays', 'songs' and 'games'. The instructors who have Doctorate Degree showed more positive attitude towards all the vocabulary teaching techniques.

The second part of the second research question is **'What are the attitudes of English language instructors towards vocabulary teaching when their teaching experience is concerned?'** In the study, there were four groups of teaching experience: 0-2 years, 2-5 years, 5-10 years and more than 10 years. These groups were analyzed one by one and computed on SPSS. To obtain descriptive statistics for the questionnaire, frequencies (both raw scores and percentages) were used.

The instructors with 0-2 years experience were presented in Appendix 10. The table in this appendix shows that some of them totally disagree on using 'commands'. The instructors with 2-5 years experience were presented in Appendix 11. This table shows that one of these instructors 'totally disagree' on using 'Turkish translation of the words' and two of them report that they 'disagree' on using this technique. Some of the instructors whose teaching experience changes from 5 to 10 years report (see Appendix 12) that they '(totally) disagree' on applying the following vocabulary teaching techniques: 'games', 'songs', 'commands', 'short stories', 'Turkish translation of the words' and 'simple definition of the words'. In the last group of instructors with 10 or more years of teaching experience (see Appendix 13), there is not any participant who reported 'I totally disagree' on any of the techniques. Some of these instructors only disagree on using 'songs', 'short stories' and 'Turkish translation of the words'. The other techniques generally were found necessary to teach vocabulary, so they choose '(totally) agree'.

To conclude, the instructors in their first five year of teaching experience generally have positive attitudes towards these techniques. As the year of experience increases, the occurrence of different attitudes also increases, so there may be many different ideas on one technique. Thus, there may be someone who reports '(totally) agree' 'neutral' and '(totally) disagree' for each category. It can be said that instructors with 0-2 and 2-5 years of teaching experience tend to use different vocabulary teaching techniques.

4.3.3. Findings on the Third Research Question

The third research question is **'Is there any significant correlation between their techniques of teaching the new vocabulary and attitudes towards vocabulary teaching?** In order to analyze the data, Pearson R correlation was used. The results can be seen in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. The correlation between the corresponding variables

	While teaching vocabulary,	Pearson R	While I am teaching vocabulary items, I use
1	Body language, mimes & gestures should be used.	,622	Body language, mimes & gestures
2	Turkish translation of words should be given.	,602	Turkish translation of words
3	Games should be used.	,580	Games
4	Brainstorming should be used.	,570	Brainstorming
5	Role play should be used.	,522	Role-plays
6	Short stories should be used.	,502	Short stories
7	Collocations should be used.	,488	Collocations
8	Commands should be used.	,477	Commands
9	Dialogues should be used.	,467	Dialogues
10	Songs should be used.	,460	Songs
11	Antonym and/or synonym of words should be given.	,447	Antonym and/or synonym of words
12	Having students guess meaning from context should be used.	,402	Having students guess meaning from context
13	Visual materials should be used.	,389	Visual materials
14	Simple definition of words in English should be given.	,329	Simple definition of words in English
15	Realia should be used.	,292	Realias

It can be inferred from Table 4.4. that all the values have positive correlation. The correlation between the first two items are .602 and .622, respectively. This shows a high correlation between variables. A high correlation means that the participants' attitudes and applications are parallel. To illustrate, some participants not only believe in the use of Turkish translation or body language but also reflect their attitudes into their practices.

The correlation between the items 3., 4., 5., 6., 7., 8., 9., 10., 11., 12., in Table 4.4. are changing from .402 to .580. These values show a moderate correlation. A moderate correlation means that the participants' attitudes and applications have consistency to some extent. For instance, some participants think that having students guess meaning from context, antonym or synonym of words, etc. should be used; on the other hand, they use them in moderate degrees.

The correlation between the last three items are .292, .329 and .389, respectively. Thus, there is a low correlation between the variables. This means that some participants' attitudes are not so much parallel to their applications. Although they (totally) agree on using realia, definitions or visual materials, they do not use them so frequently.

These values show that the participants' attitudes towards vocabulary teaching techniques do not directly reflect the technique they use when they are teaching a new vocabulary item. For example, 21 (45,7%) participants (see Table 4.3.) claim that they totally agree on using the songs. On the other hand, 8 participants (17,4%) in that group expressed that they often use this technique so their attitude and practice do not match.

4.4.Findings from the Interview

The correlation values showed that there are some differences between the attitudes and the techniques the instructors use. To find out the reasons for this difference, the structured open-ended interview approach was administered. There was only one question which was defined according to the questionnaire results. It was "**Why do you prefer using some techniques rarely or never, although you believe that they should be used**?" This question was applied to randomly selected 10 participants who indicated that they prefer using some of the techniques 'rarely' or 'never' although they claimed that they (totally) agree on using them.

Here is a quotation from one of the interviews:

> *'In my opinion short stories, songs , games, dialogues and role plays are very useful in teaching vocabulary in a meaningful context however, short stories, songs and games are time -consuming activities. We already have an intensive syllabus and have difficulty in keeping up with the schedule.*

And also, in our context, I think that no student is really aware of the benefits of these types of activities, when teachers want to apply those activities, they sometimes tend to think that these activities are just to fill time. They don't pay any attention to how language is used in songs, games and short stories. While playing games , they are likely to switch to Turkish. Therefore, as teachers before making use of these activities we need to raise their awareness for the benefits of these activities.

In addition, what I observe is that some of our students consider these types of activities as suitable for children not for themselves. Therefore, some of them are not willing to take part in singing songs or playing games .

I want to add something more , we don't have enough materials of short stories that are combined with related activities to teach adult students.'

This quotation covers many reasons for using some techniques rarely. The first one is may be the syllabus the insructors follow. As stated above the prep class syllabus is intensive and other techniques are prefered to the time. Below you find the other quotations supporting the same idea:

'...I think that games are also a good way to teach vocabulary but it takes long time.'

'I tried once creating a story by using vocabulary but it took long so I gave up. I just showed the technique.I think that games are also a good way to teach vocabulary but it takes long time.I usually use other techniques except short stories and games.'

'I certainly agree that games should be used in vocabulary teaching but it's time-consuming and we have an intenisve syllabus so when I use this technique I have difficulty in time management.'

'Dialogues and role plays actually attract many students; however, unfortunately, I can rarely use them because of lack of time. We have to make our students achieve a certain level of English at the end of a year, so there are lots of information to cover and it seems impossible to make students act out dialogues or role plays for each unit or topic , When I try to apply them very often , I always fall behind the schedule, so actually the institution doesn't allow us to integrate those different types of activities into our classes, I feel restricted sometimes, if we had a longer

*duration for the prep class, I believe that we would have more opportunity
to make use of those activities appropriately.'*

Another reason that can be inferred from the first quotation is that there is no awareness of benefits of these techniques among learners. When an instructor applies 'games', the learners think that it is just for fun. Educational expectations cannot be received. In accordance with this, the age of learners may be a factor on the preference . Because one of the instructors said that:

*'Games have a legitimate place in a children's classroom, but young
adults would better respond to formal instruction as they prefer feeeling of
learning instead of something related to fun and games in their classes.'*

In the first quotation, the instructor complained about the deficiency of the materials about 'short stories'. Another quotation explains the same reason with using 'realia' :

*I believe that objects from real life should be used in vocbulary teaching
but it is difficult to find every object at school so I don't use it very often.*

Finding a realia is not possible everywhere and this prevents the instructor from using this technique. The least frequently technique is 'Turkish translation of the words'.The instructors agree on using to some extent but they report they do not use it frequently. Their explanations for this preference are:

'It breaks the students' critical-thinking ability.'

*'It makes the language learning experience uninspiring and boring so
students have little motivation to go beyond the language.'*

*'I do not use turkish translation of words while teaching vocabulary
because I do not believe in the efficiency of this method. They forget it as
soos as they hear it. But other techniques are more memorable. Giving
English definitions instead is better.'*

These interview quotations explain the reasons why some techniques are not preferred. The reasons may be categorized as follows:

- Intensive Syllabus
- Time management
- Learner's interest and awareness
- Learner's level
- The lack of the materials

These reasons can be helpful for educational implications. Revision of some issues can make the teaching environment better and fruitful.

Intensive syllabus is the first reason why some of the instructors do not prefer some vocabulary teaching techniques. The syllabus of the preparatory classes should be explained to make this issue clearer. The preparatory classes have 25 hours course during a week. The distribution of the course hours changes according to levels of the classes. Elementary levels have 15 hours core language lesson, 4 hours writing skills, 4 hours reading skills and 2 hours listening & speaking skills. Pre-intermediate and Intermediate levels have 13 hours core language lesson, 4 hours reading skills, 4 hours writing skills and 4 hours listening & speaking skills. All the skills are studied and many presentations and projects are expected from students. Furthermore, the instructors are supposed to follow the syllabus properly during these courses because many pop quizzes are administered and all the classes are believed to be equal in terms of course content.

Time management is another issue that is mentioned by the instructors. The time management is directly related to the intensive syllabus. Keeping up the syllabus requires management. As a teacher, the instructors should keep in mind that nothing can be skipped during the courses because the students are responsible for all the things that syllabus cover. Thus, the instructors pay attention to stick to syllabus. Otherwise, the learners may fail in the final exam. Extra activities or materials are considered as time consuming, for example, elementary levels study three textbooks in their core language lesson, also reading and writing lessons are presented through two textbooks; one for each term. The instructors needs much time to study these materials satisfactorily, so they do not have enough time to use extra materials or activities.

Learners are one of the components of the teaching process. Their needs, awareness and levels are important to have an efficient teaching environment. The learners in this study are adult students at preparatory classes whose ages are changing from 19 to 24. Knowles (1980) argues that adults differ from pre-adults in a number of important ways that affect learning and, consequently, how they approach learning. Therefore, according to Knowles (1980), the more traditional pedagogical model is inappropriate for use with adults. The following assumptions underlie Knowles' (1980) andragogical model:

- Adults tend to be self-directing.
- Adults have a rich reservoir of experience that can serve as a resource for learning.
- Since adults' readiness to learn is frequently affected by their need to know or do something, they tend to have a life-, task-, or problem-centered orientation to learning as contrasted to a subject-matter orientation.
- Adults are generally motivated to learn due to internal or intrinsic factors as opposed to external or extrinsic forces.

Although the assumptions underlying the andragogical model have to do with how adults learn, the model has clear implications for teaching practice: if adult learning differs from pre-adult learning, then it follows that adults should be taught differently (Beder and Darkenwald, 1982; Feuer and Geber, 1988) The students need to learn something related to real life, so when the instructor brings a realia like a newspaper or a magazine article, a real life atmosphere will be created. On the other hand, when they play an English game during the course, they will have fun certainly but they will be unaware of the educational benefit of the games.

The last reason which was put forward by the instructors was the lack of the materials. In school of foreign languages department, there is a library which includes many textbooks, story books, films, documentaries and games. Some of the games are developed by the instructors but there should be more materials especially about the games and short stories. The learners' level and interest must be kept in mind when developing these materials.

CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

This part includes the conclusion which is depended on the overview of the study and includes the conclusions related with the study. Then, pedagogical implications of the study for teachers are presented. The chapter ends with the prospects for further research that offers some possible suggestions for the related studies that can be conducted in future.

5.2.   Overview of the Study

As stated before, the aim in this study was to find out to the most and least frequently preferred vocabulary teaching techniques by instructors working at Pamukkale University, School of Foreign Languages and the attitudes of these instructors towards vocabulary teaching. In addition, it was analyzed whether there was any significant correlation between their techniques of presenting the new vocabulary and attitudes towards vocabulary teaching.

In order to collect the data, this study was based on mixed design including both qualitative and quantitative data analysis. In the analysis of the data, four main analysis techniques were used: (1) Document analysis to compare the results of observation (2) descriptive statistical techniques to analyze the questionnaire, (3) frequency statistical techniques to analyze the questionnaire (4) Pearson Correlation analysis to find out the correlation of instructors' vocabulary teaching techniques when presenting the new vocabulary and their attitudes towards vocabulary teaching technique. As a result of the analyses, the following conclusions can be drawn.

5.3. Conclusions

In the study, at first the data was gathered by observation. The observation checklists were analyzed and it was found out that tongue twisters, advertisements, English proverbs and riddles were techniques which were not used at all by the instructors; thus, the questionnaire did not cover these techniques. The most frequently used technique was simple definition and explanation (16.3%). Other common techniques were translation into Turkish (15,6%), having students guess meaning from context (14,1%), collocation (13,4%), body language ,mimes & gestures (9,9%), brainstorming (7,8%), antonym and synonym of the words (7%).

In addition, the questionnaire was administered. The results showed that the most frequently preferred techniques were 'having students guess meaning from context', 'simple definition', 'collocation', 'body language, mimes and gestures' 'antonym and synonym of the words'. The least frequently preferred techniques were: 'Turkish translation of the words', 'short stories', 'commands', 'games' and 'songs'

Moreover, the attitudes of the instructors were analyzed according to their education status and teaching experience. As a result, there are not many differences according to the education status especially between the instructors with Bachelor's and Master's Degree. They state that they '(totally) disagree' on using some techniques. Instructors who have PhD Degree showed more positive attitude towards all the vocabulary teaching techniques. The instructors in their first five year of teaching experience generally have positive attitudes towards these techniques. As the year of experience increases, the occurrence of different attitudes also increases , so there may be many different ideas on one technique; they may choose 'totally agree' ,'neutral' or 'totally disagree'. It can be said that fresh instructors tends to the idea of using different vocabulary teaching techniques.

Finally, correlation values show that the participants' attitudes towards these techniques do not directly reflect the technique they use when they are teaching a new vocabulary item. The interviews revealed the reasons of this difference. These reasons are intensive syllabus, time management, learner's interests and awareness, learner's level and the lack of the materials.

To sum up, 46 instructors participated and contributed to the research with their valuable effort, time and care in this research. At the end of the research it was obtained from the data that the instructors allocate time for vocabulary teaching using different

techniques but there are some weaknesses in terms of using all these vocabulary teaching techniques.

5.4. Implications of the Study

The results of the study have significant implications in terms of their methodological and pedagogical aspects. In terms of methodological aspect, according to the results of the study, several conclusions can be drawn. First of all, the reasons that are defined by interviews can be analyzed. Then decide what can be done to use each technique effectively. The first thing is redesigning the syllabus at preparatory programs. Making changes to provide enough time for using these techniques can be helpful.

The learning experience should include opportunities to "do", "see" and "discuss" the information presented. The vocabulary teaching should include a combination of different techniques which can appeal to different intelligence types and learning styles such as kinesthetic, visual and verbal learners. As a result, the techniques such as simple definition and brainstorming can be accompanied by different techniques like body language and facial expressions in vocabulary teaching. The instructors should not rely on just one technique. "Variety in both teaching techniques and classroom activities can aid foreign language learners to acquire foreign language vocabulary' (Kassagby, 1996, p. 594)

On the other hand, instructors should keep in mind the learner's level and their interests. Haycraft (1978, p. 44) states that "if a student wants to know a special word, it is usually worth teaching it to him because motivation will ensure that he remembers it" Choosing the right technique and adapting some techniques to their learners' level can be explained. To provide this, teachers may organize professional development meetings and attend in- service courses so they will share knowledge and make always use of methods and approaches in foreign language teaching.

Some materials can be improved to support the techniques. The Material Office at Pamukkale University, School of Foreign Languages can supply some short stories or games. In addition, instructors should be directed to use technology efficiently. Since most of the vocabulary teaching techniques can be applied through computer. The internet provides many opportunities. With the help of the technology, it is easier to

draw attention of the adults. Next, it is possible to find authentic and ready-to-use materials. The instructors may sometimes need to adapt them sometimes. Once they start using and keeping them at hand, the preparation period will be less and the necessary materials for each technique will be ready.

The most frequent technique was 'having student guess meaning from context' so the vocabulary teaching can be incorporated into reading and listening classes. Since the syllabus is very intensive, vocabulary can be presented through all courses.

5.5.   Suggestions for Further Research

The study was limited to English language instructors working at Pamukkale University School of Foreign Languages. Many instructors are working but only the ones who are teaching core language lessons at English preparatory class and using Success series as textbook were included. It can be said that the research can be administered with the other instructors in other universities. This kind of study provides highly useful and reliable data about foreign language teaching process of the country in general and will disclose the situation in foreign language learning.

The learners are not included in this study, the learner's attitudes can be included and analyzed and closer attempt or precautions can be taken in the process to have better teaching conditions.

Vocabulary teaching can be applied in all skills but here it is not studied according to skills. Vocabulary teaching techniques are limited as the ones applied during core lesson. A skill based vocabulary teaching study can have different results and implications for better teaching techniques.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Teaching Vocabulary Development Skills

A PROGRAM FOR TEACHING
VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT SKILLS

1.*Goals*
a.To improve the reading vocabulary
skills of ESL students.
b.To teach ESL students word-building
skills.
c.To teach FSL students to guess word
meanings from context clues.

2.Word building

a. *Suffixes:* It may be a good idea simply to give a list of these to the student for memorization. Roots used for this section should be familiar.

(1)Practice in suffix recognition, i.e., simple exercises in isolation of suffixes:

goodness   famili (ar) (ly)

(2)Lesson and practice in noting grammatical changes   effected   by   suffixes. Word   tables   might   be   very   useful here.

Adj. (good)+ness=N (goodness)
Adj. (gloomy)+ly=Adv. (gloomily)

(3)Practice in word *formation* through exercises in which the student adds and subtracts suffixes. Again the word table is useful. The student fills in the appropriate forms ofjhjfrord by manipulating suffixes. It is of great importance to group words by the way they form variations so that all words being studied at one time add the same suffixes in the same manner and regularity of change can be emphasized.

b. *Prefixes:* These are more varied and less regular and therefore should not be presented until after suffixes have been mastered. A list of these can also be memorized.

(l)   Practice in prefix recognition

(2) Lesson and practice in meaning changes resulting from the use of prefixes, e.g., *in + formal* = not formal=casual. This is fairly difficult. The examples used should be straightforward in the early stages. Here again, the groupings must be of words that add the same prefixes in the same manner to achieve the same type of meaning. Groupings like *un* in *untie* and *un* in *unfair* must be avoided. As these are mastered, more difficult items requiring progressively higher degrees of interpretation may be introduced.

(3) Practice in word formation:

(a)   Addition of prefixes. These exer cises   should   progress   in   difficulty. E.g.,   Make   a   word   meaning   "not natural" *(unnatural).*
(b)   Addition of prefixes and suffixes.

c. *Roots:* These are quite difficult and should not be taught at all unless the student is fairly advanced and flexible in his approach to word forms. For a good list of Latin and Greek roots, refer to Dechant (1970, Ch. 12).
 (I) Recognizing roots. Isolation of root forms.
(2)Effect of prefixes and suffixes on root forms.

3. *Definition clues*

a. *Parentheses and footnotes* X (Y); X* ᵥ

(1) A lesson would first be given on these two types of clues, stressing their physical structure and how to read them correctly.

(2) Practice in recognizing these clues. E.g., Draw a line under the words in parentheses *The panther* (a large black animal rrelated to a cat) *is very dangerous and deadly.*

    (3) Practice in using the clue. Here exercises of the following sort are useful:

The principal (main) *reason for wearing clothes is to keep warm.*

What is the meaning of *principal* in the sentence?

b. *Synonyms and antonyms:* Most students have studied and enjoy learning words with similar and opposite meanings. The task is to get them to recognize the definitional role these often play.

(1)   X is Y; X, *that is.* Y. Students can be taught that an unfamiliar word is often defined in a sentence using the copula *be* and a synonym.

(a) Clue recognitions, both of signal words and synonyms. E.g., Underline the signal word is or that is: *A birthday party is an observance,* that is *a remembrance of someone's day of birth..*

(b) Practice in using the clue. Again exercises in producing or recognizing a synonym are useful.

(2)X—Y—; X, *which* is Y; X. *or* Y; X, Y. Appositival constructions. This can be approached in essentially the same manner as the *is* and *that is* clues were.

4. *Inference clues*

These types of clues require a higher level of analytical skill and practice than previous types dealt with. They should be approached slowly, moving from obvious answers to increasingly vague exercises. The ESL student should never be expected to do the same kind of inferring that a native speaker could do, but should be encouraged to go as far as possible as long as the guessing is not allowed to become wild.

For all three types of clues (example, summary, and experience) the same method of practice in (i) recognition of clue elements and (ii) obtaining meaning from the elements can be followed.

a. *Examples:*

(1) Specific clues: X. *e.g..* Y; X. *i.e.,* Y: E.g., *Iran is trying to* restore *many of its ancient monuments   Persepolis. for example, is being partly rebuilt by a group of Italian experts.*

(2)No physical clue.   E.g. *Roberta Flack, Aretha Franklin, and Olivia Newton-John are popular female* vocalists.

b.Summary:
(1) Restatement
(a)With a physical clue: ... X. This Y ...;... X. X is Y E.g.. *Many products are sold to stop* perspiration. *This wetness that comes from your body whenever you are too warm, work very hard, or are afraid, usually doesn't smell very good.*

(b) Without physical clue.
Either: The same meaning. X, Y.
E.g., *He's a really good* athlete.
He plays sports well.
Or: Opposite meaning. X. (neg)
Y. E.g., *He's* bound *to win. He can 't lose.*

(2) Information. E.g., *The* forsynthia *was covered with the golden flowers that bloom early in the spring.*

c.*Experience:* The reader must decide from his own experiences what is prob ably meant by a word. E.g., *The old dog* snuffled *and* moped *as he slowly walked from the room.*

APPENDIX 2

CHECKLIST

Date:

1- **Instructor:**

2- **Observation Period:**

3- **New vocabulary items are presented by :**

	Yes	No	Example
Realias			
Visuals like pictures,photos			
Dialogues			
Games			
Songs			
Tongue twisters			
Advertisements			
Short stories / contexts			
Translations into Turkish			
Simple definitions / explanation (glossing)			
English proverbs			
Jokes			
Body Language,Mimes & Gestures			
Collocation			
Guessing meaning from context			
Brainstorming			
Giving commands			
Drama / role play			
Antonymy and/ or synonym of words			
Riddles			

4- **Other:**

APPENDIX 3

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Colleagues,
This questionnaire aims to evaluate the applications and attitudes of English teachers to teaching vocabulary working at Pamukkale University, School of Foreign Languages.The results of the questionnaire will be kept secret and only used for academic purpose. Thanks.
Şefiye (Eğerci) TUZCU

Education Status: Bachelor ( )   Master ( )   PhD ( )
Teaching Experience: 0-2 years ( )   2-5 years ( )   5-10 years ( )   more than 10 years ( )
Teaching vocabulary is important for language: Yes ( )   No ( )
Teaching vocabulary is ignored at university: Yes ( )   No ( )
Using dictionary is helpful for students: Yes ( )   No ( )
Textbook (Success) covers enough exercises for vocabulary teaching: Yes ( )   No ( )
Number of vocabulary items I teach during a session : 1-7 ( ) 8-10 ( ) 11-20 ( ) 21-30 ( )
Gender: Female ( )   Male ( )

Note: Techniques about vocabulary teaching are given in the chart below. Cross (X) each one to show that to what extend you agree or disagree.

PART 1	While teaching vocabulary,	Totally Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Totally Disagree
1	Realia should be used.					
2	Visual materials should be used.					
3	Dialogues should be used.					
4	Role play should be used.					
5	Games should be used.					
6	Songs should be used.					
7	Commands should be used.					
8	Body language,mimes and gestures should be used.					
9	Short stories should be used.					
10	Turkish translation of words should be given.					
11	Simple definition of words in English should be given.					
12	Antonymy and/or synonym of words should be given.					
13	Collocations should be used.					
14	Brainstorming should be used.					
15	Guessing meaning from context should be used.					

Note: Techniques about vocabulary teaching are given in the chart below. Cross (X) each one to show how often you use them.

PART 2	While I am teaching vocabulary items, I use	Often	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1	Realias					
2	Visual materials					
3	Dialogues					
4	Role-plays					
5	Games					
6	Songs					
7	Commands					
8	Body language,mimes and gestures					
9	Short stories					
10	Turkish translation of words					
11	Simple definition of words in English					
12	Antonymy and/or synonym of words					
13	Collocations					
14	Brainstorming					
15	Guessing meaning from context					

APPENDIX 4

Reading Passage from Success Series

Portable Phones –
Walk and Talk!

Have you ever called up a friend and heard this: 'Sorry, he's not in. Can you call back later?' Have you ever been in a dirty phone box on a cold night and found the phone out of order? Have you ever thought how wonderful it would be if you could talk to your friends any time you wanted to? If so, then read on …

A

Ever since Bell patented the telephone in 1876, we've been living in the age of instant communication. But there has always been a restriction – you need to find a phone. And that isn't always easy. OK, we've had car phones since the 1950s. But the first car phones were enormous. The machinery filled the boot of the car! More than a portable phone, it was a mobile phone box! One of the first users was a doctor in Sweden. Unfortunately, the phone needed so much power that he could only make two calls before the battery went dead. The first to his patient, and the second to the garage to get someone to come and fix his flat battery. By the mid-1960s phones were small enough to fit into the front of a car, but unfortunately, they were still too heavy for people to carry around. They were also extremely expensive. So, it was no surprise that they didn't become popular.

B

And then Mr Cooper made a call. On 3 April 1973, while walking along a street in New York, Motorola employee Martin Cooper took out his portable phone, dialled a number and made a call to a rival phone company. I don't know what he said – perhaps, 'Nobody has ever done this before!' – but I bet he felt pretty happy when he hung up. He knew that his company was ahead of the competition.

18

C

Now – just over ten years later – the DynaTAC 8000X portable cellular phone has arrived in the shops, and this week I've been testing it. I must say I'm impressed. The first thing you notice is how small and light it is. It weighs a little less than a bag of sugar and is about the same size as a brick – about twenty centimetres long. It looks really smart, too. And you can talk for almost half an hour without recharging the battery! You can also turn down the volume in case the phone goes off when you're in a meeting. The disadvantage? The price. It costs almost £3,000!

But don't worry. The price will come down and soon everyone will have one.

D

And while I have my crystal ball out, here are some more predictions about how we will communicate in the future … . Firstly, I think people will forget how to write because all communications will be oral. And one day before too long we will have phones with 3D video screens which allow you to see your friends and watch TV! More good news: phone calls will be free – they'll be paid for by advertising! And finally, I believe that eventually humans in the future will have phones in our brains! With a speaker in an ear, and a microphone in a tooth, we will be able to dial numbers just by saying them.

But until then, you could do worse than buy yourself a Motorola DynaTAC. Become mobile and say goodbye to those cold calls in dirty phone boxes.

APPENDIX 5

Vocabulary Activity about Guessing Meaning

Vocabulary Complete with these words and phrases from the text.

out of order   dead   fix   dial
turn down   go off   come down

1 Excuse me, could you send someone
to _____ my phone. It's not working.
2 First, pick up the receiver. Then, _____
the number you want to call.
3 Has your mobile phone ever _____
during an exam?
4 It's always the same with new technology. At
first, it's really expensive and then the price
_____ .
5 Do you know how to _____ the volume of
your mobile phone?
6 Suddenly, the line went _____ . Lesley
felt scared.
7 This phone is _____ . Have you got a
mobile?

APPENDIX 6

Vocabulary Activity about Collocations

3 Write the verb(s) or phrases which collocate with these words.

achieve   fulfil   miss
make the most of   overcome

1 ____
2 ____

an ambition
a dream
an aim

4 ____
5 ____

a chance
an opportunity

3 ____

a difficulty
a problem
an obstacle
a disability
a fear/phobia

APPENDIX 7

Attitudes of Instructors' with BACHELOR'S DEGREE towards Vocabulary Teaching

	While teaching vocabulary,	Totally Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Totally Disagree
1	**Having students guess meaning from context should be used.**	23	2	0	0	0
2	**Body language, mimes & gestures should be used.**	18	7	0	0	0
3	**Realia should be used.**	17	8	0	0	0
4	**Visual materials should be used.**	17	8	0	0	0
5	**Dialogues should be used.**	17	7	1	0	0
6	**Role play should be used.**	17	5	2	1	0
7	**Collocations should be used.**	16	9	0	0	0
8	**Antonymy and/or synonym of words should be given.**	16	8	1	0	0
9	**Simple definition of words in English should be given.**	13	11	0	1	0
10	**Games should be used.**	13	9	3	0	0
11	**Brainstorming should be used.**	12	11	2	0	0
12	**Songs should be used.**	10	11	3	1	0
13	**Short stories should be used.**	8	13	4	0	0
14	**Commands should be used.**	4	7	13	1	0
15	**Turkish translation of words should be given.**	0	5	13	4	3

APPENDIX 8

Attitudes of Instructors' with MASTER'S DEGREE towards Vocabulary Teaching

	While teaching vocabulary,	Totally Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Totally Disagree
1	**Having students guess meaning from context should be used.**	15	1	0	0	0
2	**Antonymy and/or synonym of words should be given.**	14	2	0	0	0
3	**Body language, mimes & gestures should be used.**	12	4	0	0	0
4	**Realia should be used.**	12	4	0	0	0
5	**Visual materials should be used.**	12	3	1	0	0
6	**Simple definition of words in English should be given.**	10	4	1	0	1
7	**Collocations should be used.**	9	7	0	0	0
8	**Brainstorming should be used.**	9	5	2	0	0
9	**Dialogues should be used.**	8	6	2	0	0
10	**Songs should be used.**	8	3	4	1	0
11	**Role play should be used.**	6	8	2	0	0
12	**Games should be used.**	6	6	3	1	0
13	**Short stories should be used.**	6	5	3	2	0
14	**Commands should be used.**	5	4	6	1	0
15	**Turkish translation of words should be given.**	0	6	6	4	0

APPENDIX 9

Attitudes of Instructors' with PhD DEGREE towards Vocabulary Teaching

	While teaching vocabulary,	Totally Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Totally Disagree
1	Having students guess meaning from context should be used.	5	0	0	0	0
2	Visual materials should be used.	5	0	0	0	0
3	Brainstorming should be used.	5	0	0	0	0
4	Role play should be used.	5	0	0	0	0
5	Games should be used.	5	0	0	0	0
6	Body language, mimes & gestures should be used.	5	0	0	0	0
7	Collocations should be used.	4	1	0	0	0
8	Dialogues should be used.	4	1	0	0	0
9	Realia should be used.	4	1	0	0	0
10	Songs should be used.	3	2	0	0	0
11	Short stories should be used.	3	0	2	0	0
12	Antonymy and/or synonym of words should be given.	2	3	0	0	0
13	Simple definition of words in English should be given.	1	4	0	0	0
14	Commands should be used.	1	2	2	0	0
15	Turkish translation of words should be given.	0	3	2	0	0

APPENDIX 10

Attitudes of Instructors' (with 0-2 years of Teaching Experience)

	While teaching vocabulary,	**Totally Agree**		**Agree**		**Neutral**		**Disagree**		**Totally Disagree**	
		raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%
1	Having students guess meaning from context should be used.	9	19,6	1	2,2	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	Body language, mimes & gestures should be used.	9	19,6	1	2,2	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	Antonymy and/or synonym of words should be given.	8	17,4	1	2,2	1	2,2	0	0	0	0
4	Dialogues should be used.	7	15,2	3	6,5	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	Realia should be used.	7	15,2	3	6,5	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	Visual materials should be used.	7	15,2	2	4,3	1	2,2	0	0	0	0
7	Simple definition of words in English should be given.	6	13	4	8,7	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	Collocations should be used.	6	13	4	8,7	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	Games should be used.	6	13	2	4,3	2	4,3	0	0	0	0
10	Role play should be used.	6	13	2	4,3	2	4,3	0	0	0	0
11	Brainstorming should be used.	5	10,9	5	10,9	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	Short stories should be used.	4	8,7	5	10,9	1	2,2	0	0	0	0
13	Songs should be used.	4	8,7	4	8,7	2	4,3	0	0	0	0
14	Commands should be used.	3	6,5	2	4,3	4	8,7	1	2,2	0	0
15	Turkish translation of words should be given.	2	4,3	5	10,9	3	6,5	0	0	0	0

APPENDIX 11

Attitudes of Instructors' (with 2-5 years of Teaching Experience)

	While teaching vocabulary,	Totally Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Totally Disagree	
		raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%
1	Having students guess meaning from context should be used.	12	26,1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	Visual materials should be used.	9	19,6	3	6,5	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	Body language, mimes & gestures should be used.	9	19,6	3	6,5	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	Antonymy and/or synonym of words should be given.	9	19,6	3	6,5	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	Collocations should be used.	9	19,6	3	6,5	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	Brainstorming should be used.	7	15,2	5	10,9	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	Realia should be used.	7	15,2	5	10,9	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	Simple definition of words in English should be given.	7	15,2	4	8,7	1	2,2	0	0	0	0
9	Dialogues should be used.	7	15,2	4	8,7	1	2,2	0	0	0	0
10	Role play should be used.	7	15,2	4	8,7	1	2,2	0	0	0	0
11	Games should be used.	5	10,9	5	10,9	2	4,3	0	0	0	0
12	Short stories should be used.	4	8,7	6	13	2	4,3	0	0	0	0
13	Songs should be used.	4	8,7	6	13	2	4,3	0	0	0	0
14	Commands should be used.	1	2,2	7	15,2	4	8,7	0	0	0	0
15	Turkish translation of words should be given.	0	0	4	8,7	5	10,9	2	4,3	1	2,2

APPENDIX 12

Attitudes of Instructors' (with 5-10 years of Teaching Experience)

	While teaching vocabulary,	Totally Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Totally Disagree	
		raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%
1	Having students guess meaning from context should be used.	14	30,4	1	2,2	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	Realia should be used.	14	30,	1	2,2	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	Visual materials should be used.	13	28,3	2	4,3	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	Role play should be used.	11	23,9	3	6,5	1	2,2	0	0	0	0
5	Body language, mimes & gestures should be used.	10	21,7	5	10,9	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	Antonymy and/or synonym of words should be given.	10	21,7	5	10,9	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	Collocations should be used.	9	19,6	6	13	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	Dialogues should be used.	9	19,6	4	8,7	2	4,3	0	0	0	0
9	Songs should be used.	9	19,6	4	8,7	1	2,2	1	2,2	0	0
10	Brainstorming should be used.	8	17,4	5	10,9	2	4,3	0	0	0	0
11	Games should be used.	8	17,4	5	10,9	1	2,2	1	2,2	0	0
12	Simple definition of words in English should be given.	5	10,9	8	17,4	0	0	1	2,2	1	2,2
13	Short stories should be used.	5	10,9	5	10,9	4	8,7	1	2,2	0	0
14	Commands should be used.	4	8,7	2	4,3	8	17,4	1	2,2	0	0
15	Turkish translation of words should be given.	3	6,5	8	17,4	3	6,5	1	2,2	0	0

APPENDIX 13

Attitudes of Instructors' (more than 10 years of Teaching Experience)

While teaching vocabulary,		Totally Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Totally Disagree	
		raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%	raw score	%
1	Having students guess meaning from context should be used.	8	17,4	1	2,2	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	Body language, mimes & gestures should be used.	7	15,2	2	4,3	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	Simple definition of words in English should be given.	6	13	3	6,5	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	Dialogues should be used.	6	13	3	6,5	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	Brainstorming should be used.	6	13	1	2,2	2	4,3	0	0	0	0
6	Antonymy and/or synonym of words should be given.	5	10,9	4	8,7	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	Collocations should be used.	5	10,9	4	8,7	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	Realia should be used.	5	10,9	4	8,7	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	Visual materials should be used.	5	10,9	4	8,7	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	Games should be used.	5	10,9	3	6,5	1	2,2	0	0	0	0
11	Role play should be used.	4	8,7	4	8,7	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	Songs should be used.	4	8,7	2	4,3	2	4,3	1	2,2	0	0
13	Short stories should be used.	4	8,7	2	4,3	2	4,3	1	2,2	0	0
14	Turkish translation of words should be given.	2	4,3	4	8,7	2	4,3	1	2,2	0	0
15	Commands should be used.	2	4,3	2	4,3	5	10,9	0	0	0	0

CURRICULUM VITAE

Name & Surname   **:**   Şefiye TUZCU

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