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**AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON THE CONTRIBUTION OF MNEMONIC
NARRATIVE CHAIN METHOD TO VOCABULARY LEARNING AND
RETENTION OF ENGLISH PREPARATORY STUDENTS**

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Bu tezin proje safhasından sonuçlanmasına kadarki bütün süreçlerde bilimsel etiğe ve akademik kurallara özenle riayet edildiğini, tez içindeki bütün bilgilerin etik davranış ve akademik kurallar çerçevesinde elde edilerek sunulduğunu, ayrıca tez yazım kurallarına uygun olarak hazırlanan bu çalışmada başkalarının eserlerinden yararlanılması durumunda bilimsel kurallara uygun olarak atıf yapıldığını bildiririm.

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Yukarıda adı geçen öğrenci tarafından hazırlanan "An Empirical Study On The Contribution Of Mnemonic Narrative Chain Method To Vocabulary Learning And Retention Of English Preparatory Students" başlıklı bu çalışma ..15..1.01..2014 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda oybirliği/oyçokluğu ile başarılı bulunarak, jürimiz tarafından yüksek lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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ABSTRACT

This is an experimental study focusing on the effectiveness of mnemonic narrative chain method, as an alternative to vocabulary-list-learning, in teaching and learning second language vocabulary. The purpose of the study is to determine whether mnemonic narrative chain method is more effective in helping students' learning and retention of vocabulary than vocabulary-list-learning. However, the aim is not to study the effectiveness of a teacher-provided story, but of one learner generated. This study addresses the intermediate level students at School of Foreign Languages, Selcuk University in Konya. It examines the difference between the experimental group, in which vocabulary instruction was carried out through narrative chain method and control group, in which vocabulary instruction was carried out through a traditional method, vocabulary-list-learning.

The results of the immediate and delayed tests which were given after the presentation of the selected vocabulary items helped us to compare the learning and retention rates of the groups. Statistical analysis of the test scores depicts the positive contribution of the implementation. That is, the performance of the subjects in the experimental group was significantly higher than that of the control group. As a result, this study has revealed that implementing Narrative Chain Technique contributes to effective learning and retention of vocabulary items.

Keywords: vocabulary learning, vocabulary teaching, vocabulary learning strategies, mnemonic techniques, narrative chain method.

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ÖZET

Bu çalışma, listeleyerek kelime öğrenmeye alternatif olarak bellek destekleyicilerden öyküleme tekniğinin yabancı dil kelime öğretimi ve öğrenimindeki etkisini inceleyen deneysel bir çalışmadır. Çalışmanın amacı, listeleyerek kelime öğrenmeye kıyasla bellek destekleyicilerden öyküleme yönteminin öğrencilerin kelime öğrenmelerine ve öğrenilen kelimeleri akılda tutmalarına yardımcı olmakta daha etkili olup olmadığını belirlemektir. Ancak çalışmanın amacı öğretmen tarafından oluşturulmuş hikâyelerin değil öğrenciler tarafından oluşturulmuş hikâyelerin etkisini araştırmaktır. Çalışma Konya’da Selçuk Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulunda orta derecede İngilizce yeterlilik seviyesindeki öğrencilerle yapılmıştır. Öyküleme yöntemiyle kelime eğitimi alan deney grubu ve geleneksel yöntem olan listeleyerek kelime öğrenme eğitimi alan kontrol grubu arasındaki farklılık araştırılmıştır.

Hedef kelimeleri öğretme sürecinden sonra öğrencilere uygulanan son-test ve geciktirilmiş testlerin sonuçları, grupların kelimeleri öğrenme ve hatırlama oranını kıyaslamaya yardımcı olmuştur. Test sonuçlarının istatistiksel analizi uygulamanın olumlu yönde katkısını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Deney grubundaki öğrencilerin testlerdeki performansı ile kontrol grubundakilerin performansı arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır, test sonuçları deney grubundaki öğrencilerin daha başarılı olduklarını göstermiştir. Sonuç olarak bu çalışma öyküleme yönteminin uygulamasının kelimelerin etkili bir şekilde öğrenilmesine ve akılda tutulmasına katkı sağladığını ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: kelime öğrenimi, kelime öğretimi, kelime öğrenme taktikleri, bellek destekleyiciler, öyküleme yöntemi.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. A General Background to the Study

Although teaching vocabulary is the backbone of language learning it was neglected in the English language learning and teaching literature in the past decades. It was given little priority over other parts of language in language studies and also in textbooks during the days when structural linguistics and Audio-Lingualism were popular. Researchers who supported these methods argued that learners should master the basic structural frames first; vocabulary could be acquired later as needed. French (1983; cited in Amiryousefi and Ketabi, 2011) explains this neglect asserting three reasons 1) those who were involved in the teacher-preparation programs during the past few decades felt that grammar should be emphasized more than vocabulary, 2) specialists in methodology believed that students would make mistakes in sentence construction if too many words were learned before the basic grammar had been mastered, and 3) those who gave advice to teachers said that word meanings can be learned only through experience and cannot be taught in the classroom.

However, today one can claim that vocabulary is no longer a neglected aspect of language teaching and learning. Language researchers have become interested in vocabulary instruction and they realized that vocabulary is the heart of communicative competence and worthy of investigation. This is, as Nunan (1999: 103) states “partly due to the influence of comprehension-based approaches to language development in the late 1970s and 1980s, partly due to the research efforts of influential applied linguists, for example Carter and McCarthy (1988), and partly due to the exciting possibilities opened up by the development of computer-based language corpora (Sinclair and Renouf 1988).”

The latest studies show that accuracy and fluency in English cannot be obtained without rich vocabulary knowledge. Thornbury (2002:13) praises this shift: “If you spend most of your time studying grammar, your English will not improve very much. You will see most improvement if you learn more words and

expressions. You can say very little with grammar, but you can say almost anything with words.”

Being an important aspect of language teaching, vocabulary teaching studies have shifted their attention to learning strategies, and vocabulary strategies. One of the problems for language learners is that they easily forget the newly learned words. That’s why *vocabulary learning strategies* (VLS) has attracted increasing attention recently. As Schmitt (2007: 838) states there are a few taxonomies about VLS; Ahmed, 1989; Cohen, 1990; Sanaoui, 1995, and Schmitt, 1997.

It is clear through these taxonomies that learners use some strategies to learn and remember the words, and they can be really useful. So, strategy instruction should be interwoven into vocabulary instruction. As Hedge (2000:118) suggests “It is useful for the teacher to be aware of the variety of methods used by learners to cope with words, to encourage learners in effective strategies, and to introduce some of these through teaching.”

Mnemonics, which are the research subject of this study, are one of the vocabulary learning strategies. They are classified as Memory Strategies in Schmitt’s (1997; cited in Schmitt, 2000) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. Mnemonics, as Schmitt (2007: 838) states, “involve relating new words to previously learned knowledge, using some form of imagery or grouping”

1.2. Statement of the Problem

At Selcuk University School of Foreign Languages students, who cannot succeed in English proficiency exam at the beginning of the year, get preparatory English classes for one academic year, then they can continue to their own departments. In accordance with the curriculum students are taught English traditionally, with the use of course books. There is no additional vocabulary instruction because of the limited time, so students have to be contented with the insufficient vocabulary chapters in the course book.

The problem encountered in classrooms is twofold: first teachers introduce new vocabulary in the texts quickly and it is generally limited with definitions or maybe synonyms and/or antonyms. Secondly, students tend to memorize the vocabulary without understanding how to apply the new words, new forms of the words, or how to use them. Some of them try to do extra vocabulary study with might and main. However they easily forget the newly learned words inevitably.

Students' individual vocabulary learning tends to be unsuccessful because they usually use vocabulary-list-learning to memorize the words or they prepare a vocabulary notebook. They need to be taught vocabulary learning strategies. As Decarrico (2001) states, strategies can help learners both in discovering the meaning of a word, and consolidating it and are specially needed when they are encouraged to learn independently.

Therefore, implementation of Mnemonic devices or strategies can make substantial contribution to students' vocabulary learning in this regard. By using Mnemonic narrative chain method, students can increase their abilities on vocabulary learning. They can code and learn new words in a very familiar context by writing their own mini-stories. So it will be easier for them to retrieve the meanings of the words when needed. This study intended to accomplish a better understanding of how to incorporate the mnemonic narrative chain method into the classroom.

1.3. The Purpose of the Study

The majority of studies on mnemonics in vocabulary learning have focused on the keyword technique, and it has been proven to be effective over and over. However, the narrative chain method, as a mnemonic device, in which words to be learnt are linked in a story, has received very little attention in the research literature. Although examples of narrative chains can be found under the heading of mnemonics, there are a few comprehensive studies on the topic. Upon the lack of study on the topic, mnemonic narrative chain method has been chosen as the focus of the experiment reported here.

This experimental study aimed at investigating the effects of mnemonic narrative chain method on recall and recognition of vocabulary items in comparison

to a vocabulary-list-learning in control group. However, the aim is not to study the effectiveness of a teacher-provided story, but of one learner generated. For this reason, experimental group received treatment in mnemonic narrative chain method; and the control group was taught by rote rehearsal technique in which students are given a vocabulary list to memorize. This study addresses the preparatory students with intermediate level in English proficiency at Selcuk University School of Foreign Languages.

This research hypothesizes that:

“There will be a significant difference in vocabulary learning and retention between the experimental group where mnemonic narrative chain technique is used and the control group that is left with traditional method (vocabulary-list-learning).”

1.4. Research Questions

As mentioned before, the purpose of this experimental study is to see which of the two methods, mnemonic narrative chain method and vocabulary-list-learning, is more effective in helping students' learning and retention of vocabulary. The results of the immediate and delayed tests which are given after the presentation of the selected vocabulary items will help us to examine students' learning and retention.

The research focus has been operationalized by means of the following questions:

1. Is there a significant difference between the pre-recall test scores of the experimental and control group?
2. Is there a significant difference between the pre-recognition test scores of the experimental and control group?
3. Is there a significant difference between the immediate-recall test scores of the experimental and control group?
4. Is there a significant difference between the immediate-recognition test scores of the experimental and control group?

5. Is there a significant difference between the delayed-recall test scores of the experimental and control group?
6. Is there a significant difference between the delayed-recognition test scores of the experimental and control group?

1.5. Limitations of the Study

This study is carried out with early intermediate level young adult students at Selcuk University, School of Foreign Languages. Thus the study is limited to only one level of learners.

At the beginning of the academic year, the students are put into groups in classes according to their placement test results. So, the level of the students might not be exactly the same.

This study covers only 20 vocabulary items from course book such as nouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs.

The number of the subjects in the study is limited to only 40 (20 from the experimental group + 20 from the control group). A larger group of subjects would provide more reliable results.

The experimental process was of two weeks, more reliable results would be obtained through a longer period of experiment.

Gender, social and economic conditions of the participants were not considered.

Lastly, for the sake of not interrupting the ongoing intensive curriculum at school, the course-book on hand was chosen as teaching material. Some technological equipment or various teaching materials can also be used.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language

It is estimated that between 60 and 75 percent of the world is bilingual (Education Encyclopedia-State University, a). The term *bilingual* “refers to individuals who can function in more than one language.”(Education Encyclopedia-State University, b) And we can say that English is the most popular second/foreign language in the world. In the field of language teaching two terms are used for English: ESL and EFL. English as a Second Language (ESL) refers to the process of producing bilinguals by teaching English as a second language to learners in an English-speaking context. ESL is distinguished from English as a Foreign Language (EFL), which is instruction delivered in a context where English is not used regularly outside the classroom, using the instructional techniques and the intensity of instruction required to achieve success. (Education Encyclopedia-State University, b) Considering this information the term English as a Foreign Language fits best the language learning situation in Turkey.

Over the years in the field of second or foreign language teaching there have been numerous different approaches to language learning. Each approach has had a different perspective on vocabulary, some has given importance to vocabulary, some has neglected. To understand better the current state of vocabulary studies, the following chapter will give a historical perspective of language teaching and outline the main approaches to second/foreign language teaching that have shaped the field.

2.1.1. Language Teaching Methodologies and Vocabulary Teaching through the Ages

To start with the history of language teaching it can be said that it dates back at least to the second century, where Roman children studied Greek (Schmitt, 2000: 10). Later, in the medieval period, Latin was the most widely studied foreign language; because, it was the dominant language of education, commerce, religion and government in the Western World. Greek and then Latin languages were lingua

francas of that time. However, in the 16th century, the status of Latin diminished, because French, Italian, and English gained in importance as a result of political changes in Europe (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:3). It can be assumed that language teaching at that time was informal with no textbooks. Perhaps teachers taught those languages by the use of direct approaches and they taught vocabulary with vocabulary-list-learning. (Celce-Murcia, 2001:4).

We know that during the Renaissance, thanks to the invention of printing press, mass production of books became possible. It also affected the language teaching and formal language teaching became popular. Czech scholar, Johann Amos Comenius (28 March 1592–15 November 1670) was the most famous teacher and methodologist of this period. He is considered the father of modern education (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/John_Amos_Comenius). He published books about his teaching techniques between 1631 and 1658. As Celce-Murcia (2001:4) states, “Comenius, perhaps the first time, made explicit an inductive approach to learning a foreign language, the goal of which was to teach use rather than analysis of the language being taught.”

By the beginning of 19th century Grammar-Translation Approach became a popular method for teaching modern languages as well as Latin. It is also called as Classical Method. Instruction is given in native language. This approach emphasizes vocabulary and grammar and students work on reading and writing, however listening, speaking and pronunciation are given little or no attention. Students memorize a list of target language words with their native language equivalents. Students taught by this approach, naturally, cannot use the target language for communication. (Larsen-Freeman, 2000)

By the end of 19th century, the Reform Movement in language teaching started in the 1890s in Europe. As Stern (1983:154) states, “some scholars; Sweet, Viëtor, Passy and Jespersen had set an example of combining their interest in the philology of European languages and in phonetics with a serious concern for language teaching.” These scholars established International Phonetic Association and

developed the International Phonetic Alphabet in the 1890s (Celce-Murcia, 2001:4). As Celce-Murcia (2001: 4) asserts;

These phoneticians made some of the first truly scientific contributions to language teaching when they advocated principles such as the following:

- the spoken form of language is primary and should be taught first
- the findings of phonetics should be applied to language teaching
- language teachers must have solid training in phonetics
- learners should be given phonetic training to establish good speech habits.

Again at the end of 19th century, Direct Method emerged as a reaction to Grammar-Translation Approach. It presupposes that the acquisition of a second language follows the same process as the one carried out when acquiring a first one. Moreover, it emphasizes the demonstration of the items of language through objects and actions. Thus, only everyday vocabulary is taught: on the one hand, concrete vocabulary was explained by demonstration objects and pictures; on the other, abstract vocabulary is taught by association of ideas (Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 11-13).

This method stresses the importance of using the target language not analyzing. Characteristics of this method are as the followings: no use of native language is allowed; pictures, realias, actions are used to convey the meaning; dialogues and conversation activities are essential; teachers must be native speaker or have native-like fluency in the foreign language; grammar is learned inductively; the syllabus is based on situations (shopping, ordering food,) and topics (money, geography, music); etc. (Celce-Murcia, 2001:6)

Later, by the beginning of 20th century, the Direct Method became widely known in United States through its use by Sauveur and Maximilian Berlitz in successful commercial language schools under the name of Berlitz Method (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:12). But it was difficult to implement this method in public schools, because the number of the teachers who were fluent in the target languages wasn't enough. So the Reading Approach to language teaching was supported by the Modern Language Association of America (Celce-Murcia, 2001:4). This approach stressed the importance of reading as the most useful foreign language skill, because,

as Celce-Murcia (2001:6) asserts not many people traveled abroad at that time. Translation was a respectable procedure in this approach as in Grammar Translation Approach.

The Reading Method was based on the Coleman Report (Coleman, 1929; in Celce-Murcia, 2001:5). Findings of this report recommend that the primary objective of language teaching should be reading comprehension. However, “The Coleman Report, which is often treated as *bête noire* of American language teaching, has been blamed for the decline of language learning during this period” (Stern, 1983:101). Despite its failure, for the first time, vocabulary was considered to be one of the most important aspects of second language learning, prioritizing a rational basis for selecting the vocabulary content of language courses (Zimmerman, 1997:10).

At the same time, in Britain, Michael West (1930; cited in Schmitt, 2000: 13) suggested to improve vocabulary learning because it was crucial to facilitate reading skills. Thus he supported the Reading Method in Europe and it held sway, until World War II, together with Grammar-Translation and the Direct Method.

West (1930) criticized direct methodologists for stressing the importance of speech without providing guidelines for selecting content:

The Primary thing in learning a language is the acquisition of a vocabulary, and practice in using it (which is the same thing as ‘acquiring’). The problem is what vocabulary; and none of these ‘modern textbooks in common use in English schools’ have attempted to solve the problem.”(cited in Zimmerman, 1997:9)

West (1930; cited in Zimmerman, 1997:9) claimed that, foreign language learners did not have even a basic thousand- word vocabulary after three years study. West’s recommendation was to use word-frequency lists as the basis for the selection and order of vocabulary in student materials. Thus he published *A General Service List of Words* in 1953 (Zimmerman, 1997:9).

The most active period in the history of language teaching approaches and methods was from the 1950s to the 1980s. In 1950s and 1960s, the Audio-lingual

Method and Situational Method emerged. Then, Communicative Approach superseded these two methods. During the same period followings were also exist with less interest; Silent Way, the Natural Approach, and Total Physical Response. In the 1090s, Content- Based Instruction and Task-Based Language Teaching emerged as new approaches. And also some approaches, which were originally in general education, extended to the second language settings, such as; Cooperative Learning, Whole Language Approach, and Multiple Intelligences (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:15)

During the World War II, in early 1940s, American military needed soldiers who were fluent in foreign languages, but current language teaching approaches tended to be unsuccessful. It needed a new way of training its soldiers in oral/aural skills quickly. So it hired American Structural linguists to teach languages and Audio-Lingual Method emerged. Those linguists, including Fries, developed a program which drew its rationale from structural linguistics and behavioral linguistics. Derived from behaviorism, this method claimed that language learning was a result of habit formation. That is, students were expected to learn the language through drills. Pronunciation, intensive oral drilling, and memorization were primary aspects of language teaching. Students who trained with this *Army Method* were really successful as they were mostly mature and highly motivated (Schmitt, 2000: 13).

Because the emphasis was on teaching structural patterns, the vocabulary needed to be relatively easy in this method (Zimmerman, 1997:11). "It was assumed that good language habits, and exposure to the language itself, would eventually lead to an increased vocabulary" (Coady, 1993; cited in Schmitt, 2000:13)

A similar approach was current In Britain from the 1940s to the 1960s. It was called the Situational Approach, from its grouping of lexical and grammatical items according to what would be required in various situations (e.g., at the post office, at the store, at the dinner table). Consequently, the Situational Approach treated vocabulary in a more principled way than Audio-lingual Method (Schmitt, 2000:13).

In 1957 Noam Chomsky published *Syntactic Structures* which introduced the assumption that language is represented in the speaker's mental grammar by an abstract set of rules. And this new concept triggered a major transition in linguistic theory (Zimmerman, 1997:9). "Noam Chomsky's attack on the behaviorist underpinnings of Audiolingualism in the late 1950s proved decisive, and it began to fall out of favor. Supplanting the behaviorist idea of habit formation, language was now seen as governed by cognitive factors, particularly a set of abstract rules that were assumed to be innate." (Schmitt, 2000:14)

Chomsky's reaction to the behaviorist features of the Audio-lingual Approach was called Cognitive Approach. "His work was a revolutionary reminder of the creativity of language and a challenge to the behaviorist view of language as a set of habits." (Zimmerman, 1997:12) Major aspects of this approach are like these: Learners are responsible for their own learning; Grammar must be learned deductively; Pronunciation is not stressed, perfection is viewed as unrealistic and unattainable; Vocabulary instruction is important, especially at intermediate and advanced levels; Errors are viewed as inevitable, to be used constructively in the learning process (Celce-Murcia, 2001:7).

In reaction to the lack of affective considerations in both Audiolingualism and the Cognitive Approach, Affective-Humanistic Approach emerged. According to this approach, "Learning a foreign language is a process of self-realization and of relating to other people." (Celce-Murcia, 2001:8) This approach, as Celce-Murcia (2001:9) states, has produced the most radical syllabus type that is the learner-generated syllabus. In humanistic methods the learners decide what they want to learn and what they want to be able to do with the target language. Community Language Learning, The Silent Way and Suggestopedia are the methods considered within Humanistic approach.

In 1972, Dell Hymes, a sociolinguist introduced the notion of *communicative competence*, in reaction against the Chomskyan notion of an autonomous linguistic competence, which emphasized sociolinguistic and pragmatic factors (Zimmerman, 1997:12). Hymes (1972; cited in Zimmerman, 1997:12) defined communicative

competence as “the internalized knowledge of situational appropriateness of language.”

The approach that developed from these notions was *Communicative Language Teaching* (CLT), a broad term used to refer to some specific methods. As Nunan (1999: 9) states CLT was the most pervasive changes to teaching practice over the last twenty years. As Richards & Rodgers (1990: cited in Zimmerman, 1997:13) states, “CLT strives to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and to develop procedures for the teaching of four skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication.”

In the argument for fluency over accuracy, Widdowson (1978), who is one of the contributors of CLT, claimed that ungrammatical utterances with accurate vocabulary can be better understood than those with accurate grammar and inaccurate vocabulary. He also stressed the superiority of fluency over grammar with these words; “when we acquire a language we do not only learn how to compose and comprehend correct sentences as isolated linguistic units of random occurrence; we also learn how to use sentences appropriately to achieve a communicative purpose. We are not just walking grammars” (Widdowson, 1978:2)

In terms of vocabulary teaching it can be said that vocabulary was given a secondary status by this approach. CLT gives little guidance about how to handle vocabulary, except supporting vocabulary for the functional language use such as; how to make a request, how to make an apology and how language connects together into larger discourse. Vocabulary was assumed to take care of itself as in previous approaches (Schmitt, 2000:14).

In the last quarter of 20th century the Second Language Acquisition Theory developed as an outgrowth of communicative approaches. Stephan Krashen (1987) studied the conditions underlying successful language acquisition. His hypothesis have different names; in the early years; *Natural Approach*, *Monitor Model*, *Acquisition- Learning Hypothesis*, in recent years *Input Hypothesis*.

This study was mainly based on the way children learn their first language. In this approach comprehensible and meaningful input is emphasized over grammatically correct production so vocabulary is considered as an important part of language acquisition process: “Acquisition depends crucially on the input being comprehensible. And comprehensibility is dependent directly on the ability to recognize the meaning of key elements in the utterance. Thus, acquisition will not take place without comprehension of vocabulary”. (Krashen & Terrel, 1983: cited in Zimmerman, 1997:15) This model consists of five interrelated hypotheses: *Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, Natural Order Hypothesis, Monitor Hypothesis, Input Hypothesis, and Affective Filter Hypothesis* (Krashen, 1987).

1. Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis:

Krashen states that “adults have two distinct independent ways of developing competence in a second language; *language learning* and *language acquisition*” (1987: 10). First process is conscious and consists of learning grammar rules. Latter is a subconscious process, natural; identical to the children’s learning their mother tongue.

2. Natural Order hypothesis

Krashen claimed that we acquire language rules in a predictable or “natural” order. They are acquired in a fixed way, and determined by innate mechanisms. They are not acquired by linguistic complexity or explicit teaching. Some of them are early-acquired and some are late-acquired.

3. Monitor Hypothesis

It is a device used to guard and warn the language learners output for editions, correction. The monitor only controls learning, not acquisition. The monitor plans, edits and corrects the learner’s production when there is time. According to Krashen (1987:19), the role of the monitor should be minor; it should be used only to correct deviations from 'normal' speech.

4. Input Hypothesis

It explains how language is acquired. Krashen (1987:20) claims that; receiving comprehensible input is the only way that can lead to the acquisition of a second language. If that input is beyond the level of the student and he/she does not

understand it, then that input is useless the input has to be just beyond the learner's current competence and comprehensible, for acquisition to take place.

5. *Affective filter Hypothesis*

This hypothesis considers the role of several affective factors in acquisition, such as motivation, self-confidence or anxiety. Affective filter acts as a barrier to the input. If a learner is motivated, self-confident and relaxed, then the affective filter is low and so comprehensible input can reach the innate mechanism *Language Acquisition Device* (LAD) to be processed. So the acquisition is possible. But, lack of motivation or self-esteem and anxiety 'RAISE' the affective filter and comprehensible input cannot trigger the LAD and acquisition becomes impossible. (Krashen, 1987:31-32)

Finally among the five aspects mentioned above as Krashen (1987:33) asserts, two conditions are crucial:

... comprehensible input and the strength of the filter are true causes of second language acquisition. Other variables may relate to second language success, that is we may see positive correlations between other variables and measures of achievement in second language, but in all cases in which language acquisition is attained, analysis will reveal that the relationship can better be explained in terms of comprehensible input plus filter level.

By the end of the twentieth century, methods and approaches were not regarded as the key factor in language teaching any more. And today we can claim that we are in a "Post-Communicative" stage of language teaching and learning in which eclecticism and learner centered instruction are favored. Nunn (2001) explains this era:

A so-called 'post-communicative' view of language teaching is said to be more eclectic. Language teaching is seen as an adaptive process rather than as the application of an ideal method or approach. In contexts that seem to require or favour the learning of actual abilities to use a language, it is useful for a teacher to develop a repertoire of holistic activities within which a variety of approaches may be adopted. A teacher's repertoire often includes activities such as simulated conversations in pairs and small groups, speech making or storytelling. All of these holistic activities act as a framework for the adoption of different approaches and roles, ranging from strictly and centrally controlled teacher-fronted interaction to devolved interaction in which students structure their own discourse.

In this Post-Communicative period a more constructivist view of learning is dominant. This constructivist view signals the swing of attention on teaching to attention on learning. This view emphasizes the important role of such aspects in language learning; personal learning and discovery, task-based learning, collaborative work, and a more facilitating role for the teacher. And pedagogical approaches to language teaching continue to grow in this era, such as:

1. *The Task-based Approach*: Ellis (2008: 981) defines this approach as “an approach to the teaching of second/foreign languages based on syllabus consisting of communicative tasks and utilizing a methodology that makes meaningful communication rather than linguistic accuracy primary.” These tasks provide a natural context for language use. Learners have plentiful opportunity to interact with each other to complete a task. (Larsen-Freeman, 2000:144)

2. *Content-based instruction*: This approach integrates language instruction with instruction in the content areas. The foreign or second language is used as a vehicle to learn subject matter content. Larsen-Freeman (2000:137) expresses the advantage of this approach, “The special contribution of content-based instruction is that it integrates the learning of language with the learning of other content, often academic subject matter. It has been observed that academic subjects provide natural content for language instruction.”

3. *The Lexical Approach*: this approach emphasizes the importance of lexical chunk, and lexical phrase drills in language learning. Some applied linguists have promoted this approach (Sinclair and Renouf, 1988; Willis, 1990; Lewis, 1993; 1997). The basic concern of this approach is the frequency and usefulness of words and word combinations. For language teaching, vocabulary instruction is a central part and lexical competence is a central part of vocabulary instruction (Decarrico, 2001:297).

3. *Multiple Intelligences*: This is a concept introduced by psychologist Howard Gardner. In his book *Frames of Mind*, he suggested that we possess a range of intelligences not a single intelligence (Gardner, 1983; cited in Harmer, 2001:46). He listed seven intelligences: Musical/Rhythmic, Verbal/Linguistic, Visual/Spatial, Bodily/Kinaesthetic, Logical/Mathematical, Intrapersonal and Interpersonal. This theory suggests appealing to all intelligence type involved in language learning.

Larsen-Freeman suggests teachers “to create activities that draw on all seven, not only to facilitate language acquisition among diverse students, but also to help them realize their full potential with all seven. One way of doing so is to think about the activities that are frequently used in the classroom and to categorize them according to intelligence type.” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000:170)

4. *Cooperative learning*: Cooperative learning involves students working in groups to reach common goals and learning from each other. In cooperative learning teachers teach students collaborative skills to make them work together effectively (Larsen-Freeman, 2000:164). It aims to foster cooperation rather than competition, because, each learner’s success is linked with every other learners’ success. It also helps students to develop critical thinking skills. The learners must work collaboratively with other group members on tasks, thus they are direct and active participants in the learning process. They also learn to monitor and evaluate their own learning.

2.2. Vocabulary Teaching

Through the literature review one can see that in most of the language teaching approaches, vocabulary has given less importance than grammar. Brown states this neglect with an analogy “In the zeal for natural, authentic classroom tasks and activities, vocabulary focus was swept under the rug.” (Brown, 2001:376)

In their survey on student attitudes towards vocabulary, Morgan and Rinvolutri (1986; cited in, Nunan, 1999:103) found that: “two thirds of (those surveyed) said they were not taught enough words in class, words they needed when talking to people, watching TV, and reading. They felt their teachers were very keen on teaching them grammar and on improving their pronunciation, but that learning vocabulary came a poor third.”

However, in recent years vocabulary teaching has taken its place that it deserves, as an important aspect of language teaching. The approaches that give importance to the vocabulary are comprehension based approaches. The proponents of these approaches argue that “the early development of an extensive vocabulary

can enable learners to outperform their competence. In other words, if one has an extensive vocabulary, it is possible to obtain meaning from spoken and written texts, even though one doesn't know the grammatical structures in the texts are encoded.” (Nunan, 1999:103)

As Harmer (2001) states;

If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is the vocabulary that provides the vital organ and flesh. An ability to manipulate grammatical structure does not have any potential for expressing meaning unless words are used... for example, the student who says 'yesterday... I have seen him yesterday.' Is committing one of the most notorious tense mistakes in English but he/she will still be understood as having seen him yesterday because of the word 'yesterday'. (p.153)

There are other researchers who emphasize the importance of vocabulary learning; Scrivener (1994:73) states, “The more words I have, the more precisely I can express the exact meanings I want to”. Read (2001:1) suggests that “words are the basic building blocks of language, the units of meaning from which larger structures like sentences, paragraphs and whole texts are formed.”

The linguist Wilkins (1972; cited in Lessard-Clouston, 1994: 69) stresses the importance of vocabulary learning;

There is not much value in being able to produce grammatical sentences if one has not got the vocabulary that is needed to convey what one wishes to say ... While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary *nothing* can be conveyed.

2.2.1. Knowing a word

Knowing a word is a really complex matter and it isn't simply to recognize a word when it is encountered. Schmitt (2000) explains the complexity of the matter: “An adequate answer to the single question ‘What does it mean to know a word?’ would require a book much thicker than this one. An impressive amount of information must be known and seamlessly manipulated in order to use words fluently, and even finding a framework to explain this complexity is not an easy matter.”(p.22)

In order to have a full knowledge of a word and to be able to use it some more knowledge is necessary in addition to meaning. Nation (2001) gives a detailed description of truly knowing a word:

Table-2.1. Aspects of Knowing a Word

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

P= productive knowledge
R= receptive knowledge

(Nation, 2001 cited in Schmitt, 2007:830)

As can be seen on this listing, knowing a word involves three broad aspects; *form*, *meaning* and *use*. Under each aspect there are a number of criteria about word knowledge. As can be seen Nation (2001) used the terms *receptive* and *productive word knowledge* covering all the aspects of what is involved in knowing a word.

Receptive word knowledge involves “perceiving the form and having to retrieve its meaning when the word is met in listening or reading.” (Nation, 2006: 145) Productive word knowledge involves “wishing to communicate the meaning of

the word and having to retrieve its spoken or written form as in speaking or writing.” (Nation, 2006: 145)

2.2.2. Incidental vocabulary learning and explicit vocabulary instruction

At the very beginning it would be better to explain these two key terms. Incidental vocabulary learning, as Decarrico (2001) defines, is “learning that occurs when the mind is focused elsewhere, such as an understanding of a text or using language for communicative purposes.”(p.287). Explicit vocabulary instruction as Hunt & Beglar (2002) states “involves diagnosing the words learners need to know, presenting words for the first time, elaborating word knowledge, and developing fluency with known words.”(p. 258)

Most of the words are learned incidentally in the long run, through reading and listening; however intentional vocabulary learning is also significant. Especially for beginning students explicit instruction is important, because as Hunt and Beglar (2002) states, “their lack of vocabulary limits their reading ability” (p.260). Coady (1997) calls this situation as “beginner’s paradox” and he wonders how beginners can “learn enough words to learn vocabulary through extensive reading when they don’t know enough words to read well” (cited in Hunt and Beglar, 2002:260).

As Schmitt (2007:833) states meaning and grammatical characteristics of the words can be addressed through explicit vocabulary learning. However other aspects like collocation, register, and intuitions of frequency are only mastered through extensive exposure to the target word. And this can be achieved by means of many different contexts. Thus Schmitt (2007) proposes two strands that any vocabulary program needs: “an explicit strand to present the teachable word knowledge aspects of high value words and an incidental learning strand where (a) those words are consolidated and more is learned about them; and (b) a multitude of other new words are met.”(p.833)

Ellis (2008) supports the explicit vocabulary learning in accordance with incidental learning and states that “vocabulary acquisition should be largely an

incidental affair. However there is a wide acceptance that intentional vocabulary learning is necessary to ensure a well-developed L2 lexicon.” (p.447)

Schmitt (2000) states that; in the course of learning vocabulary, explicit and incidental approaches are both necessary, because incidental learning occurs from explicit teaching and activities. He explains the requirement of this consolidation:

With rank beginners, it is probably necessary to explicitly teach all words until students have enough vocabulary to start making use of the unknown words they meet in context. But beyond this most basic level, incidental learning should be structured into the program in a principled way. It is important for at least two reasons: meeting a word in different contexts expands what is known about it (improving quality of knowledge), and the additional exposures help consolidate it in memory. Explicit approaches to vocabulary learning, whether teacher-led in a classroom or through self-study, can only provide some elements of lexical knowledge. Even lexical information amenable to conscious study, such as meaning, cannot be totally mastered by explicit study, because it is impossible to present and practice all of the creative uses of a word that a student might come across. We have also seen that some kinds of word knowledge, such as collocation, register constraints, and frequency, can only be fully grasped through numerous exposures. (Schmitt, 2000: 146)

Some studies have compared the learning rates of incidental and intentional vocabulary learning. For example Hulstijn (1992 cited in Ellis, 2008: 448) found that learning rates are much higher for intentional learning than for incidental learning. In his experimental study Dutch learners studied a text containing English words. He formed two conditions incidental and intentional. In the first group students were asked to read the passage carefully to answer some comprehension questions. In the second group students were informed there would be a vocabulary test after reading. Both on the post test and delayed test students in intentional condition scored higher.

For both incidental and intentional vocabulary learning, learners need to get enough exposure to language. In a context where target language is spoken, this exposure is naturally possible. But in an EFL context learners suffer from insufficient exposure to target language. So teachers must create suitable environment to increase the learners' exposure to the target language. They should motivate the learners to read more for the sake of incidental vocabulary learning and also they should provide effective vocabulary instruction.

For a broad understanding of the concepts a summary of incidental and intentional vocabulary learning is presented in the following table.

Table-2.2. Key points in the incidental and intentional learning of vocabulary

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Incidental learning is not entirely 'incidental', as the learner must pay at least some attention to individual words. 2. Incidental learning requires a basic sight-recognition vocabulary of at least 3.000 word families. For university level texts, knowledge of 5.000-10.000 word families may be needed. 3. Although incidental acquisition takes place incrementally over a period of time, there is no agreement as to how many of, what kind of exposures are needed for successful acquisition. 4. Effective word guessing requires the flexible application of a variety of processing strategies, ranging from local ones such as graphemic identification to global ones such as the use of broader contextual meanings. 5. Some strategies arise naturally but other need to be taught. 6. Students generally benefit from explicit vocabulary instruction in conjunction with extensive reading. 7. Some kinds of texts are more conducive to incidental learning than others-in particular, texts that are personally interesting to learners. 8. Input modification, including glossing of specific words, is generally affective, especially if it involves the learner interactively. 9. Incidental learning depends on educated guesswork and thus can lead to imprecision, misrecognition, and interference with the reading process. To overcome these problems, learners have to have a well-developed core vocabulary, a stock of good reading strategies, and some prior familiarity with the subject matter.
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(Huckin and Coady, 1999; cited in Ellis, 2008: 448)

We know that teachers should deal with vocabulary in systematic and principled ways. But herein, the question is: Should we spend time on every unknown word? Nation (2006:144) proposes two major decisions to be made for each unknown word: "Should time be spent on it?"; "How a word should be dealt with?" As an answer to the first question he states that, if the goal of the lesson is vocabulary learning and if the word is a high-frequency word, a useful topic word or technical word, or contains useful word parts, it is worth spending time on a word. Nation (2006:144) proposes a range of ways for dealing with words that occur in a reading text.

1. *Pre-teach*. Before reading, teachers should deal with high-frequency words, and words that are important for the message of the text. It should be limited to a few words, probably five or six at the most. Because if too many words are focused on, they are likely to be forgotten or become confused with each other.

2. *Replace the unknown word in the text before giving the text to the learners.*

Some texts may need to be simplified before they are presented to learners. Low-frequency words that are not central to the meaning of the text can be replaced with already known words.

3. *Put the unknown word in a glossary.* Putting a word in a glossary gives a chance of repeated attention to the word. When learners see the word in the text, they see it again in the glossary, and then they see it again when they return to the text from the glossary.

4. *Put the unknown word in an exercise after the text.* Doing vocabulary exercises after reading a text, makes learners spend extra time on words. It helps them to send newly learned words to long term memory.

5. *Quickly give the meaning.* This way has the goal of avoiding spending time on less important words and moving on to more important items. It can be done by quickly giving a first language translation, a second language synonym or brief definition, or quickly drawing a picture, pointing to an object or making a gesture.

6. *Do nothing about the word.* This is suited to low-frequency words that are not important for the meaning of the text.

7. *Help the learners use context to guess, use a dictionary, or break the word into parts.* These ways of dealing with words are suited to high-frequency words because time is spent on them while using the strategies, but they are also suitable for low-frequency words that are easy to guess, have several meanings, or contain useful parts.

8. *Spend time looking at the range of meanings and collocations of the word.* This is a rich instruction approach. It should be used for high-frequency words and other useful words because of the time it takes.

Sökmen (1997; cited in Schmitt, 2000:146-147) highlights a number of key principles for explicit vocabulary teaching:

- build a large sight vocabulary
- integrate new words with old
- provide a number of encounters with a word

- promote a deep level of processing
- facilitate imaging
- make new words "real" by connecting them to the student's world in some way
- use a variety of techniques
- encourage independent learning strategies

In this part a number of principles for vocabulary teaching have been presented. But, as Schmitt (2000: 142) states; “there is no ‘right’ or ‘best’ way to teach vocabulary. The best practice in any situation will depend on the type of student, the words that are targeted, the school system and curriculum, and many other factors.”

2.2.3. Facilitating Independent Vocabulary Learning: Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Rubin (1987; cited in Hedge, 2000:77) defines learning strategies as: “any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information... that is, what learners do to learn and do to regulate their learning.”

More specifically, language learning strategies as Oxford (1999; cited in Dörnyei, 2005:163) defined are “specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques that students use to improve their own progress in developing skills in a second or foreign language. These strategies facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language.”

Initially, learners benefit from teacher aided vocabulary instruction but as mentioned before it is not possible to be able to learn all of the vocabulary items at school by means of vocabulary instruction. So learners need vocabulary learning strategies to make transition from teacher aided instruction to independent learning. They should use some strategies to discover the meanings of new words.

As Decarrico (2001:290) states “Strategies should aid both in discovering the meaning of a new word and in consolidating a word once it has been encountered. Thus, learners should approach independent learning of vocabulary by using a combination of extensive reading and self-study strategies.”

Knowledge of strategies is important, because as Nunan (1999) states “the greater awareness you have of what you are doing, if you are conscious of the process underlying the learning that you are involved in, then learning will be more effective.”(p.171)

One of the leading researchers in the field of language learning strategies, Rebecca Oxford (1990), identifies the following features of language learning strategies. According to Oxford (cited in Nunan, 1999) language learning strategies;

- contribute to main goal, communicative competence
- allow learners to become more self-directed
- expand the role of teacher
- are problem oriented
- are specific actions taken by the learner
- involve many actions taken by the learner, not just the cognitive
- support learning both directly and indirectly
- are not always observable
- can be taught
- are flexible
- are influenced by a variety of factors (p.172)

In the field of language learning strategies some studies involved the strategies that are also related with vocabulary learning. However they were not enough for such an important aspect of language learning. So *vocabulary learning strategies* (VLS) has attracted increasing attention.

As Schmitt (2007: 838) states there are a few taxonomies about VLS; Ahmed, 1989; Cohen, 1990; Sanaoui, 1995. However a relatively comprehensive taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies is proposed by Schmitt (1997; cited in Schmitt, 2000:133). **Table-2.3** better illustrates the complete classification scheme of Schmitt.

Table-2.3. Schmitt's taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies

Strategy group	Strategies
Strategies for the discovery of a new word's meaning	
DET	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyze part of speech • Analyze affixes and roots • Check for L1 cognate • Analyze any available pictures or gestures • Guess meaning from textual context • Use a dictionary (bilingual or monolingual)
SOC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask teacher for a synonym, paraphrase, or L1 translation of a word • Ask classmates for meaning
Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered	
SOC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Study and practice meaning in a group • Interact with native speakers
MEM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connect word to a previous personal experience • Associate the word with its coordinates • Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms • Use semantic maps • Image word form • Image word's meaning • Use Keyword Method • Group words together to study them • Study the spelling of a word • Say new word aloud when studying • Use physical action when learning a word
COG	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verbal repetition • Written repetition • Word lists • Put English labels on physical objects • Keep a vocabulary notebook
MET	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.) • Use spaced word practice (expanding rehearsal) • Test oneself with word tests • Skip or pass new word • Continue to study word over time

From Schmitt (1997; cited in Schmitt, 2000:134)

In the utilization process of the strategies in this taxonomy, Schmitt investigated 600 Japanese respondents from different levels; junior high school, high school, university, or adult learners. The aim of the survey was to find the vocabulary strategies that the learners used and which they felt useful. According to the survey results, the most preferred strategies were; using dictionaries, repetition, and form focused strategies. The survey also indicated that strategy choice is related with the learner's level of proficiency that is; "patterns of strategy use can change over time

as a learner either matures or becomes more proficient in the target language” (Schmitt, 2000:136)

Schmitt’s taxonomy is categorized in two ways. First, the list is divided into two major classes: *discovery strategies* (that are useful for the initial discovery of a word's meaning), and *consolidation strategies* (that are useful for remembering that word once it has been introduced). Second, the strategies are further classified into five groupings; *Determination strategies* (DET), *Social strategies* (SOC), *Memory strategies* (MEM), *Cognitive strategies* (COG), *Metacognitive strategies* (MET). Determination strategies (DET) contain the strategies that learners use to discover a new word’s meaning without getting help from others. As clearly seen in the table above, they can do this using a dictionary, guessing meaning from the context, or checking it’s equivalence in L1. They can also analyze part of speech, affixes and roots, or available pictures and gestures to discover the meaning.

Learners also use social strategies (SOC) when they encounter an unknown word to get immediate meaning. It is as easy as asking for the meaning from others such as the teacher or friends. However, Schmitt’s research (1997; cited in Schmitt, 2000:135) with Japanese subjects shows that most learners preferred to study vocabulary individually.

The strategies above are used by the learners to discover the meaning of a word. They are called discovery strategies “that are useful for the initial discovery of a word's meaning” (Schmitt, 2000: 135) There are also strategies that learners use to strengthen the meaning of a newly learned word. These are consolidation strategies “that are useful for remembering that word once it has been introduced”. (Schmitt, 2000: 135)

Under the heading of consolidation strategies, social strategies (SOC) appear once more. This time they are used to strengthen the meaning of a word. This can be done through studying and practising meaning in a group or interacting with native speakers.

Memory strategies (MEM) are known as mnemonics and “involve relating new words to previously learned knowledge, using some form of imagery or grouping” (Schmitt, 2007: 838) Using keyword and semantic mapping, imaging word form or meaning are the examples of these strategies. As mnemonics are the research subject of this survey they will be handled in detail in the following parts.

Cognitive strategies (COG) “enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways, e.g. through reasoning, analysis, note taking, practicing structures and sounds formally” (Oxford, 2001:363). Cognitive strategies are similar to memory strategies, but with a difference that they are not focused specifically on manipulative mental processing. Verbal and written repetition, word lists, keeping vocabulary notebooks are of cognitive strategies. They include using mechanical means to study vocabulary. (Schmitt, 2000: 136)

Last group is metacognitive strategies (MET) and they are employed by the learners to manage the learning process overall. (Oxford, 2001:364). As Schmitt (2000: 136) states, these strategies are a kind of conscious overview of the whole learning process. They involve making decisions about planning, monitoring mistakes, or evaluating the best ways to study. They also includes “deciding which words are worth studying and which are not, as well as persevering with the words one chooses to learn.” (Schmitt, 2000: 136)

It is clear through literature review that learners use some strategies to learn and remember the words, and they can be really useful; for this reason strategy instruction should be interwoven into vocabulary instruction. As Hedge (2000:118) suggests “It is useful for the teacher to be aware of the variety of methods used by learners to cope with words, to encourage learners in effective strategies, and to introduce some of these through teaching.”

To close this part as Oxford (2001) states “a given strategy is neither good nor bad; it is neutral until the context of its use is thoroughly considered.”(p.362)

2.3. Vocabulary and memory

As Randall (2007:1) states in the introduction part of his book, “Thinking and language are closely connected and study of the uniqueness of human beings should involve the connection between the remarkable organ, which produces thought, the brain, and the artifact that is produced, language.”

Vocabulary knowledge is a matter of storing vocabulary items and remembering them when needed. So to better understand the issue the question “How does memory work?” should be answered first. To do this memory and memory types will be handled in the following part.

2.3.1. Memory types

According to the information processing model proposed by Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968; cited in Randall, 2007:14), memory comes in three types; the *Sensory Store/Register*, the *Working/Short Term Memory*, and the *Long Term Memory*. These three stores represent the stages of functional processing of language.

Sensory Register is the first stage of information processing. This unit is responsible for extracting essential information from the stimuli in the environment. (Randall, 2007:14) Although the processing capacity of Sensory Register is too wide, only a limited amount of stimuli is sent to Short Term Memory through attention (Fidan and Erden, 1998; cited in Köksal, 2012:36). If the information is not processed through attention and perception in the Sensory Register, then it disappears or it is replaced by new stimuli (Köksal, 2012:36).

As Ellis (2008: 407) states Sensory Register is the store where input is apperceived and it consists of two stores; *Iconic* and *Echoic Stores*. “An iconic store is responsible for visual information while the echoic store handles auditory information.” (Ellis, 2008: 407)

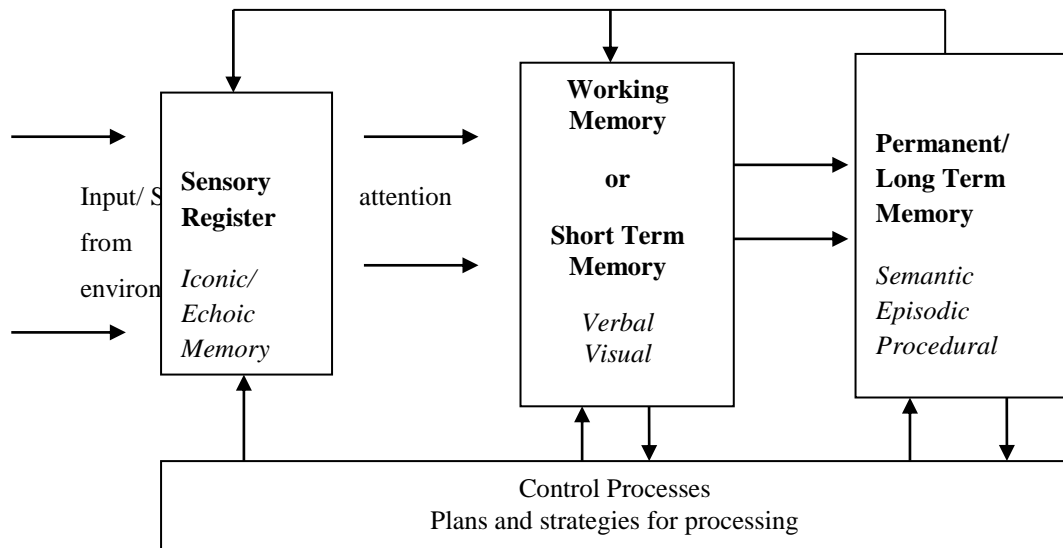
Working or Short-term memory is used “to store or hold information while it is being processed. It normally can hold information for only a matter of seconds. However, this can be extended by rehearsal, for example, by constantly repeating a

phone number so that it is not forgotten. Short-term memory is fast and adaptive but has a small storage capacity.” (Schmitt, 2000:131)

The final component of information processing model is Long Term Memory. After the process of perception, attention and rehearsal, language information is transferred from Short Term Memory to Long Term Memory. Thus Long Term Memory is the store “where the products of processing in working memory are stored and where restructuring of existing knowledge as a result of processing takes place.” (Ellis, 2008: 407)

Long Term Memory is the Permanent store which contains information about the world. This information is of the experiences about language and shapes, that is called *the Semantic Memory*; the cumulative experiences in life, *the Episodic Memory*; and the automatic procedures involved in skilled behaviors, *the Procedural Memory* (Randall, 2007:14). The relationship between these memory stores can be seen in Figure-2.1.

Figure-2.1. A diagrammatic representation of information processing model



(Atkinson and Shiffrin, 1968; cited in Randall, 2007:14)

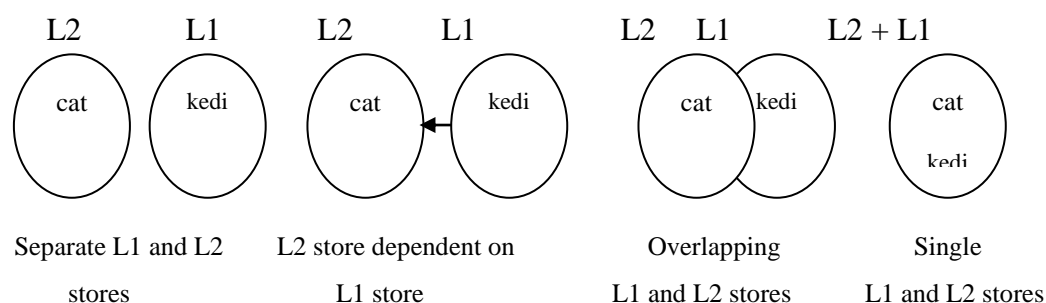
In Figure-2.1., information processing model is seen as a flow of information from the stimuli/input in the environment, through Sensory Register, into the

Working Memory. Lastly the processed message is transferred to Permanent, Long Term Memory (Randall, 2007:14).

2.3.2. Remembering Words

In terms of vocabulary learning and memory, the basic questions in Second/Foreign Language Learning field are: How are the words of two languages stored in the mind? Is there one word-store or two in the bilingual person's mind? (Cook,2001:63) As an answer to these questions Figure-2.2 presents the alternatives.

Figure-2.2. Storing the vocabulary of two languages in the mind



(Adapted from Cook, 2001:63)

1. *Separate stores*: The vocabulary of the second/foreign language is kept separate from the first language. A Turkish person who learns the word 'cat' in English keeps it separately from the Turkish word 'kedi'.
2. *L2 store dependent on L1 store*: the stores are linked so L2 words are related to L1 words. To think of the English word 'cat' means thinking firstly the Turkish word 'kedi'.
3. *Overlapping stores*: there is an overlapping system so that some words are shared, some not.
4. *Single store*: There is a single store for both languages; English 'cat' and Turkish 'kedi' are stored together.

As Cook (2001) states, answer to the question "Which of these alternatives is correct?" is not certain at the moment. But what seems clear, as he states, is that "the extreme models 'separate' and 'single store' are unlikely to be true; and that there is overlap at many points." (Cook, 2001: 64)

Another important aspect of vocabulary learning is “How are the words remembered?” Nation (2006) proposed the following table as an answer.

Table 2.4 The conditions of learning, signs and features in activities with a vocabulary learning goal

Psychological conditions encouraging learning	Signs that the conditions are likely to be occurring	Design features of the activity that promote the conditions
Noticing a word	The learner consults a glossary The learner pauses over the word The learner negotiates the word	Definition, glosses, highlighting Unknown words in salient positions
Retrieving a word	The learner pauses to recall a meaning The learner does not need to consult a dictionary or gloss The learner produces a previously unknown word	Retelling spoken or written input
Using the word generatively	The learner produces a word in a new sentence context The learners produce associations, causal links, etc.	Role play based on written input Retelling without the input text Brainstorming

Nation (2006:147)

Nation (2006) proposed three important general processes that may lead to a word being remembered: *noticing* (through formal instruction, negotiation, the need to comprehend or produce, and awareness of inefficiencies), *retrieval*, and *creative* (generative) *use*. Table-2.4. above, presents the relation of these processes to the signs that they are occurring and the features of the activities that encourage them.

2.3.3. Importance of Repetition in Vocabulary Learning

As human beings we tend to forget over time. Language learners forget material as well and this is a natural fact of learning. As Schmitt (2000: 129) points out “words are not necessarily learned in a linear manner, with only incremental advancement and no backsliding”. And he advises that “We should view partial vocabulary knowledge as being in a state of flux, with both learning and forgetting occurring until the word is mastered and ‘fixed’ in memory.” (Schmitt, 2000: 129)

So, how are the words mastered and fixed in memory? There is only one answer to this question; repetition. Repetition is essential for vocabulary learning, as words cannot be gained through one meeting. Nation (2006:147) supports this point that; repetition, adds to the quality of word knowledge and also to the quantity or strength of this knowledge. Therefore, one of the key factors for successful language study in general and vocabulary learning in particular is regular reviewing of learned material.

There has been a great deal of research on how vocabulary items should be reviewed. Studies indicate that retention tends to be greater after *distributed practice* than after *massed practice* (Rohrer and Taylor, 2006; Seabrook, Brown and Solity, 2005; cited in Welten 2008:251). Learning material in short sessions over a long period is called “distributed practice” or the “spaced repetition”. On the contrary, a long period of study is called “massed practice” or “cramming”. Distributed practice is more effective than cramming for retaining information.

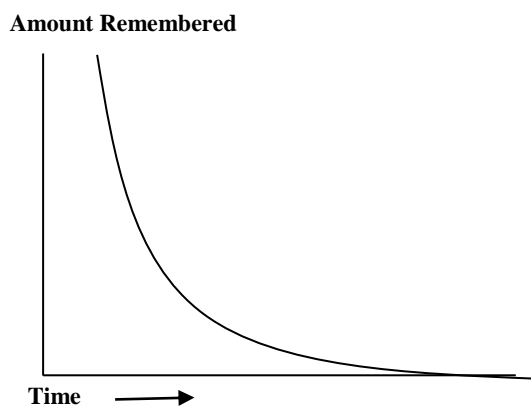
Spaced repetition involves spreading the repetitions across a long period of time, that is, the words can be studied for three minutes after learning session, another three minutes a few hours later, three minutes a day later, three minutes two days later and finally three minutes a week later. The total study time is fifteen minutes, but instead of studying for 15 minutes at a time, it is spread across ten or more days.

Nation (2006) cited the studies on the topic that are Seibert (1927), Anderson and Jordan (1928) and Seibert (1930). All the three studies investigated retention over periods of up to eight weeks. Results showed that “most forgetting occurs immediately after initial learning and then, as time passes, the rate of forgetting becomes slower.” (Nation, 2006:147).

Anderson and Jordan (1928; cited in Nation, 2006) measured recall immediately after learning, after one week, after three weeks and after eight weeks. The percentages of material retained were 66%, 48%, 39% and 37% respectively. This indicates it is critical to have a review session soon after they are first studied,

before too much forgetting occurs however it is less essential as time goes on. This is illustrated in Figure-2.3.

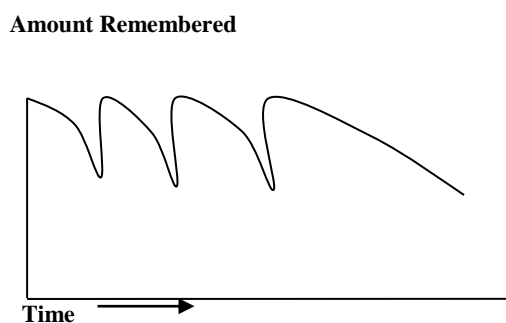
Figure-2.3. Typical pattern of forgetting.



(Schmitt, 2000:131)

As Nation (2006) points out their findings are in agreement with Pimsleur's (1967; cited in Nation, 2006) memory schedule. Schmitt suggests that "the principle of *expanding rehearsal* was derived from this insight, which suggests that learners review new material soon after the initial meeting, and then at gradually increasing intervals" (Pimsleur, 1967; cited in Schmitt, 2000, 130). In this way, the forgetting is minimized (Figure-2.4).

Figure-2.4. Pattern of forgetting with expanded rehearsal.



(Schmitt, 2000:131)

It has been mentioned in the previous chapters that short-term memory is fast and adaptive but has a small storage capacity, on the contrary long-term memory has an almost unlimited storage capacity but is relatively slow. As Schmitt (2000: 1321)

proposed “The object of vocabulary learning is to transfer the lexical information from the short-term memory, where it resides during the process of manipulating language, to the more permanent long-term memory.” Of course there are various ways of achieving the transfer but one of them is through Mnemonic techniques which are the main concern of this study. Mnemonic techniques provide attaching the new information to some preexisting information in the long-term memory and so ensure the long term retrieval. Schmitt (2000: 132) favors this notion that “Because the ‘old’ words are already fixed in the mind, relating the new words to them provides a ‘hook’ to remember them by so they will not be forgotten. New words that do not have this connection are much more prone to forgetting.”

2.4. Mnemonic Techniques

During their lives people have to acquire lots of information. The things people need to learn may be simple, daily stuffs like passwords, shopping lists, important dates, etc. However, they also need to learn more complex, academic information in various fields; medicine, psychology, education, etc. Fortunately, there exist some techniques which help to memorize them called “Mnemonics”.

Mnemonics or mnemonic techniques are memory techniques. They are strategies used to enhance memory. The term *mnemonic* is derived from *Mnemosyne*, the name of the ancient Greek goddess of memory (Laing, 2010:349).

Several of the mnemonic techniques go back thousands of years (Yates, 1966, cited in Spackman, 2010:2). The first used mnemonic device was an earlier form of the modern day method of loci and since then, numerous other devices have been developed (Higbee, 1987; cited in Amirousefi and Ketabi, 2011:178).

Mastropieri and Scruggs (1998) described mnemonic strategies as systematic procedures for enhancing memory and assistance with encoding the new content information to ease in retrieval. Mnemonic strategies help learners to develop better ways to encode information and they make remembering much easier. With the use of mnemonic strategies, learners relate new information to information they already

have locked in their long-term memory. The firmer the connection, the longer the memory will last (Mastropieri and Scruggs, 1998).

Mnemonic strategies have been used in various fields; medicine, psychology, and education up to now. As Spacman (2010: 4) states, being a cognitive skill, mnemonics can be successfully applied wherever students need to remember new information of any sort.

The best example for the success of mnemonics is the story of Solomon Shereshevskii. He is the most famous mnemonist and he participated in many behavioral studies, carried out by the neuropsychologist Alexander Luria for almost thirty-years. Along the years Shereshevskii was asked to memorize complex mathematical formulas, huge matrices and even poems in foreign languages. He was able to remember any information presented. Despite his astonishing memory performance, Shereshevskii had an average intelligence according to the results of intelligence tests. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Solomon_Shereshevsky)

Then, Luria (1969) wrote his book about Shereshevskii; *The Mind of a Mnemonist: A Little Book about a Vast Memory*. During his studies, Luria was unable to find any limit to the amount of material Shereshevskii could recall. He used three basic mnemonics, for remembering verbal material: *visual imagery*, *loci method*, and *narrative chain method*. He trained himself to convert words into meaningful images so that he could remember nonsense words or words from unfamiliar languages. The second process was to use familiar locations, such as stops on a street, to place the images mentally for later retrieval; loci method. The third process was to create a story with appropriate images to retrieve the information. His mnemonic associations were so strong that he could remember them even after sixteen years. (<http://www.bookrags.com/research/mnemonists-lmem-01/>)

The story of Shereshevskii may be an extreme example. However, results of many studies have proven the efficacy of mnemonic strategies in helping students to remember new information. Mnemonic devices linking new information to something already familiar to a student were found to be really effective in numerous

studies; Atkinson, 1975; Brown and Perry, 1991; Scruggs and Mastropieri, 1991; Mastropieri & Scruggs, 1998; etc.

Scruggs and Mastropieri (1991: parag.1) states that “Mnemonic instruction improves recall by systematically integrating specific retrieval routes within to-be-learned content. A variety of techniques can be used to serve this purpose.” Mnemonic strategies have been proven, over and over again, to be extremely effective in helping people remember, but how? What are the requirements for a mnemonic strategy to be effective?

Higbee (2007; cited in Spackman 2010:2) lists five points that are crucial for mnemonics to work: *meaningfulness, organization, association, visualization, attention.*

If we handle HOMES, a simple acronym for remembering the names of the Great Lakes in North America (Huron, Ontario, Michigan, Erie, and Superior), it can be said that, strengthening the memory, this acronym, which is a kind of mnemonic technique, provides all the requirements above. The word HOMES has meaning; it organizes the information in a way that aids recall; it can easily be associated with lakes or water or anything else that will help set the context; it is easy to visualize that association; and thinking about it, working out each letter and the corresponding lake focuses the attention on the facts to be recalled (Spackman 2010:2).

Their effectiveness in remembering is aside, as Mastropieri and Scruggs (1998) state; “mnemonic strategies are not an overall teaching method or curricular approach. The focus of mnemonic strategies is so specific that they are intended to be used to enhance the recall of the components of any lesson for which memory is needed.” Spackman’s statement supports this point of view; “The keyword and other mnemonic techniques are not replacements for studying. They assist in recalling information but require that the information already be in memory somewhere.” (2010:5)

Finally, it should be emphasized that “mnemonic strategies do not represent an educational panacea. There are many things that students must do to succeed in school, and remembering content information is only one part of the entire picture. However, when there is academic content to be remembered, mnemonic strategies may be an important instructional component.” (Mastropieri and Scruggs, 1998)

2.4.1. Mnemonic Devices in Vocabulary Teaching and Learning

It can be claimed that mnemonics has mostly been used for vocabulary learning, in the field of language learning. Researches show that linking new meanings to language that is already known, through mnemonic techniques, can positively affect vocabulary learning (Atkinson, 1975; Brown and Perry, 1991; Uberti, Scruggs and Mastropieri, 2003; Atay and Ozbulgan, 2007; Kütük, 2007; Köksal, 2013)

Mnemonic devices have been proven to be effective in helping students to remember new information in lots of studies. “Mnemonic devices linking new information to something already familiar to a student were found to be the most effective. That is, they were very helpful for recalling conventions that were not logically connected to content students had already conceptualized.” (Laing, 2010:349)

Mnemonic strategies take the learner beyond meaningless repetition, and provide mnemonic devices that produce a deep level of semantic processing of the word in question (Craik, 1979; Stevick, 1976; cited in Pillai, 2012).

As Cook (2001) states, learning a new vocabulary item may be really difficult and once you have learned a word it may rapidly fade away if it is not linked to existing information in the memory. And he claimed that, such links can be made through mnemotechnics. He also cited the example of keyword method from Gruneberg (1987); the French word ‘herisson’, which means hedgehog in English, can be remembered through an image of the English sound-like ‘hairy son’.

One of the major researchers in this field, Atkinson did numerous experiments on vocabulary learning. He explains how he decided to study on mnemonic techniques with these words.

In conducting these vocabulary learning experiments, I have been struck by incredible variability in learning rates across subjects. Even Stanford University students, who are fairly select sample; display impressively large between-subject differences. These differences may reflect differences in fundamental abilities, but it is easy to demonstrate that they also depend on the strategies that subject bring to bear on the task. Good learners can introspect with ease about a ‘bag of tricks’ for learning vocabulary items, whereas poor learners are incredibly inept when trying to describe what they are doing. These subject reports, combined with our own intuitions, led Michael Raugh and me to carry out a series of studies on mnemonic techniques for vocabulary learning. Michael Raugh is a computer scientist and mathematician by training, but throughout his life he has been intrigued by mnemonics of one sort or another; he was the one who convinced me that this line of research was worth pursuing. (Atkinson, 1975: 391)

As Schmitt (2000) states memory strategies facilitate long-term retention through elaborative mental processing. He emphasizes the importance of mnemonics and also warns about the use of them; “This takes time, but the time expended will be well spent if used on important words that really need to be learned, such as high-frequency vocabulary and technical words essential in a particular learner’s field of study. A learner may not have time to ‘deeply process’ every word encountered, but it is certainly worth attempting for key lexical items.”(Schmitt, 2000:135)

Atay and Ozbulgan (2007) investigated the effects of memory strategy instruction along with learning through context on the ESP vocabulary recall of Turkish EFL learners. What makes their study different was that no previous study had compared the effects of using memory strategies along with contextual learning on recalling ESP vocabulary.

The study showed that memory strategies or mnemonic strategies can improve vocabulary learning. The result of the study also illustrated that first; strategy instruction should be integrated into contextual vocabulary learning. After discovering the meaning of a word through different contexts, students should be guided to recall it via different memory strategies. Secondly, rather than providing the learners with one or two strategies, the instruction should focus on the whole

array of strategies, and students should be asked to choose the most effective one(s) for themselves. To do so teachers should be instructed about the use and instruction of different strategies.

Mnemonic techniques have been proven to positively affect vocabulary learning in several studies. However, “researchers indicate that they should not serve as a substitute for the principles of contextual learning, but must be added to the contextual method when this is necessary and applicable” (Hall, Wilson, & Patterson, 1981; cited in Atay and Ozbulgan, 2007:41).

Mnemonics, which take place in consolidation strategies in Schmitt’s Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies, consist of a number of techniques. However only the following techniques will be handled here; Acronyms, Acrostics, Rhymes, Visual Imagery, Loci Method, Peg Word Method, Link Method, Keyword Method, and Narrative Chain Method.

To see which techniques work best for them, students need to try different kinds of mnemonic techniques.

2.4.2. Acronyms & Acrostics

Acrostics and acronyms that individuals create for themselves can be effective memory tools. (Hermann, Raybek and Gruneberg, 2002; cited in Weiten: 2011:252)

Acronym can be defined as “a short word that is made from the first letters of a group of words.”, and in the field of language teaching TEFL can be given as an example which stands for *Teaching English as a Foreign Language* (Steel, 2000:7). Some other popular acronyms are FAQ, NASA, SCUBA, etc. To remember the colors of the spectrum, people often use the name "ROYG. BIV", which gives the first letters of the colors red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet in the right order.

Students also use the acronym HOMES to remember the names of the Great Lakes in North America (Huron, Ontario, Michigan, Erie, and Superior). Most

acronyms assume that a name of something will be remembered when the first letter is retrieved. However, as Mastropieri and Scruggs (1998) states “this may not always be true. For example, if a student is unfamiliar with Lake Ontario, remembering simply that the first letter is “O”, is insufficient to prompt recall. The names of the individual lakes must be practiced until they have become familiar.”

Another example for acronym is FANBOYS. In English, the 7 coordinating conjunctions are “For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So”. These conjunctions can be coded to form an acronym with their first letters, FANBOYS, to be easily remembered (Congos, 2005).

However in some cases, appropriate words cannot be easily constructed from the first letters of the words to be remembered, especially when the order of the words is the primary concern. For example, if you wished to remember the names of the planets in their order from the sun, the letters would be M-V-E-M-J-S-U-N-P. As it can be seen, a word cannot be made from the first letters of the planets. In these cases, using an acrostic would be better. The acrostic for the planets could be "My very educated mother just sent us nine pizzas" (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 1994, cited in Mastropieri and Scruggs (1998). Acrostics are sentences or phrases which are constructed by the words that begin with the first letters of target words, acting as a memory cue. Again, the names of the planets must be known so that students can remember a planet name, with only the first letter.

2.4.3. Rhymes

Rhymes are also good mnemonics. For example, the following rhyme is a good mnemonic for remembering the number of days in each month (Congos, 2005).

*“30 days hath September, April, June, and November.
All the rest have 31
Except February my dear son.
It has 28 and that is fine
But in Leap Year it has 29.”*

2.4.4. Visual Imagery

To use this method the learner imagines a picture or a scene which has a strong association with the target word. Instead of using real pictures, this method allows a word to be visualized so it is really easy and practical, all you need is imagination. An image does not mean the same as the word, but reminds you strongly of the word. For example the word *freedom* might be associated with the Statue of Liberty or with a person running away from a prison, or maybe with birds. As Holden (1999:44) states “The image each person has of a word is different because our experiences are different.” And he also adds some other aspects of this method, “sharing and explaining your experiences of words with others can help you remember them more easily. Vivid images are more easily recalled than bland ones.”

Visual imagery can be used as a separate method; however it is also crucial for the use of other mnemonics. Some well-known memory improvement methods involve using visual imagery to memorize or recall lists. As O’Malley and Chamot (1990; cited in Amiryousefi and Ketabi, 2011:180) suggest “visualization can be an effective aid in vocabulary learning”

Personally created imagery should be more effective than teacher-prepared imagery, but creating self-generated imagery can be difficult as well as time consuming (Higbee, 1996; cited in Spackman, 2010:5).

2.4.5. The Loci Method

The loci method involves associating information with known places, in the order a person would move through the location. This is one of the oldest systems for which any evidence remains (Yates, 1966; cited in Spackman, 2010: 2). Method of Loci, which means place, is supposed to have been invented by the Greek poet Simonides, who lived about 400 B.C. (Gray, 1997). It is claimed to be traced back to Greek and Roman rhetoric teachers who used this method to remember the order of topics they intended to cover in a long speech (Bower, 1970).

Holden, (1999: 44) gives a practical guide for the use of loci method describing the steps that the method involves:

Imagine a place you know well or a route you often travel with which you are very familiar. Then associate the parts or sections of the place (like the rooms in a house or the shops and houses along a street) with a new word or phrase you've learned. For example, if in your way to school each day you pass a street lined with shops in order, recall the words that you matched with each one. The next day, say the words again as you pass the shops. Matching a word you want to learn with the shop or place by sound (i.e. they start with the same sound in both languages as in *boulangerie-bread*) or by similarity (*restaurant- waiter*) can aid recall.

Using this method entails imagining a very familiar place like a room or a house or a street and then associating each to-be-remembered item to a part of it. A mental 'walk' then ensures the retrieval of the items in the correct order. In other words, the students take an imaginary walk along their familiar places, and retrieve the items they have put there. But while using this method, learners should imagine the pictures of the places and their steps for better remembering. (Amiryousefi and Ketabi, 2011: 179)

Evidence suggest that the method of loci can be effective in increasing retention; learners who used loci method scored better than nonusers on immediate and delayed recall tests (Massen and Vterrodt-Plunnecke, 2006; Moe and De Beni, 2004: cited in Weiten: 2011:253). Moreover, this method ensures that items are remembered in their correct order because the order is determined by the sequence of locations along the pathway.

Carlson, Kincaid, Lance, and Hodgson (1976; cited in Atay and Ozbulgan, 2007: 41) compared a group trained on the method of loci to a control group and found significantly better recall in the loci group. Another study by Roediger (1980; cited in Atay and Ozbulgan, 2007: 41) looked at the method of loci along with three other well-known mnemonic methods. Results of the study revealed that all four mnemonic groups recalled the 20-word list better than the control group. However, the method of loci and the peg word system were found to be better methods to use when the order of words remembered was important.

Loci method was also one of the techniques that were used by the famous mnemonist Shereshevskii (Luria, 1969). He used to imagine a familiar street in Moscow and then place items he had to remember along the street. Along the years Shereshevskii was asked to memorize complex mathematical formulas, huge matrices and even poems in foreign languages. He was able to remember any information presented thanks to the mnemonic techniques that he used, including loci method.

2.4.6. Peg Word Method

Peg word method can be used when numbered or ordered information needs to be remembered. When using this method, people associate easily memorable words that rhyme with the numbers, via imagery. These words act as "pegs" on which to hang information (Higbee, 1996; cited in Spackman, 2010: 3). Pegwords are rhyming words for numbers and include the following:

One is bun	six is sticks
two is shoe	seven is heaven
three is tree	eight is gate
four is door	nine is vine
five is hive	ten is hen

The peg word method can be described in a two-stage process (Richmond, Cummings, Klapp, 2008:2). In the first stage, learners develop number-rhyme pairs (e.g., *one* is a *bun*, *two* is a *shoe*, and *three* is a *tree*, etc.). In the second stage, learners try to visualize the to-be-remembered item linking the rhyming words to the to-be-remembered item. For example, if the to-be-remembered item is George Washington, a vivid mental image of President Washington holding a bun (one) can be created. When the learner must recall the first president, this image comes to mind and he/she can easily recall George Washington. (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 2000; cited in Richmond, Cummings, Klapp, 2008:2).

Peg words can also be extended beyond the numbers. Holden (1999: 45) suggests using some other peg words as well, such as the days of the week, the months of the year, the names of friends, classmates and family members, your

telephone number, the parts of a car, rooms of a house, or anything you like. He also warns the users of the method that they should be sure the peg is something they can remember automatically and he gives an example; “if you are trying to learn words which describe types of weather, think of the days of the week (the peg) (Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday...) and associate them with a certain type of weather: Monday, muggy; Tuesday, Torpid; Wednesday, windy; Thursday, thundering, etc. Then form a picture in your mind of the sky on such a day.” (Holden, 1999: 45)

2.4.7. The Link Method

The link method, which is also known as chain method, is probably the most basic memory technique, and is very easy to understand and use. It works by making simple associations between items in a list, coding them into images and then linking these images together.

This method consists of two steps (Er, 1999; cited in Korkmaz and Mahiroğlu, 2007: 99). These are:

1. Creating a visual image of each target item
2. Linking the image of each item with the next one

Doing so, the target items are linked together as a chain through their images in the mind. There need not be any reason or underlying plot to the order of images: only images and the links between images are important. If the items are linked to make a plot or story it creates a different mnemonic technique, Narrative Chain Method, which will be handled in ongoing sections.

2.4.8. Keyword Method

The keyword method is probably the most widely studied method, especially in vocabulary learning. To remember a new piece of information, a suitable substitution word (the keyword) is chosen and then associated with the meaning of the original word in a mental image. “A keyword is a word that sounds like the new word and is easily pictured”. (Mastropieri and Scruggs, 1998)

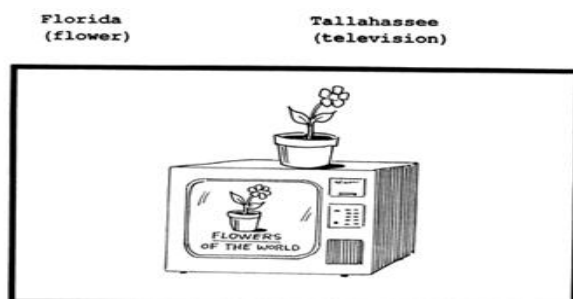
Atkinson's (1975), *Mnemotechnics in Second Language Learning*, was the original study on the keyword method. Atkinson and Raugh (1975:126) described keyword method as "a chain of two links connecting a foreign word to its mother language translation: the foreign word is linked to a keyword by a similarity in sound (*acoustic* link), and the keyword is linked to the translation by mental imagery (*mnemonic* or *imagery* link)". By recalling the keyword, the original word and its meaning can be recalled easily.

Using the keyword method can be handled in two stages; first, associating the target word with a word in learner's own language, the keyword, that sounds approximately like some part of the foreign word; second, forming a mental image of the keyword interacting with the mother language translation. (Atkinson and Raugh (1975)

Atkinson and Raugh (1975) did a survey to evaluate the effectiveness of the keyword method for learning a foreign language vocabulary. They did their experiment with 52 Stanford University undergraduates (all were native speakers of English) learning Russian. The experiment compared the keyword method with an unconstrained control procedure using Russian vocabulary. On all measures the keyword method proved to be highly effective, yielding for the most critical test a score of 72% correct for the keyword group compared to 46% for the control group.

Mastropieri, Scruggs, Bakken, & Brigham (1992; cited in Mastropieri and Scruggs, 1998) conducted an investigation on the effectiveness of mnemonic techniques in helping students with mild cognitive disabilities remember U.S. states and capitals. For example, they taught the capital of Florida, Tallahassee, through Keyword Method. *Flower* was the keyword for Florida and *television* was the keyword for Tallahassee. Because Florida sounds like flower (the keyword), it was easy to teach students to make an automatic connection between Florida and flower. It was also easy to teach them to establish a firm association between Tallahassee and *television* (the keyword), because Tallahassee and *television*, again, sound very similar and television was very familiar to students.

Figure-2.5. Mnemonic representation of Tallahassee, capital of Florida.



(Mastropieri and Scruggs, 1993; cited in Mastropieri and Scruggs, 1998)

Lastly, to teach that Tallahassee is the capital of Florida, Mastropieri *et al* combine the two connections, Florida-*flower* and Tallahassee- *television*, by the use of a picture as seen in Figure-2.5. above.

Students had learned the capital of Florida so well because the mnemonic strategy had carefully linked it to things they were very familiar with. They have found mnemonic strategies constructed according to these procedures to be extraordinarily effective, because as Mastropieri and Scruggs (1998) states, “Although recalling that Tallahassee is the capital of Florida may be difficult for a student with learning problems, remembering a picture of a flower on a television set was much simpler, and - if the keywords had been learned - contained the same information.”

A list of some Italian vocabulary words and corresponding mnemonic strategies are given in Table-2.5.

Table-2.5. Sample Italian Vocabulary Words and Corresponding Mnemonic Strategies

Word and Meaning	Keywords	Strategy
mela (apple)	mail	an apple in a mailbox
capre (goat)	cop	a goat dressed like a cop
lago (lake)	log	a log in a lake
carta (letter)	cart	a cart with a letter in it
fonda (bag)	phone	a phone in a bag

(Mastropieri & Scruggs, 1991; cited in Mastropieri & Scruggs, 1998)

In Fang's (1985; cited in Atay and Ozbulgan, 2007) study, five intact classes were taught three lessons of medical terminology by one or more of three methods: traditional, keyword in the classroom and keyword in individualized learning. Results revealed that the class taught to use the keyword strategy retained the medical terminology to a significantly better extent than the class taught by a traditional method.

Results of McDaniel and Pressley's (1989; cited in Atay and Ozbulgan, 2007) study also confirms the success of keyword method. They compared the keyword technique, with the context method and found the keyword method to be significantly more effective on learning than the context method.

As it has been stated before the keyword method is the most widely studied method, so it is difficult to present all the studies here besides it is not the main topic of the study. As the last reference, Köksal (2013) did a study to determine the effect of mnemonics used in English classes of 5th graders on achievement, attitude, vocabulary knowledge and retention. In experimental group he applied the keyword method in English classes. However in control group the teaching methods prescribed by current primary English program were used. The results of the study show that there was a significant difference between the groups in terms of their vocabulary knowledge gain scores. The keyword method had a positive influence on students' English vocabulary learning, achievement and attainment.

2.4.9. Narrative Chain Method

Mnemonic narrative chain method is one of the easiest methods to use at classes because it needs nothing but student involvement and imagination. It consists of linking items to be remembered through associations and generating a short story. Some research revealed that stories significantly affect recall in a positive manner (Kütük, 2007). This method requires associating the target words with a topic, creating imagery links between the words, and making up a short story containing the target words. Using this method, learners create a chain out of the target items.

As in other types of mnemonics, narrative chain method can be used not only for vocabulary learning but for everything to be remembered later. For example, this method can be used simply to memorize a shopping list containing *milk, apples, wash-up liquid, coffee, cola, dog food*. A short story made up of these items may be as follows:

“Once there was a cow which ate green **apples** which is why she gave green **wash-up liquid** instead of **milk**. One day she ate some **coffee** beans and instead of liquid she gave **cola**. The farmer didn’t need such a cow so he turned her into **dog food**.”
<http://memoteque.com/article/30-mnemonics-your-own-chain-of-memory-hooks>)

Regarding language learning, research validated the effectiveness of learning strategies and indicated that activating learners’ memories is crucial for the internalization of new linguistic information (Holden, 1999). Parallel with these claims, mnemonic narrative chain method helps learners to code the new vocabulary items in a meaningful and familiar context, and also urges them to use their existent vocabulary knowledge, that is, their memories. “The principle of vocabulary learning” according to Carter and McCarty (1988; cited in Holden, 1999: 42) is that “the more words are analyzed or enriched by imagistic or other associations, the more likely it is that they will be retained.”

In this respect narrative chain method is a really affective way of vocabulary teaching, because as Schmitt (2000: 157) states “Vocabulary teaching means more than just introducing new words, it also includes nurturing partially known vocabulary along to the point where learners can use it at will.” He also suggests that “Vocabulary acquisition is an incremental process, and teachers must concentrate not only on introducing new words, but also on enhancing learners’ knowledge of previously presented words.” (Schmitt, 2000: 157).

“A narrative is a story that incorporates the words in the appropriate order.” (Laing, 2010:349) As it is stated in the definition of narrative, narrative chain method can be used for ordered wordlists as well as unordered lists. As Laing (2010) states,

narratives, like other Mnemonics, can assist in making abstract material and concepts more meaningful for individuals.

In his article *“Learning to Learn: 15 Vocabulary acquisition Activities. Tips and Hints”* Holden (1999) described a variety of ways that can help learners remember new words. One of them was Narrative Chain Method. To use this method, students make up a story using the new words in a context or setting. As Holden (1999) suggests “It works best if you can visualize the actions or images of each word.” (p.44) He also states that writing the story later is also a good way to check how many of the words can be retained.

Holden (1999:45) also gives an example narrative chain for the following target words; *rug, expensive, livid, sudden, stain, wipes and relieve*. He explained the steps of the method: “Picture an **expensive** Persian **rug**. Then imagine that someone has spilled grape juice on it, **staining** it. The owner all of a **sudden** becomes very angry, **livid**. The person who spilled the juice runs to get something to **wipe** it out with. To the owner’s **relief**, the rug is not damaged.

The use of narrative chain method has received very little attention in the research literature. Although examples of narrative chains can be found under the heading of mnemonics, there are a few comprehensive studies on the topic. Two of these studies are that of Bower and Clark’s (1969) and Prince’s (2012), which tested the effectiveness of learner-generated stories and teacher-provided stories, respectively.

Bower and Clark (1969) studied with 24 students (a control group of normal study and rehearsal, and a narrative-chaining group) and presented 12 lists of 10 nouns. . Subjects in the “narrative group” were instructed to construct a meaningful story woven around the words to be remembered. Whereas subjects in the control group were given no special instructions and they studied the words by rehearsal. Recall of each list in immediate tests was perfect for both groups. However, after the 12 lists had been studied, average median recall was 93 vs. 13% for the narrative and

control group, respectively. The result of their study revealed that recording the material in learner-generated story form improved recall and retention dramatically.

Different from Bower and Clark's study, Prince (2012) examined the effect of a teacher-provided, as opposed to learner-generated, story on the recall of L2 word forms and meanings. Forty-eight participants, who were in their first or second year of Psychology at a French University performed in the experiment. The experiment compared a condition in which 16 target words were studied through a series of sentences in a teacher-provided narrative framework (story condition) to a condition in which similar sentences bore no connection to each other (unrelated condition). Results indicate that linking sentences containing target words within a narrative framework leads to better recall on an immediate post-test than when sentences are unrelated.

The result of Prince's experiment confirms and extends that of Bower and Clark (1969) relating to narrative chaining as a technique for learning vocabulary. The major difference was that the story condition in Prince's experiment provided participants with a ready-made framework, which takes away the need of making up stories themselves. As Prince (2012:110) states "The story allows for the linking of semantically unrelated words through a common context or framework and acts as an aid to recall."

Kütük (2007) examined whether storytelling technique involving mnemonic vocabulary learning strategies help students to enhance their vocabulary knowledge and help to retrieve when needed. She studied with 5th grade elementary school students and taught them vocabulary learning strategies via storytelling technique. The results of the study revealed that the technique contributed to effective learning and recalling of vocabulary items taught. Another purpose of her study was to find out young learners' attitudes towards vocabulary learning through storytelling activities. Findings of the study depicts that storytelling activities promotes students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment, pleasure towards vocabulary learning.

When using narrative chain method, especially learner-generated one, there are some key points to be considered. This method, naturally, entails writing stories using the target words so learners need to have some existing knowledge. Therefore narrative chain method is especially useful for high level students.

Like all other strategies, this method will be more effective if the learners use their imaginations while writing their stories. It is best to use words and phrases which have personal meaning for the learners. And also the stories need to be simple, not too complicated; otherwise it will be no use.

The use of narrative chain method at classes necessitates student participation. In this respect, it would be to the point to give an ear to Dörnyei (2001; cited in Prince, 2012:113); “involving learners in the design of certain aspects of their own course can be both motivating and effective.”

Brewster, Ellis and Girard (2002, cited in Kütük 2007:32) stressed the importance of stories in general, “Learning English through stories facilitates children in terms of learning basic language functions, structures, vocabulary and language-learning skills.” These advantages are also valid for narrative chain method as it directly entails stories; maybe not listening to stories but personally, writing stories, which is more affective. Narrative chain method requires writing stories with the target words so students actively take place in the learning process. And being personally and actively involved in a story, they improve their own creative powers (Brewster et. al., 2002; cited in Kütük 2007:32).

2.5. Vocabulary List Learning vs Meaningful Learning

For a foreign language learner it is a real challenge to commit a massive amount of foreign words to memory. And the most preferred and the easiest strategy that people prefer naturally is rote learning, which is repeating new words until they can be recognized.

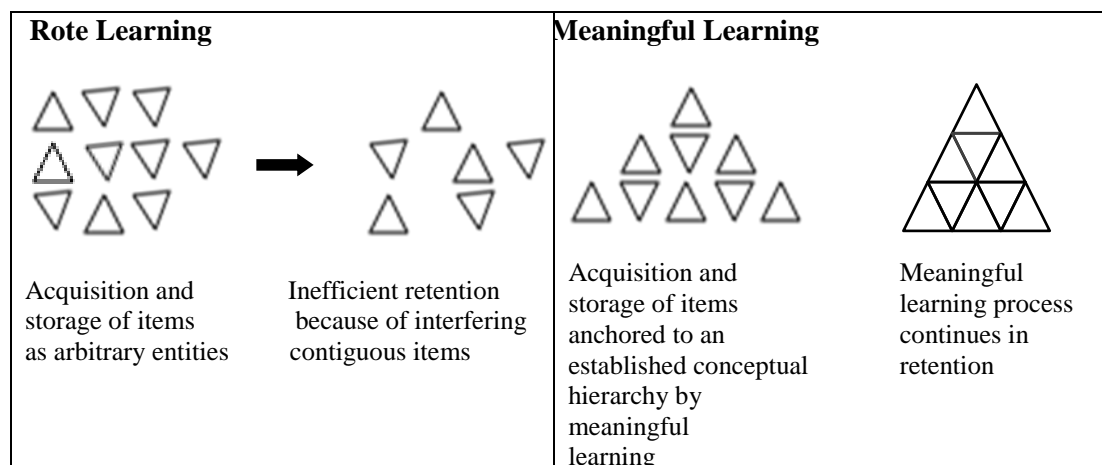
In rote learning or vocabulary-list-learning, learners memorize a number of vocabulary items in a list with their L1 translations. As Brown (2007) states “Rote

learning involves the mental storage of items having little or no association with existing cognitive structure.”(p.91) However in meaningful learning, learners make an association between the new vocabulary item and their existing vocabulary knowledge. Brown (2007) describes meaningful learning as “a process of relating and anchoring new material to relevant established entities in cognitive structure.” (p.91). He explains the difference between two learning types with an analogy,

If we think of cognitive structure as a system of building blocks, then rote learning is the process of acquiring isolated blocks with no particular function in the building of a structure and no relationship to other blocks. Meaningful learning is the process whereby blocks become an integral part of already established categories or systematic clusters of blocks. (p.92)

The distinction between rote and meaningful learning can be better seen with the help of visuals in Figure-2.6.

Figure-2.6. Schematic representation of Rote Learning and Meaningful Learning



(Adapted from Brown, 2007:92)

Using mnemonics as a teaching strategy is a really affective alternative to rote learning. Ausbel (1963; cited in Laing, 2010:350) stressed the importance of cognitive structures on learning. He emphasized the meaningful verbal learning over rote learning which means acquiring of information with various links to other ideas and memorization of specific information without examining relationships within the material, respectively.

Anderson and Armbruster (1984; cited in Laing, 2010:350) concluded that “asking students to create mental images of new material, make inferences, and draw networks of relationships all increased learning.”

Considering this claim, it can be readily said that, mnemonic narrative chain method is a useful teaching and learning tool on behalf of meaningful learning. Because while using this method learners pay attention to the target words, they need to think about their meanings rather than memorize the information by rote. So this method directly involves elaboration, which means processing information deeply. Elaboration involves associating the material being learned with other material and by using narrative chain method; learners could associate the new material with previously learned material to make up a story.

Considering the judgments above, the researcher decided to implement narrative chain method at Selcuk University School of Foreign Languages and expects valuable contributions to vocabulary learning process and retention of learners in EFL classes.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This is an experimental study focusing on the effectiveness of mnemonic narrative chain method, as an alternative to vocabulary-list-learning, in teaching and learning foreign language vocabulary. The aim of this study is to examine whether mnemonic narrative chain method helps students to enhance their vocabulary knowledge and to retrieve when needed. Therefore, in this study mnemonic narrative chain method was compared to the vocabulary-list-learning. It examined the difference between the experiment group, taught vocabulary through narrative chain method and control group, taught vocabulary through a traditional method, vocabulary-list-learning.

This research hypothesizes that there will be a significant difference in vocabulary learning and retention between the experimental group where mnemonic narrative chain technique is used and the control group that is left with traditional method (vocabulary-list-learning).

In this experimental study we aim at finding the answers to the following questions to prove the hypothesis:

7. Is there a significant difference between the pre-recall test scores of the experimental and control group?
8. Is there a significant difference between the pre-recognition test scores of the experimental and control group?
9. Is there a significant difference between the immediate-recall test scores of the experimental and control group?
10. Is there a significant difference between the immediate-recognition test scores of the experimental and control group?
11. Is there a significant difference between the delayed-recall test scores of the experimental and control group?

12. Is there a significant difference between the delayed-recognition test scores of the experimental and control group?

In order to find answers to the research questions, this experimental study was carried out with the preparatory class students at Selcuk University School of Foreign Languages in Konya.

This chapter presents research design, subjects, materials, and the data collection procedure.

3.2. Research Design

In order to test the hypothesis of the study, an experimental and a control group were formed. Each group consisted of 20 students at the same level, early intermediate level. Before application of the methods students were informed about the experiment that would be conducted in their classrooms and their participation was asked for. Prior to the experiment, a pre-recall test and a pre-recognition test including 20 target vocabulary items were administered to both the experimental and the control group in order to determine their passive knowledge of the target vocabulary items. In the recall test, the students were asked to give the Turkish equivalents of the 20 vocabulary items. The pre-recognition test was a multiple choice test with four options, included 20 vocabulary questions.

The study was implemented in two sessions for two following weeks. Each session was of 8 lessons. As an outline Table-3.1. displays this research design. In each session, the experimental group studied the related chapter from their coursebook, English File Intermediate level, in which they learned 10 target words. At the end of the session they had the narrative chain technique integrated with their instruction to code the target words. Control group studied the same chapter which covered the same set of target vocabulary items in the same way but they received vocabulary-list-learning to memorise the words at the end of the session. By the end of the second week students had studied 20 target words in two sessions. The teaching process was all conducted by the same teacher, the researcher herself.

Table-3.1. Research Design

		EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	CONTROL GROUP
PRE TESTS	Recall	the Turkish equivalents of 20 target words were asked	the Turkish equivalents of 20 target words were asked
	Recognition	20 multiple choice questions	20 multiple choice questions
1st and 2nd SESSION	1st and 2nd Session	Course book+ Mnemonic Narrative Chain Method (10+10 target words)	Course book+ List Learning (10+10 target words)
IMMEDIATE TESTS	Recall	The Turkish equivalents of the target words in different order were asked	The Turkish equivalents of the target words in different order were asked
	Recognition	20 multiple choice questions in different order	20 multiple choice questions in different order
DELAYED TESTS (two weeks later)	Recall	The Turkish equivalents of the target words in different order were asked	The Turkish equivalents of the target words in different order were asked
	Recognition	20 multiple choice questions in different order	20 multiple choice questions in different order

After the teaching process, immediate recall and recognition tests were applied to evaluate the success of both groups in vocabulary learning. The same tests in different word orders were applied to both of the groups after two weeks to evaluate their retention, and then the results of the tests were collected and evaluated. The analysis of immediate test and delayed test results were used to verify the hypothesis of this experimental study.

3.3. Subjects

The study was carried out with the 40 preparatory class students at Selcuk University, School of Foreign Languages (SOFL). School of Foreign Languages is responsible for teaching general English to freshmen at prep classes for one year before they study at their own departments. At the beginning of the term, students take a proficiency exam and if they pass the exam, they are exempt from this intensive English preparatory class. In contrast if the students fail the test, they have to take one year of intensive English class at SOFL. They were classified according to their test results at SOFL. The students take twenty five hours of English a week.

Two groups were used in the study, and the groups were classified according to the results of the test that was administered in 2012-2013 academic year. The study started in the middle of the second term (in April). So, the subjects were at early intermediate level after having studied in the first term a series of New English File as a course book.

The study was conducted by the researcher herself as the regular course teacher on prep class 9 (experimental group) and prep class 10 (control group). The experimental group consisted of 20 students, 11 males + 9 females. Similarly, the control group consisted of 20 students, 10 males + 10 females. The ages of the students in both groups ranged between 18 and 19 with nearly similar social and educational backgrounds.

3.4. Materials

Materials used in the study can be categorized into two: instructional materials and testing materials.

3.4.1. Instructional Materials

The materials used with the experimental group and control group throughout the teaching process were reading texts, their activities and some listening parts in Unit 3 of course book, New English File Intermediate Student's Book by Clive Oxenden and Christina Latham-Koenig published by Oxford.

Because of the intensive curriculum at school the researcher needed to use the course book already being used at classes. The aim of the researcher was not to interrupt the ongoing education by the use of extra material or extra study. As a matter of fact the effectiveness of mnemonics in vocabulary learning has been proven in several studies; however researchers indicate that mnemonic strategies should not serve as an overall teaching method or curricular approach but they are intended to be used to enhance the recall of the materials (Mastropieri and Scruggs, 1998). They must be added to the contextual method when applicable (Hall, Wilson, & Patterson, 1981; cited in Atay and Ozbulgan, 2007:41). The method was thought as a supporting vocabulary teaching method to the ongoing language teaching. So the researcher used mnemonic narrative chain method integrated with the course-book, along with contextual learning.

The related unit, Unit 3, from the course-book is presented in Appendix E. The vocabulary items were selected from the texts according to their high frequency in the book. Some of them are already target words and highlighted in the texts. The book had been studied in preparatory classes for a while but the selected unit hadn't been studied yet before the experiment.

3.4.2. Testing Material

In this study, two kinds of vocabulary knowledge that are ; meaning recall and meaning recognition, were assessed using two tests, a recall and recognition test for each pre, post and delayed tests.. The recall test was a list of the 20 target vocabulary items for L1 translation (see Appendix B). The recognition test was a multiple choice test covering the target vocabulary items with a correct answer and three distractors (see Appendix C). In addition, the options were provided within the same vocabulary items. The questions and options of the tests were presented in a different order each time the test was applied because the students could memorise the places of the words and use this for the following tests, and this would affect the validity of the study. It is also worth mentioning that multiple choice test type was deliberately chosen since it is more appropriate to test the recognition aspect of vocabulary knowledge.

Before the experiment, the test was piloted within 120 different students. The test results were analysed to see the reliability of the test. According to the analyse results the number of questions was reduced from 30 to 20 questions to increase the level of reliability. The reliability of the test was 0,801-using Cronbach's Alpha- (see Appendix F for reliability statistics).

Table-3.2. Research Questions and Data Collection Materials

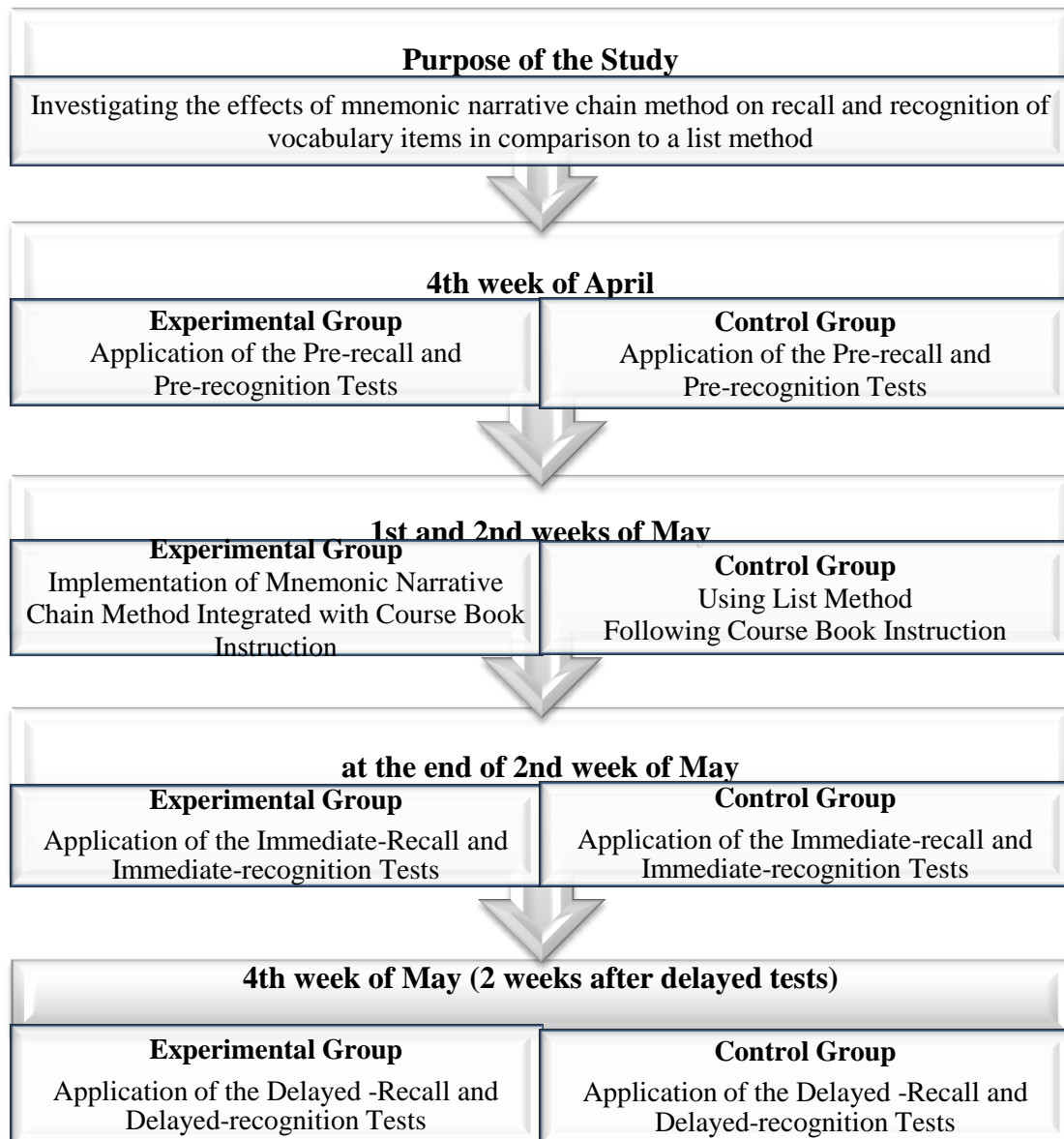
Questions Guiding the Study	Data Collection Materials
1. Is there a significant difference between the pre-recall test scores of the experimental and control group?	PRE-RECALL TEST
2. Is there a significant difference between the pre-recognition test scores of the experimental and control group?	PRE-RECOGNITION TEST
3. Is there a significant difference between the immediate-recall test scores of the experimental and control group?	IMMEDIATE-RECALL TEST
4. Is there a significant difference between the immediate-recognition test scores of the experimental and control group?	IMMEDIATE-RECOGNITION TEST
5. Is there a significant difference between the delayed-recall test scores of the experimental and control group?	DELAYED-RECALL TEST
6. Is there a significant difference between the delayed-recognition test scores of the experimental and control group?	DELAYED-RECOGNITION TEST

Table-3.2. above depicts the research questions and relevant data collection materials. The pre-tests aimed at measuring the existing recall and recognition of the 20 vocabulary items. It was used in order to be able to control for pre existing differences between the groups. The recall and recognition post tests were applied after the experiment to measure the immediate recall and recognition of the target vocabulary items. The delayed (long term retention) tests were applied to measure 2 weeks retention of the vocabulary items both for recall and recognition.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

Data collection procedure is described under three sub-sections; Before the Study, During the Study and After the Study.

Figure-3.1. Research Process



Each part will be explained in detail in the following parts but, at the very beginning, it would be better to present the research process briefly with the help of Figure-3.1 above.

In the first section, Before the Study, the formation of the experimental and control group and the preparation of the research materials are explained. In the second section, During the Study, the implementation of the study is explained. In the last section, After the Study, the implementation and the scoring of the tests are explained.

3.5.1. Before the Study

The study was carried out with the 40 preparatory class students at Selcuk University, School of Foreign Languages (SOFL) in the second term of the 2012-2013 academic year. The subjects of the experiment are 20 students from prep-class 9 as the experimental group, and 20 students from prep-class 10 as the control group.

Before starting the experiment the researcher needed to decide what materials to use for the study. As mentioned before, for the sake of not interrupting the ongoing intensive curriculum, the course-book was chosen as teaching material. Mnemonic Narrative Chain Method was used as a supporting vocabulary teaching method to the ongoing language teaching, integrated with the course-book.

After the selection of the teaching material the second task was to determine the unit to be studied from the course book. Unit 3 was selected to be studied and it hadn't been studied yet at classes. Then 20 target vocabulary items were chosen considering the following points:

- Not being known already by the students
- The importance of the vocabulary items for the understanding of the texts and activities in the course book
- The frequency of usage of the vocabulary items in the following units

Target words consist of 6 verbs, 5 nouns, 5 adjectives, and 4 adverbs. A list of the target words can be seen in Appendix A. These vocabulary items were turned into a multiple choice vocabulary recognition test and a meaning recall test. The recognition test was piloted to 120 students to ensure the test's reliability. According to the results of the reliability test, the vocabulary test involving 20 questions were

formed. The same tests were used as pre-tests, post-tests and delayed-tests throughout the study (see Appendix C).

Finally the pre-recognition and pre-recall tests were applied to determine the subjects' existing knowledge of the target vocabulary items which were to be taught in the following weeks. The intention of this application was to control for pre-existing differences between the experimental and control groups. The pre-tests were applied to the both groups in regular class hours. The duration of the pre-tests was forty minutes.

3.5.2. During the study

The teaching process took two weeks. It had two sessions for both the experimental and the control group. The duration of each session was 8 lessons (40 minutes each). In each session 10 target words were taught. 20 target words were taught totally. Each session covered the same sets of vocabulary items for each groups. However they received different methods at the end of the sessions. The whole process in both the experimental group and the control group was conducted by the same teacher, the researcher herself.

3.5.2.1. Experimental group

In the first session of the study, related chapters of Unit 3 which included the ten target words were studied. Throughout the intervention, the teacher provided daily instruction as usual using the course book, because the aim was to provide the retention of the words learned in the lessons, through Narrative Chain Method. The target words were presented in the book in various activities; reading, listening, and speaking. During the activities target words were emphasized.

After the learning process of the first session, Narrative Chain Technique was taught with a sample activity. The following words were written on the board: *era*, *artificial*, *mission*, *sample*, *mass*, *density*, *disturb*, *distant*. Their meanings were given thinking that some of them were unfamiliar for the students. Then, the following mini-story was written on the board.

“It is the robot **era**. There are some robots with **artificial** hands and legs. They are on a **mission** on the moon. They are collecting a **mass** of **sample** rocks to examine their **density**. No one can **disturb** them because they are in a **distant** area.” (Amiryousefi and Ketabi, 2011)

Assuring that all the students understood the technique, the teacher wrote the first 10 target words on the board and these words were studied for a while through their definition and parts of speech. Then students were asked to code the 10 target vocabulary items in a mini story as in the example activity. Students were warned that the plot of the stories should be simple not so complicated, because this makes it easy to remember. They were asked to use words and phrases which have a personal meaning for them because, it helps in forming better associations. The teacher also told them to imagine the plot, scene, characters and everything, while writing, as it aids retention. They are told that they can write whatever they want and it is not a problem if their stories are absurd.

Each student wrote a story using the target words. Herein the researcher aimed to increase the retention level of the target vocabulary items of the students. This technique would help the students to code the words in a meaningful context which helps them to remember the words more easily; because those mini stories were their own figments of the imagination and very familiar to them.

The second session of the study was conducted following the same process. The remaining parts of the unit, which include the other 10 vocabulary items, were studied. At the end of the second session, the second implementation of the Narrative Chain Technique was conducted. Each student wrote a story with the target words again. So the teaching process ended in the experimental group. Examples of the students' stories are presented in Appendix D.

3.5.2.2. Control group

In the control group the same unit from the course book, Unit 3, was studied in the same way as in Experimental group. In the first session, the same parts of the Unit 3 were studied in the same way as in Experimental group. But different from the experimental group, at the end of the session target words were written on the board

in a list and students were asked to write them down. Then the teacher asked students to give the Turkish and English definitions of the words. Students tried to memorize the meanings of the target words for some time. In this way the first session was completed.

In the second session the same process was followed. The remaining parts of the unit, which include the other 10 vocabulary items, were studied. At the end of the second session, students memorized the words in list again. Thus the teaching process for the control group ended.

3.5.3. After the study

At the end of the teaching process, the immediate recall and immediate retention tests, having the same questions with the pre-test but in different order, were applied to the students to see whether there was a meaningful difference in teaching and learning the target vocabulary items between the experimental and the control group. That is to say, the immediate test results of the groups were examined to see if the experimental group was more successful than the control group.

Two weeks later, the same recall test in a different ordering of the words and recognition test in a different ordering of the questions and options were applied to the both groups as delayed tests. These tests were applied in order to assess the long term retention rates of the target vocabulary items. The delayed tests results were examined to see whether the retention rate of experimental group is higher than the control group.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1. Data Analysis Procedures

As it is mentioned before to build an initial basis for the study pretests were administered prior to the implementation process. The pre-test scores of the experimental and the control groups were compared to see whether both groups were at the same level. Then, the immediate-recall and recognition tests were administered immediately after the implementation process and the results of the groups were collected and compared to see the difference of the short-term vocabulary learning. After two weeks, delayed tests were administered and the scores of the delayed-recall and recognition tests of the groups were collected and compared in order to see the difference of the long-term retentions. After getting the raw scores, the means and standard deviations of the experimental and control groups for both tests were calculated, and then t-test was used to compare the two groups on pre-tests, immediate-tests and delayed-tests. Statistical analysis of this study was carried out as in the following:

Procedures:

1. Analysis of the pre-recall test scores of the control and the experimental group.
2. Analysis of the pre-recognition test scores of the control and the experimental group.
3. Analysis of the immediate-recall test scores of the control and the experimental group.
4. Analysis of the immediate-recognition test scores of the control group and the experimental group.
5. Analysis of the delayed-recall test scores of the control group and the experimental group.
6. Analysis of the delayed-recognition test scores of the control group and the experimental group.

4.2. Results of the Study

The statistical analyses of this study were carried out in six stages; pre-recall test, pre-recognition test, immediate-recall test, immediate-recognition test, delayed-recall test, delayed-recognition test. All the results were presented in detail in the following sections.

4.2.1. Analysis of the Pre- Recall Test Results

In this study, it was necessary to include pre-tests to determine whether the experimental and the control group were equivalent at the beginning of the experiment. T-test was used and pre test mean scores for recall test; Experimental Group: mean (x): 0,35 standard deviation (sd): 0,587 ; Control Group: x: 0,55 sd: 0,686 showed no significant differences between the control and the experimental group.

Table-4.1. Pre-recall Test Mean Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group

	groups	N	x	sd	t	p
pre-recall test	experimental	20	,35	,587	,990	,328
	control	20	,55	,686		

$p > 0,05$

The Table-4.1. shows that with 95 % degree of confidence ($p > 0,05$) there existed no significant difference between the control and the experimental group. As a result, both groups were equal in terms of their vocabulary knowledge prior to the experiment.

4.2.2. Analysis of the Pre-Recognition Test Results

Pre test mean scores for recognition test; Experimental Group; x: 6,05 , sd: 2,064 ; Control Group: x: 5,75 sd: 1,482 showed no significant differences between the control and the experimental group.

Table-4.2. Pre-recognition Test Mean Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group

	groups	N	x	sd	t	p
pre-recognition test	experimental	20	6,05	2,064	,528	,601
	control	20	5,75	1,482		

p>0,05

The Table-4.2. shows that with 95 % degree of confidence ($p>0,05$) there existed no significant difference between the control and the experimental group. As a result, both groups were equal in terms of their vocabulary knowledge prior to the experiment.

4.2.3. Analysis of the Immediate-Recall Test Results

Immediate-recall test mean scores; Experimental Group; x: 17,50 , sd: 2,819 ; Control Group: x: 12,15 sd: 3,329 showed the difference between the experimental and the control group was significant. The Table-4.3. shows that with 95% degree of confidence ($p<0,05$) there existed a statistical difference between the two groups.

Table-4.3. Immediate-recall Test Mean Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group

	groups	N	x	sd	t	p
post-recall test	experimental	20	17,50	2,819	5,485	,000
	control	20	12,15	3,329		

p<0,05

In this comparison, immediate-recall test values of the experimental group was found to be higher than the immediate-recall test values of the control group. In other words, the ones who were instructed the target vocabulary items through Narrative Chain Method were more successful than those who were taught the target vocabulary items through Vocabulary-List-Learning.

4.2.4. Analysis of the Immediate-Recognition Test Results

Immediate-recognition test mean scores; Experimental Group; x: 17,15 , sd: 3,646 ; Control Group: x: 11,20 sd: 4,572 showed the difference between the

experimental and the control group was significant. The Table-4.4 shows that with 95% degree of confidence ($p < 0,05$) there existed a statistical difference between the two groups.

Table-4.4. Immediate-recognition Test Mean Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group

	groups	N	x	sd	t	p
post-recognition test	experimental	20	17,15	3,646	5,485	,000
	control	20	11,20	4,572		

$p < 0,05$

In this comparison, immediate-recognition test values of the experimental group was found to be higher than the immediate-recall test values of the control group. Thus students who were instructed the target vocabulary items through Narrative Chain Method were more successful than those who were taught the target vocabulary items through Vocabulary-List-Learning.

4.2.5. Analysis of the Delayed-Recall Test Results

Delayed-recall test mean scores; Experimental Group; $x: 15,50$, $sd: 2,382$; Control Group: $x: 13,20$ $sd: 3,665$ showed the difference between the experimental and the control group was significant. The Table-4.5 below shows that the difference between the arithmetic means of the delayed-recall scores of the experimental and the control group was statistically significant in favour of the experimental group with a 95% degree of confidence ($p < 0,05$).

Table-4.5. Delayed-recall Test Mean Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group

	groups	N	x	sd	t	p
delayed-recall test	experimental	20	15,50	2,283	2,382	,022
	control	20	13,20	3,665		

$p < 0,05$

It can be said through the table above, students in experimental group were better at retention of the target words than those who were taught the target

vocabulary items through Vocabulary-List-Learning.

4.2.6. Analysis of the Delayed-Recognition Test Results

Delayed-recognition test mean scores; Experimental Group; x : 14,50 , sd : 1,792 ; Control Group: x : 9,00 sd : 3,356 showed the difference between the experimental and the control group was significant. The figures in the Table-4.6 below indicates that the difference between the arithmetic means of the scores of the both groups in the delayed-recognition test was statistically significant, ($p < 0,05$).

Table-4.6. Delayed-recognition Test Mean Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group

	groups	N	x	sd	t	p
delayed- recognition test	experimental	20	14,50	1,792	6,465	,000
	control	20	9,00	3,356		
$p < 0,05$						

Therefore, there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental and the control group. This led to the conclusion that the experimental group succeeded better in retention of the target words than the control group.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

As stated before, this experimental study aimed at investigating the effects of mnemonic narrative chain method on recall and recognition of vocabulary items in comparison to list learning in control group. For this reason, experimental group received treatment in mnemonic narrative chain method; and the control group was taught by rote rehearsal technique in which students are given a vocabulary list to memorize. This study addresses the preparatory students with intermediate level in English proficiency at Selcuk University School of Foreign Languages.

In Chapter 1 statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions and limitations of the study were presented. A general background for the vocabulary learning and mnemonic devices were presented through literature review in Chapter 2. Research design and data collection procedure were explained in Chapter 3. The data analysis and the results were presented in Chapter 4. In this chapter, Chapter 5, a brief discussion of the findings and conclusion, and the suggestions for further studies will be presented.

5.2 Discussion and Conclusion

After being abandoned in language studies for a long time, vocabulary learning and teaching has been given its due. In the last two decades, a considerable amount of vocabulary research has been conducted in language teaching and learning area. It is out of doubt that vocabulary is a crucial aspect of language learning. An analogy by Harmer (2001:153) reveals this fact conspicuously: “If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is the vocabulary that provides the vital organ and flesh.”

In the field of language learning and teaching, vocabulary studies are really popular and most recently there has been a shift to vocabulary learning from vocabulary teaching. So *vocabulary learning strategies* (VLS) has attracted

increasing attention and a number of studies have been conducted so far. Of course learners benefit from teacher aided vocabulary instruction but as mentioned before it is not possible to be able to learn all of the vocabulary items at school by means of vocabulary instruction. Thus it is crucial to make transition from teacher aided instruction to independent learning and it can be achieved through vocabulary learning strategies. Learners need to be instructed some language strategies in general and vocabulary learning strategies in particular.

Mnemonics are also among the vocabulary learning strategies. Mnemonic devices have been proven to be effective in helping students to remember new information in lots of studies. Researches show that linking new meanings to language that is already known, through mnemonic techniques, can positively affect vocabulary learning (Atkinson, 1975; Mastropieri, Scruggs and Levin, 1986; Brown and Perry, 1991; Uberti, Scruggs and Mastropieri, 2003; Atay and Ozbulgan, 2007; Kütük, 2007; Köksal, 2012)

The most popular type of mnemonics is obviously key-word method but there some other types also; peg-word method, loci method, acronym-acrostics, linking method, rhymes, visual imagery, and lastly narrative chain method which is the research subject of this study. As Cook (2001) states, learning a new vocabulary item may be really difficult, however remembering a learned word is more difficult and once you have learned a word it may rapidly fade away if it is not linked to existing information in the memory. And he claimed that, through mnemonics such links can be made. Bearing in mind that mnemonics are really affective in vocabulary learning and retention, learners need to try different kinds of mnemonic techniques to see which techniques work best for them.

This method requires associating the target words with a topic, creating imagery links between the words, and making up a short story containing the target words. Using this method, learners create a chain out of the target items. Regarding language learning, research validated the effectiveness of learning strategies and indicated that activating learners' memories is crucial for the internalization of new linguistic information (Holden, 1999). Parallel with these claims, mnemonic

narrative chain method helps learners to code the new vocabulary items in a meaningful and familiar context, and also urges them to use their existent vocabulary knowledge. In this respect narrative chain method is a really affective way of vocabulary teaching.

Although there are abundant researches on key word method, the use of narrative chain method has received very little attention in the research literature. Examples of narrative chains are presented in studies related with mnemonics, yet there are a few comprehensive studies on the topic. Two of these studies are that of Bower and Clark's (1969) and Prince's (2012), which tested the effectiveness of learner-generated stories and teacher-provided stories, respectively.

Considering the judgments above, the present study intended to search the influence of implementing mnemonic narrative chain method to facilitate learning and retrieving the vocabulary items in comparison with list learning. However, the aim is not to study the effectiveness of a teacher provided story as in Prince's (2012), but of one learner generated, similar with Bower and Clark's (1969) study.

During the two-week study, both groups followed the same course book in use, which provided the learners with a number of exposures to the target vocabulary in several contexts, through reading, listening and speaking activities.

In the experimental group the narrative chain method was used along with contextual learning through the course book in use. Because as Spackman (2010:5) points out "...mnemonic techniques are not replacements for studying. They assist in recalling information but require that the information already be in memory somewhere." In line with this argument, through the course book students learned the target words and with the help of narrative chain method, they consolidate their information about the words. However in the control group list learning is used and after learning the target words they memorized the words in a list.

The purpose of this experimental study was to determine whether mnemonic narrative chain method is more effective in helping students' learning and retention

of vocabulary than vocabulary-list learning. The results of the immediate and delayed tests which were given after the presentation of the selected vocabulary items helped us to compare students' learning and retention rates.

This research tested the following hypothesis:

There will be a significant difference in vocabulary learning and retention between the experimental group where mnemonic narrative chain technique is used and the control group that is left with traditional method (vocabulary-list learning).

This experimental study aimed at finding the answers to the following questions to prove the hypothesis:

1. Is there a significant difference between the pre-recall test scores of the experimental and control group?
2. Is there a significant difference between the pre-recognition test scores of the experimental and control group?
3. Is there a significant difference between the immediate-recall test scores of the experimental and control group?
4. Is there a significant difference between the immediate-recognition test scores of the experimental and control group?
5. Is there a significant difference between the delayed-recall test scores of the experimental and control group?
6. Is there a significant difference between the delayed-recognition test scores of the experimental and control group?

In order to find an answer to the Question 1 and 2, pre-tests were administered to the groups before the instruction and the results were compared using Independent Sample Test. The analysis of the Pre-test scores of the groups revealed no significant difference between the two groups. Therefore, it can be concluded that both groups were considered equivalent in their knowledge of English vocabulary at the beginning of the study.

To find an answer to the Question 3 and 4, immediate-tests were administered to the groups after the implementation process. The analysis of the immediate-test scores indicated that, students who were instructed the target vocabulary items through Narrative Chain Method were more successful than those who were taught the same target vocabulary items through vocabulary-list learning.

Question 5 and 6 were asked to determine the difference between the retention levels of the target words in both groups. The analysis of the delayed tests led to the conclusion that the experimental group succeeded better in retention of the target words than the control group.

As it is presented in detail in Chapter IV, the results of the statistical analysis reveal that implementing Narrative Chain Technique contributes to effective learning and retention of vocabulary items. That is, the performance of the subjects in the experimental group was significantly higher than that of the control group.

It can be readily specified that, the findings of the study confirm the hypothesis of the study: *There is a significant difference in vocabulary learning and retention between the experimental group where mnemonic narrative chain technique is used and the control group that is left with traditional method (vocabulary-list learning).*

Overall, the results of this study are consistent with prior research discussed in the Review of Literature chapter, which suggested that linking new meanings to language that is already known, through mnemonic techniques, would accelerate the rate of vocabulary learning (Atkinson, 1975; Mastropieri, Scuggs and Levin, 1986; Brown and Perry, 1991; Uberti, Scuggs and Mastropieri, 2003; Atay and Ozbulgan, 2007; Kütük, 2007; Köksal, 2013). And more specifically, the results are also consistent with the findings of Bower and Clark (1969) and Prince (2012) that, recording the target words in narrative story form improves vocabulary recall and retention dramatically.

Parallel with these claims, findings of this study depicts that Mnemonic Narrative Chain Technique promotes students' vocabulary learning and retention.

Vocabulary Instruction at the university level has been shown to be strengthened by the use of Mnemonic Narrative Chain Method.

Repeated exposure to new vocabulary items through a variety of strategies is a key factor in retention. The use of mnemonics strategies should be should be integrated into contextual vocabulary learning to help learners improve their ability to recall words. Each learner has his or her individual learning style so it would be better to present a number of strategies to the learners, which allows them to choose the best and most appropriate one for them. As Holden (1999) suggests, “in addition to increasing the range, depth, and recall of vocabulary, these techniques also offer learners the opportunity to become more aware of their individual learning styles, an important step on the path to becoming more confident and autonomous learners.” (p. 43)

As for language teachers, in order to provide the learners with the relevant strategy instruction, teachers themselves should have enough knowledge about strategy use and teaching.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Studies

This experimental study aimed at investigating the effects of learner generated mnemonic narrative chain method on recall and recognition of vocabulary items in comparison to a list learning in control group. Further research is needed to evaluate the effectiveness of the narrative chain method with a teacher-provided story.

In order to generalize the results of the study, experiments with a larger number of learners at all levels of proficiency should be done in for further studies.

The experimental process of this study was of two weeks, more reliable results would be obtained through a longer period of experiment.

Further research is also needed to complement the self-report data by means of interviews, to find out whether using narrative chain method contributes to the learners' level of motivation and interest towards vocabulary learning. With the

interviews it can also be possible to learn the participants' ideas about the usefulness and benefits of the method implemented in the classroom for vocabulary learning and retention.

Lastly, for the sake of not interrupting the ongoing intensive curriculum at school, the course-book on hand was chosen as teaching material. Some technological equipment or various teaching materials can also be used in the studies.

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APPENDICES**APPENDIX A
TARGET WORDS****FIRST WEEK**

1. to dial
2. to hang up
3. to hoot
4. to interrupt
5. fault
6. cellular
7. engaged
8. intensive
9. deliberately
10. slightly

SECOND WEEK

1. to amputate
2. to confess
3. fringe
4. wig
5. drug dealer
6. frustrating
7. hideous
8. embarrassed
9. competitively
10. properly

APPENDIX B**RECALL TEST of PRE-TEST, IMMEDIATE-TEST AND DELAYED-TEST**

(In a different order in each test)

Write Turkish equivalences of the following words.

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1. to dial: | 11. frustrating: |
| 2. engaged: | 12. fringe: |
| 3. fault: | 13. to amputate: |
| 4. competitively: | 14. wig: |
| 5. to hang up: | 15. embarrassed: |
| 6. cellular: | 16. drug dealer: |
| 7. to hoot: | 17. hideous: |
| 8. intensive: | 18. slightly: |
| 9. properly: | 19. to confess: |
| 10. to interrupt: | 20. deliberately: |

APPENDIX C

RECOGNITION TEST of PRE-TEST, IMMEDIATE-TEST AND DELAYED-TEST

(The questions and options were in a different order in each test)

Circle the word that best completes each sentence.

1. **I must cut my _____. It's getting in my eyes!**
 A) cellular B) fringe C) drug dealer D) fault
2. **The line's been _____ for hours. He must be talking to his mother!**
 A) intensive B) embarrassed C) hideous D) engaged
3. **All the groups want to be the first. They are studying _____ for their projects to win the price.**
 A) slightly B) competitively C) properly D) deliberately
4. **Don't _____ the teacher while she is talking.**
 A) dial B) confess C) interrupt D) amputate
5. **He _____ that he had tried to cheat on the exam**
 A) amputated B) hung up C) confessed D) hooted
6. **I didn't break the window _____, it was an accident.**
 A) deliberately B) slightly C) properly D) competitively
7. **I was attacked by a/an _____ monster in my dream last night. It was frightening.**
 A) intensive B) embarrassed C) hideous D) engaged
8. **The television isn't working _____. We should take it back to the electronic shop.**
 A) slightly B) competitively C) properly D) deliberately
9. **A _____ is a telephone that you can carry with you and use to make or receive calls wherever you are.**
 A) cellular B) fault C) wig D) fringe
10. **The doctor _____ the soldier's badly injured leg, so he had to live with only one leg.**
 A) interrupted B) confessed C) amputated D) dialed

11. The course only lasted a week but I was very tired because it was very _____.
- A) hideous B) intensive C) frustrating D) embarrassed
12. That was a/an _____ exam, because I couldn't answer the questions.
- A) embarrassed B) frustrating C) intensive D) engaged
13. Can you _____ the number for me? I can't find my glasses.
- A) hang up B) hoot C) dial D) interrupt
14. She is _____ older than her sister. She is 14 and her sister is 12.
- A) properly B) competitively C) deliberately D) slightly
15. It will be your own _____ if you don't pass your exams.
- A) drug dealer B) fringe C) fault D) wig
16. He didn't answer the phone so I _____.
- A) hung up B) hooted C) confessed D) amputated
17. A _____ is a covering of false hair which you wear on your head, for example because you have little hair of your own or because you want to cover up your own hair.
- A) fault B) cellular C) drug dealer D) wig
18. The teacher shouted at me in the class yesterday, so I felt _____!
- A) embarrassed B) frustrated C) intensive D) engaged
19. The driver _____ at the dog but it didn't move.
- A) interrupted B) hung up C) dialed D) hooted
20. The police arrested the _____ in a cafe while he was selling cocaine.
- A) drug dealer B) fringe C) cellular D) wig

APPENDIX D

NARRATIVES PRODUCED BY SOME OF THE STUDENTS IN THE
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

FIRST WEEK

Target words: to dial - to hang up - to hoot- to interrupt- fault – cellular – engaged
intensive – deliberately – slightly

Hjberk Simsek

words: dial - hang up - hoot - interrupt - fault
cellular - engaged - intensive - deliberately - slightly

I dialed my friend's phone number when I was going to intensive course. Her celular was engaged. I got slightly angry. I deliberately hung up my phone. Suddenly someone interrupted my car's way. I hooted but he didn't move. Although I tried stop, I hit him. It's his fault not mine.

Denizhan Bilim

WORDS: dial - hang up - hoot - interrupt - fault - celular
engaged - intensive - deliberately - slightly

All of them was my fault. But I was nervous, my girlfriend left me. I was driving in my car. I was dialling her number, but her celular was engaged. And called her again. She answered. I told her that "I'm really sorry, I did a mistake but, please believe me, I won't do this again". Suddenly I saw a waver. I hooted but she didn't hear. And I hit her. I deliberately do. But "why?". I was crazy. How can I do it? Our speech was interrupted, my girlfriend hung up her phone. I got out of my car. There was a very intensive smell. The waver was slightly small and thin. And I was crying. Because she was my girlfriend.

Ali GITAK

Words : dial, hang up, hoot, interrupt, fault, celular
engaged, intensive, deliberately, slightly.

"One day, Ahmet dialed his girl-friend's number. But, the line was engaged. After an hour, he called her back. She answered the telephone. When they were speaking, suddenly she hung up her phone. Ahmet worried, and immediately he went out and got in his car. He was driving fast. The car in front of him was a bit slow. He hooted and passed the car. The traffic was very intensive. He phoned his girl-friend back, but she didn't answer. He resented and he deliberately throw his celular. Traffic police interrupted to stop him. He stopped. Police said: "You have a fault, you are driving too fast and fined him. Ahmet was slightly angry, but went on. When he arrived his girl-friend's house, he discovered that she had died.

SECOND WEEK

Target words: to amputate - to confess - fringe - wig - drug dealer - frustrating - hideous - embarrassed - competitively - properly

MERVE A2AK

confess - amputate - fringe - wig - drug dealer -
frustrating - embarrassed - hideous - competitively
properly

There was a drug dealer. He was wearing a wig and a black suit. He had terrible black eyes. His smile was very hideous and frustrating. He was selling his products in competitively. There was a girl. She had blond and long hair and fringe. She was very young but she was using drug. She bought her drug from this man. She started to use too much drug. She was very ill. Her family took her to a hospital. Doctors amputated her left arm. Then he confessed everything to her family. She was embarrassed. Police came to her, they wanted her to describe this terrible man properly. She described him. At the end the man was arrested.

Barbaros medekas GAPPAN

Words: confess, amputate, fringe, wig, drug dealer, frustrating, embarrassed, hideous, competitively, properly.

I am the biggest drug dealer. I have a lot of worker. Alex is my best transporter. His appearance is frustrating and he is very hideous. So he wears a wig sometimes and sometimes he has a fringe. I have a very big sending and it is very important. We put his drug in his stomach. But he didn't transport it properly and he failed to on this mission. The police arrested him and he confiscated everything. Before this we were working competitively but now we lost everything. I promise when he is free again. I will amputate his arms. :)

There was a man called Hasan. He was a drug dealer. He was wearing wig. He was going to sell drug by motorbike, suddenly a car hit him. His leg had to be amputated at the knee, Anyone didn't know his job. A hideous policewoman came hospital. She was tall, and thin, she had straight dark hair and fringe. When she arrived Hasan's room, he was watching TV. Policewoman asked his accident. He explained properly his accident and he confessed his job. Policewoman said, "you will go to court". This position was very frustrating. Ahmet fought with policewoman and laid her out. Ahmet phoned his friend. His friend came hospital, and they broke away from hospital. Six months later, he went on working competitively together his friend.

=ALI QITAK=

Pelin Ucan

Words: confess - amputate - fringe - wig - drug dealer
 frustrating - embarrassed - hideous - competitively
 properly

There is a famous doctor in a hospital. He has a fringe but he wears wig because he doesn't want to be recognized. Everybody knows his name "Metin Silev" but Nobody knows his body, face etc.

One day, an in Tired person come to hospital. He confessed that he was a drug dealer, He was hideous. Kenan said the doctor that "I will die soon. I want to sell my organs. If you accept my offer, you can be a rich man". A few doctors wanted this operation so they worked completitly. Metin did the operation properly. He amputated kenan's organs. And he was never embarrassed of this frustrating event. He only thought that; kenan died in peace and he earned the money which he deserves - - -

APPENDIX E

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL

3
A

G *must, have to, should* (obligation)
V mobile phones
P sentence stress

Modern manners



1 VOCABULARY & SPEAKING mobile phones

a Match the word with the country. How do you say 'mobile phone' in your language? Which name do you like best?

- | | |
|-------------|--------------|
| 1 France | a cell phone |
| 2 Germany | b telefonino |
| 3 Italy | c celular |
| 4 the USA | d movil |
| 5 the UK | e portable |
| 6 Spain | f mobile |
| 7 Argentina | g Handy |

b **3.1** Listen and match the sentences with the sounds.

- A He's **dialling** a number.
B She's **texting** a friend.
C He's just **hung up**.
D She's choosing a new **ring tone**.
E He's **calling back**.
F She **left a message** on his voice mail.
G The line's **engaged / busy**.

c Use the questionnaire to interview another student (who has a mobile phone). Ask for more information.

Mobile phone questionnaire

- What make is your mobile?
How long have you had your mobile?
Are you thinking of getting another one soon?
What ring tone do you have?
Do you ever use it 'hands free'?
What do you use it for [apart from talking]?
Where and when do you normally switch off your mobile?
How often do you text?
Do you use...?
a voice mail b speed dialling

Have you ever...?

- ...lost your mobile
...sent a text to the wrong person
...forgotten to turn your phone off (with embarrassing consequences)

2 GRAMMAR *must, have to, should* (obligation)

- a In pairs, look at the picture and answer the questions.
- 1 What's the man doing? Does it annoy you when people do this?
 - 2 Does this happen a lot in your country?
 - 3 What other things do people do with mobiles that annoy you?
- b **22** Listen to five people talking about things that annoy them about mobiles. Match the speakers with what they say.
- Who...?
- A says talking on your mobile can be dangerous
 - B complains about people who are very impatient to use their mobiles
 - C complains about people using mobiles on social occasions
 - D hates having to listen to other people's conversations
 - E complains about people who interrupt a conversation to answer the phone



-
-
-
-
-

c Match these sentences from the dialogues with their meaning.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 You shouldn't answer the phone if you're talking to a shop assistant. <input type="checkbox"/> | A You don't need to do this. It isn't necessary. |
| 2 You have to switch off your mobile when you fly. <input type="checkbox"/> | B Don't do this. It isn't allowed / permitted. |
| 3 You mustn't use your phone until you get off the plane. <input type="checkbox"/> | C Do this because it's a rule or the law. |
| 4 You don't have to shout – the other person can hear you. <input type="checkbox"/> | D I think it's a bad thing to do this. |
| 5 You should talk really quietly if you are in a public place. <input type="checkbox"/> | E I think it's a good thing to do this. |

d **23** p.134 Grammar Bank 3A. Read the rules and do the exercises.

3 PRONUNCIATION & SPEAKING sentence stress

- a **23** Listen and repeat the sentences. Copy the rhythm.
- 1 You mustn't use your phone on a plane.
 - 2 I don't have to go to work tomorrow.
 - 3 We have to do an exam in June.
 - 4 You should switch off your mobile in class.
 - 5 You shouldn't talk loudly on a mobile phone.
 - 6 I must go to the bank this morning.

- b Read the definition of manners. Then look at phrases 1–8. Are these laws (or against the law) or just good / bad manners? Mark M (manners) or L (law).

manners [pl noun] a way of behaving that is considered to be polite in a society or culture

Manners or the law?

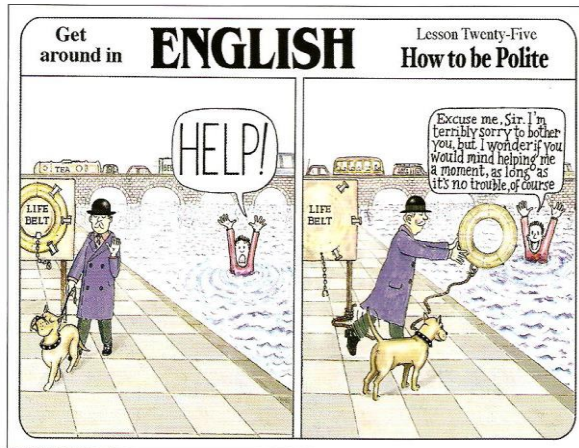
- 1 Play noisy games on a mobile phone in public
- 2 Send text messages when your car is stopped at traffic lights
- 3 Switch off your mobile phone on a plane
- 4 Switch off your mobile phone in class
- 5 Talk loudly on a mobile on public transport
- 6 Use a hand-held mobile while driving a car
- 7 Make very personal calls in public
- 8 Use your mobile at a petrol station

c Compare with a partner. Then make sentences with...

- You *should / shouldn't* ... (for manners)
- You *have to / mustn't* ... (for the law)

4 READING

- a Look at the postcard. What does it say about the English?
- b Read *Culture shock* and tick (✓) the sentence which says what the article is about.
- The English have very good manners.
 - The English and Russian idea of good manners is different.
 - The English are polite but insincere.
 - The Russians are very rude and unfriendly.



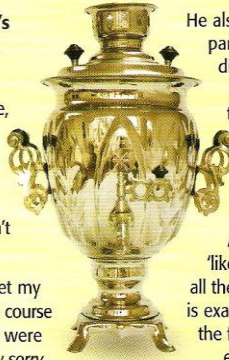
Culture shock

Good manners are always good manners. That's what Miranda Ingram, who is English, thought, until she married Alexander, who is Russian.

When I first met Alexander and he said to me, in Russian, '*Nalei mnye chai* – pour me some tea', I got angry and answered, 'Pour it yourself'. Translated into English, without a 'Could you...?' and a 'please', it sounded really rude to me. But in Russian it was fine – you don't have to add any polite words.

However, when I took Alexander home to meet my parents in the UK, I had to give him an intensive course in *pleases* and *thank yous* (which he thought were completely unnecessary), and to teach him to say *sorry* even if someone else stepped on his toe, and to smile, smile, smile.

Another thing that Alexander just couldn't understand was why people said things like, 'Would you mind passing me the salt, please?' He said, 'It's only the salt, for goodness sake! What do you say in English if you want a *real* favour?'



He also watched in amazement when, at a dinner party in England, we swallowed some really disgusting food and I said, 'Mmm...delicious'. In Russia, people are much more direct. The first time Alexander's mother came to our house for dinner in Moscow, she told me that my soup needed more flavouring. Afterwards when we argued about it my husband said, 'Do you prefer your dinner guests to lie?'

Alexander complained that in England he felt 'like the village idiot' because in Russia if you smile all the time people think that you are mad. In fact, this is exactly what my husband's friends thought of me the first time I went to Russia because I smiled at everyone, and translated every 'please' and 'thank you' from English into Russian!



At home we now have an agreement. If we're speaking Russian, he can say 'Pour me some tea', and just make a noise like a grunt when I give it to him. But when we're speaking English, he has to add a 'please', a 'thank you', and a smile.

Adapted from the British press

- c Read the article again and mark the sentences T (true) or F (false). Correct the wrong sentences.
- 1 Miranda got angry because her husband asked her to make the tea.
 - 2 Miranda had to teach him to say sorry when something wasn't his fault.
 - 3 Her husband thinks English people are too polite.
 - 4 Alexander wasn't surprised when people said they liked the food at the dinner party.
 - 5 The food was delicious.
 - 6 Miranda didn't mind when her mother-in-law criticized her cooking.
 - 7 Alexander thought his mother was right.
 - 8 In Russia it isn't normal to smile all the time when you speak to someone.
 - 9 His Russian friends thought Miranda was very friendly because she smiled a lot.
 - 10 Alexander never says thank you for his tea when he and Miranda are speaking in Russian.
- d Now cover the text. Can you complete the phrases with the missing verbs?
- 1 _____ on someone's foot or toe (by accident)
 - 2 _____ some wine into a glass or tea into a cup
 - 3 _____ a noise, like a grunt
 - 4 _____ food (so that it goes from your mouth to your stomach)
 - 5 _____ a word from English into Russian
- e Are people in your country more like Miranda or Alexander?

5 LISTENING

a **3.4** Listen to four people who have lived in England answering the question 'Are English people *too* polite?' Do they answer yes or no? If yes, what do they think the English should do?

- 1 László, an English teacher from Hungary **Yes / No** _____
- 2 Paula, a businesswoman from Argentina **Yes / No** _____
- 3 Melik, an economist from Turkey **Yes / No** _____
- 4 Renata, a student from Germany **Yes / No** _____

b Listen again and answer the questions.

- 1 Why were László and his friends in London?
- 2 Did he and his friends think they were going to pass or fail? Why?
- 3 What happened in the end?
- 4 What do Latin people think when English people are polite?
- 5 How does Paula describe Latin people?
- 6 What does Melik think about the English people he has met in his job?
- 7 What kind of English people does he say aren't polite?
- 8 What happened to Renata when she was in London?
- 9 What did she say to the last person? Why?

6 SPEAKING

Look at the five situations. In groups, discuss...

Do people do these things in your country?

Do you think it's good or bad manners to do these things, or doesn't it matter?

In my country, we don't kiss people when we meet them for the first time.



Greeting people

- kiss people on both cheeks when you meet them for the first time
- call older people by their first names
- use more formal language when speaking to an older person

**Good manners?
Bad manners?
Does it matter?**



In a restaurant

- let your children run around and be noisy
- be very affectionate to your partner
- talk on your mobile



Driving

- always stop at a pedestrian crossing
- hoot at someone who's driving slowly
- drive with the window down and your music playing



Men and women – a man's role

- pay for a woman on the first date
- wait for a woman to go through the door first
- make sure a woman gets home safely at night



Visiting people

- take a present if you're invited to dinner at someone's house
- arrive more than 10 minutes late for a lunch or dinner
- smoke in a house where the owners don't smoke

3

B

G *must, may, might, can't* (deduction)

V describing people

P *-eigh, -aigh, -igh*

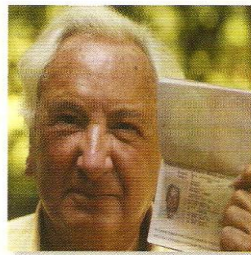
Judging by appearances

1 READING

- a Answer the questions in pairs.
- How many documents do you have which have your photo on them?
 - Where was your passport or ID card photo taken?
 - in a photo booth
 - at home
 - at a photo studio
 - Do you think the photo looks like you?
 - Do you like the photo? Why (not)?
- b Look at the three people and their passport photos. Do they look like their passport photos?
- c Read the first paragraph of the article and answer the questions.
- Why is our passport photo important?
 - Which nationality are the least happy with their photo?
 - Which are the happiest?
 - Which nationality are the vainest?
- d Now read the rest of the article. Who is happy with their photo? Who isn't? Why?
- e Look at the **highlighted** words in the text and choose the correct meaning.
- a study
 - a book
 - feeling uncomfortable
 - feeling happy
 - journalists
 - famous people
 - feeling pleased with yourself
 - feeling unhappy with yourself
 - very beautiful
 - very ugly
 - without hair
 - with a lot of hair
 - a kind of document
 - false hair

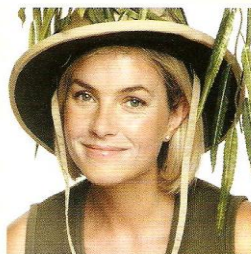
Do I really look like this?

Our **passport (or identity card) photo** is the photo we show to the largest number of different people during our lives. But how happy are we with our photo? Do we make an effort to get a good one? According to ¹ **research** done by the US printer company Lexmark, the answer varies according to nationalities. It seems that the Italians are the most ² **embarrassed** about their passport photo (21% said they didn't like showing it to other people). On the other hand, 98% of Norwegians said they were happy with their photos. And the French spend most time trying to get the perfect photo (sometimes spending an hour in the photo booth!). We asked three British media ³ **celebrities** how they felt about their passport photos...



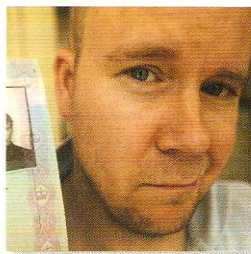
Michael Winner
film director

'I used to be very ⁴ **proud** of my passport photo,' said Michael Winner. 'For more than forty years I looked like an elegant film director.' But recently Michael renewed his passport and took a new photo in a photo booth. 'Now I look like a drug dealer', he says.



Ruth England
TV holiday show presenter

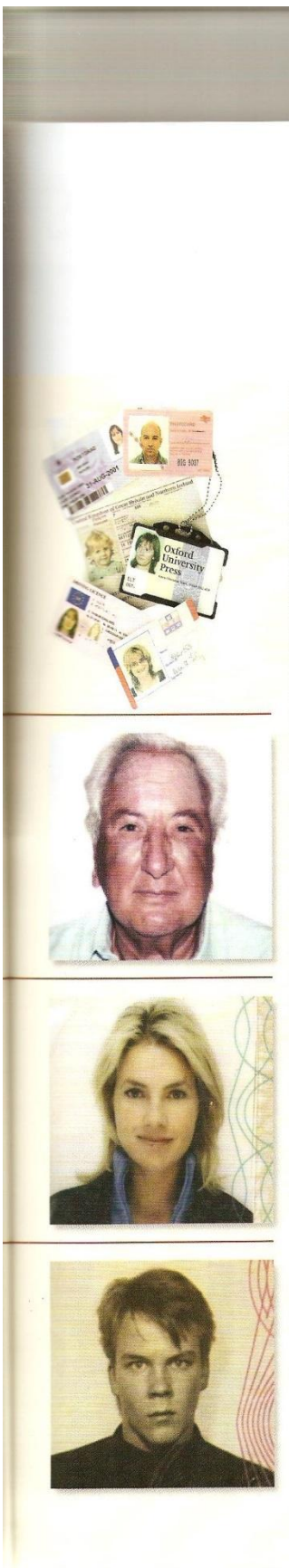
Ruth England spends her life travelling and showing her passport photo to passport officials around the world. She confessed, 'Once I had a passport photo where I looked really ⁵ **hideous** and so I deliberately 'lost' my passport and got a new one. For my latest passport, I took several photos and I chose the best one. I quite like it. I've had much worse ones.'



Toby Young
author and journalist

Toby Young said, 'I'm often stopped when I go through passport control because I don't look like my passport photo at all. In my photo I had a lot more hair but now I'm ⁶ **bald**. No one believes it is me. So, now I have two possibilities: take a ⁷ **wig** with me every time I travel or get a new passport photo!'

Adapted from the British press



HOW WORDS WORK...

Look at two sentences from the text:

Once I had a passport photo where I **looked** really hideous.

I **looked like** an elegant film director.

You can use the verbs *look* and *look like* to talk about a person's appearance.

- Use *look* + adjective (or an age).
- Use *look like* + a noun or pronoun.

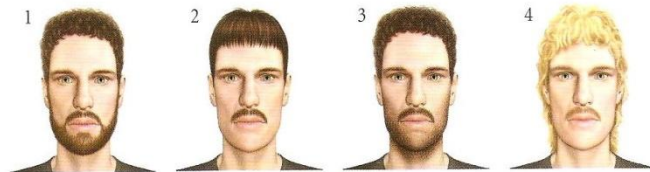
Complete the sentences with *look* or *look like* in the correct form.

- 1 This photo doesn't _____ you at all. When was it taken?
- 2 You _____ very young in this photo. How old were you?
- 3 Your brother _____ a rugby player. He's enormous.
- 4 You _____ tired. Why don't you go to bed?

2 VOCABULARY describing people

a **p.149 Vocabulary Bank** *Describing people.*

b **3.5** Look at the four men and listen. Which one is the bank robber?



3 PRONUNCIATION *-eigh, -aigh, -igh*

a Look at the **pink** letters in the words below. Are they pronounced /ei/ or /aɪ/? Put the words in the correct column.

bright height high in his eighties light brown
might neighbour overweight sight straight weigh

b **3.6** Listen and check.

c How is *-igh* always pronounced? How is *-eigh* usually pronounced? Which word is an exception here?

d **3.7** Practise saying the sentences. Listen and check.

- 1 She has light brown hair. It's short and straight.
- 2 He's medium height and slightly overweight.
- 3 He's in his eighties, but his eyesight's very good.
- 4 She likes wearing tight straight-leg jeans.

4 GRAMMAR *must, may, might, can't* (deduction)

a Look at the photo of the three women. Who do you think is who? Match texts A–C with the photos.

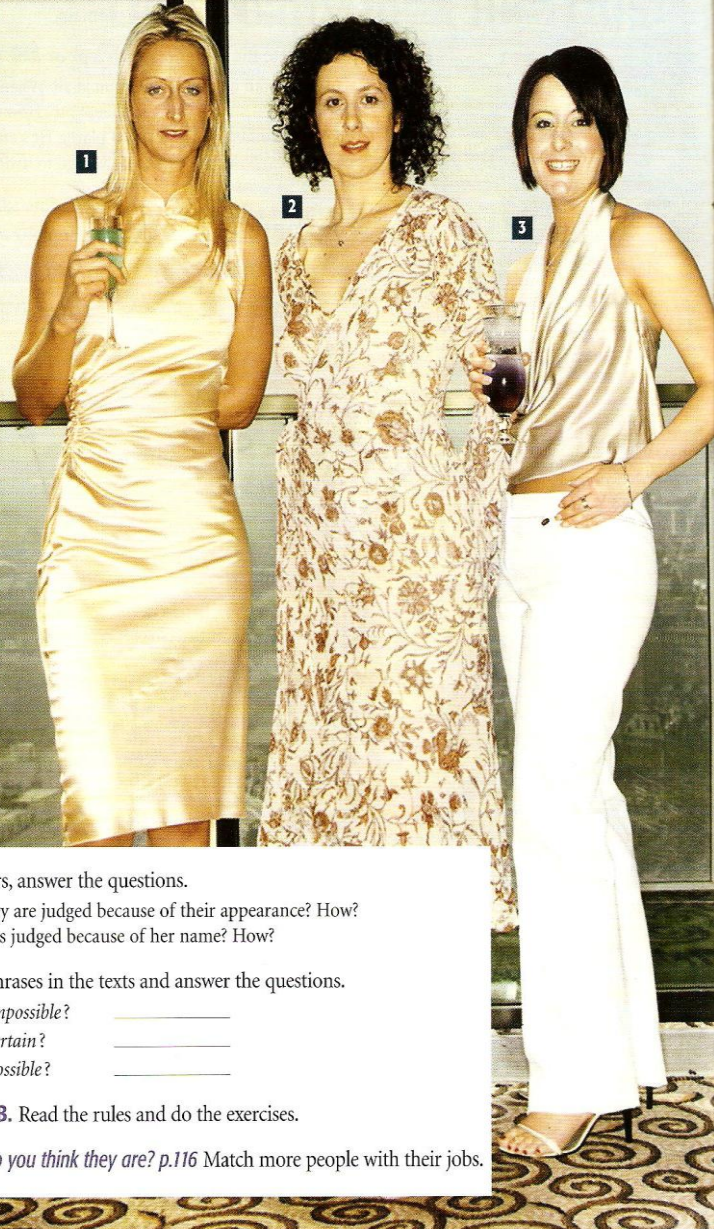
Judging by appearances

**Millionaire's
daughter?**

**Managing
director?**

Policewoman?

**Who
do you
think is
who?**



b Read the texts again. In pairs, answer the questions.

- 1 Which two women feel they are judged because of their appearance? How?
- 2 Which woman thinks she is judged because of her name? How?

c Look at the highlighted phrases in the texts and answer the questions.

- 1 Which phrase means *it's impossible*? _____
- 2 Which phrase means *it's certain*? _____
- 3 Which phrase means *it's possible*? _____

d ➤ p.134 Grammar Bank 3B. Read the rules and do the exercises.

e ➤ Communication *Who do you think they are?* p.116 Match more people with their jobs.

A

Laura Day, policewoman, Soho, London

When people first meet me they think I **might be** a teacher or a hairdresser. When I'm not wearing my uniform, they never believe me that I'm a policewoman. When I tell people what I do, the typical reaction is, 'You **can't be** a policewoman, you're too small!' I'm only 5 feet 4 inches* tall. People always think that policewomen are big and masculine. Often people only believe me when I show them my police identity card.

* = 1.6 metres

B

Sam Roddick, daughter of Anita Roddick (the millionaire founder of Body Shop)

When I introduce myself to people and say my name they often say, 'Oh you **must be** the Body Shop woman's daughter.' Later they can't remember my name. I'm very proud of my mother but I would never say, 'My mum's Anita Roddick'. I don't know if I am very different from the typical 'rich kid' because I don't know any. My friends never mention my background or money and neither do I.

C

Thea Callan, managing director of Nails Inc. (the biggest UK chain of nail bars*)

People often ask me who my boss is. They think, 'She **can't be** the managing director – she's a woman'. They're expecting to see an older man in a suit. Or when people speak to me on the phone and hear that I am a woman then they think that I **must be** a 50-year-old woman who wears trouser suits and is very unfeminine. They're very surprised when they see me – I'm not like that at all. In the office I just wear jeans and trainers.

* = salons where you can have manicures and pedicures

5 LISTENING

a In pairs, look at the man in the photo and answer the questions. Use *must, may, might, can't be*. Say why.

- Where do you think he's from?
England Sweden Spain
- How old do you think he is?
In his 20s In his 30s In his 40s
- What do you think his job is?
priest musician accountant



b **3.8** Listen to the first part of a radio interview with him and check your answers. Were you right?

c Listen again and make notes under the headings below. Compare with a partner.

name	_____
parents	_____
languages	_____
nationality	_____
	- (what he feels)
	- (what he looks like)
profession	_____
	- (when he started)
	- (how long he's been doing it professionally)

d **3.9** Now listen to the second part of the interview and answer the questions.

- In which of the two countries is it easier for him to make a living?
- In what other countries is there a lot of interest in his job?
- What is the stereotype of someone doing his job?
- In which of the two countries does he think people judge him by his appearance?

e How important is appearance in your country?
Do people in *your* country judge by appearances?

3
C

G can, could, be able to (ability and possibility)

V -ed / -ing adjectives

P sentence stress

If at first you don't succeed, ...

1 GRAMMAR can, could, be able to

a Look at the title of the lesson, which is the first half of a well-known saying. Look at the different second halves below. Which do you think is the real saying? Which do you think is the best advice?

- ...ask for advice. ...leave it until tomorrow.
- ...give up. ...pay someone else to do it for you.
- ...have a cup of tea. ...try, try again.

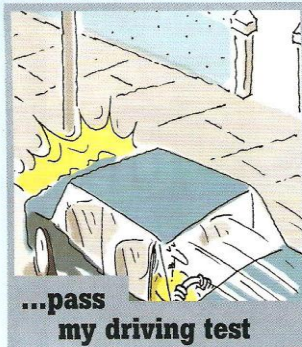
b Look at the definition of *be able to*. What other verb is it similar to?

be able to do sth to have the ability, opportunity, time, etc. to do something, e.g. *Will you be able to come to the meeting next week?*

c Read the article about people who have tried (but failed) to learn something. Complete the text with these phrases.

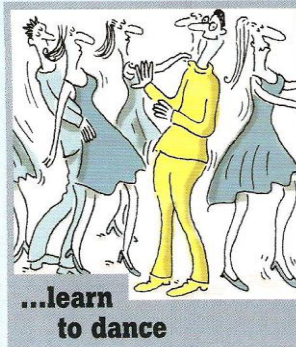
- A** I've never been able to say
- B** I was able to learn
- C** you'll never be able to speak
- D** I just wasn't able to do it
- E** I hate not being able to communicate
- F** I would suddenly be able to do it
- G** all my friends are able to do

I'm a failure! I've never been able to...



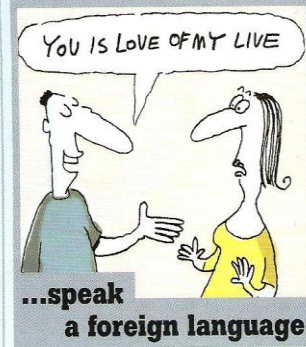
I started having driving lessons when I was 17. Although I'm normally a quick learner, ¹_____. After 18 months I failed my first test – I was really disappointed. Since then I've taken the test again three times, but I've always failed – usually on reversing or parking. The problem is I get so nervous during the tests that I can't drive properly. It's so embarrassing to admit that I can't learn to do something that ²_____!

Amanda, Brighton



I've always wanted to be able to dance salsa, and when I was working in Ecuador there were free classes, so I joined. But the art of salsa is to keep your arms still and move your hips, and I just couldn't do it. When I hear music my arms start moving but my hips don't. After about ten hours of classes ³_____ the steps, but I was dancing like a robot! I didn't give up, but soon everyone in the class was dancing and I was just slowly moving from side to side and counting out loud 'one, two, three, four'. I was sure that one day ⁴_____ – but that never happened. I can still remember the first two steps, though, and I still try to dance when I hear a salsa tune, as long as nobody is watching.

Sean, Oxford



I've started learning English at least ten times. I've been to classes, I've had a private teacher, I've used a self-study course, but ⁵_____ anything in English. I even had an English girlfriend once but she learned Spanish before I managed to improve my English, so we always spoke in Spanish. I travel a lot in my job and ⁶_____ – it's so frustrating. I'm thirty-two now and I think if you don't learn a language when you're a child, or go and live in the country, ⁷_____ it well.

*Guillermo, Madrid**
* translated from Spanish

- d Look at phrases A–G. What tense or form of *be able to* are they?
- e **p.134 Grammar Bank 3C.** Read the rules and do the exercises.
- f **Communication** *Guess the sentence A p.116 B p.119.*

2 PRONUNCIATION sentence stress

- a **3.10** Dictation. Listen and write six sentences with *can / can't* or *could / couldn't*.
- b **3.11** Listen and repeat the sentences. Copy the rhythm.
 - 1 I'd love to be able to ski.
 - 2 We won't be able to come.
 - 3 I've never been able to dance.
 - 4 She hates not being able to drive.
- c **3.12** Listen and make new sentences with the verbs you hear.

ride a horse } I'd love to be able to ride a horse.

HOW WORDS WORK...

- 1 Look at the two uses of *so*. Match them with their uses.
 - 1 It's **so** frustrating!
 - 2 The classes were free, **so** I joined.
 - to emphasize an adjective or adverb
 - to connect a cause and a result
- 2 Look at the sentences below. Is *so* use 1 or use 2?
 - A I love Paris – it's so beautiful.
 - B The bus didn't come so I walked home.
 - C Why does he talk so much?
 - D I was so tired that I went to bed at 9.00.
 - E I was tired so I went to bed.

3 SPEAKING

Interview your partner with the chart.

Can you...?

- play a musical instrument
- ski
- dance salsa
- swim
- cook
- create a website
- sing
- ride a horse
- sail
- spea k a foreign language (apart from English)
- drive

Yes, I can.

No, I can't.

How well?

Would you like to be able to?

When did you learn?

Why (not)?

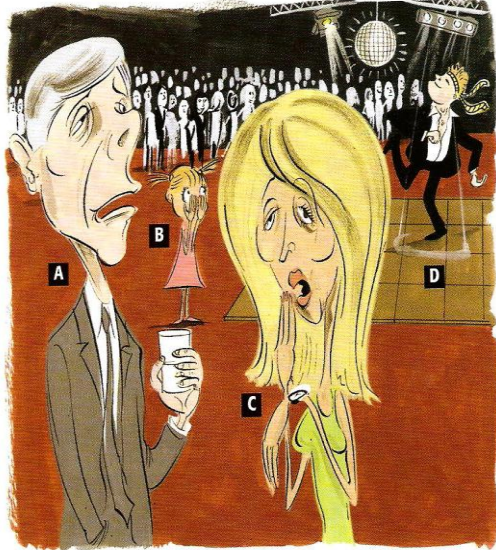
How did you learn?

Did you find it easy or difficult?

4 VOCABULARY -ed / -ing adjectives

a Look at the picture.

- 1 Which person is bored? Which person is boring?
- 2 Which person is embarrassed? Which person is embarrassing?



b Without looking back at the texts in 1, underline the correct adjective in these sentences.

- 1 I failed my first test – I was really **disappointed** / **disappointing**.
- 2 It's so **embarrassed** / **embarrassing** to admit I can't do something that all my friends are able to do.
- 3 I hate not being able to communicate – it's so **frustrated** / **frustrating**.

c Look back at the texts on p.44 and check your answers.

d Complete the adjectives with *-ed* or *-ing*.

- 1 What do you think is the most **excit** _____ sport to watch?
- 2 What music do you listen to if you feel **depress** _____?
- 3 What was the last **interest** _____ TV programme you watched?
- 4 Have you ever been **disappoint** _____ by a birthday present?
- 5 Which do you find more **tir** _____, travelling by car or by public transport?
- 6 Are you often **bor** _____ at work or school?
- 7 What's the most **embarrass** _____ thing that's ever happened to you?
- 8 Are you **frighten** _____ of any insects?
- 9 Do you feel very **tir** _____ in the morning?
- 10 What's the most **bor** _____ film you've seen recently?

e Ask and answer the questions in pairs. Ask for more information.

5 LISTENING

a You're going to hear a psychologist talking about how to succeed at learning to do something new. Before you listen, match these phrasal verbs with their meanings.

- 1 I want to **take up** scuba diving.
- 2 I'm going to **give up** learning Japanese – it's too difficult.
- 3 If I like this course, I'll **carry on** next year.
 - a stop, abandon
 - b continue
 - c start something new

b **3.13** Read these seven tips. Now listen to the programme. Tick (✓) the five things the psychologist says.

- 1 Be realistic about what you choose.
- 2 Always take up a new activity at the beginning of the year.
- 3 Don't think you'll be bad at all sports just because you're not good at one.
- 4 Don't give up an activity before you've given it a good chance.
- 5 If you're learning something new, don't think you're going to become the best in the world at it.
- 6 Always take up a new activity with a friend.
- 7 Learning something new is a good way of meeting people.

c Listen again. What examples does she give for each point you've ticked?

6 READING

- a Can you think of anyone you know or a famous person who has been successful in very difficult circumstances?
- b Work in pairs. A read about Natalie, B read about Bethany. Complete the chart.

	Natalie	Bethany
1 How did she lose a limb?		
2 When did she start her sport again?		
3 How did she feel?		
4 What has she achieved since then?		
5 How does she see her future?		

- c A use the chart to tell B about Natalie. B complete the chart. Then swap roles.
- d Now read the other text. Underline five words / phrases in either text that you want to remember.
- e What have the two women got in common? What's different about them?

Never give up



Natalie, the swimmer who lost a leg

Natalie du Toit, the South African swimmer, was only seventeen when she lost her leg in a road accident. She was going to a training session at the swimming pool on her motorbike when a car hit her. Her leg had to be amputated at the knee. At the time she was one of South Africa's most promising young swimmers. Everybody thought that she would never be able to swim competitively again.

But Natalie was determined to carry on. She went back into the pool only three months after the accident. And just one year later, at the Commonwealth Games in Manchester, she swam 800 metres in 9 minutes 11.38 seconds and qualified for the final – but not for disabled swimmers, for able-bodied ones! Although she didn't win a medal, she still made history.

'I remember how thrilled I was the first time that I swam after recovering from the operation – it felt like my leg was there. It still does,' says Natalie. 'The water is the gift that gives me back my leg. I'm still the same person I was before the accident. I believe everything happens in life for a reason. You can't go back and change anything. Swimming was my life and still is. My dream is to swim faster than I did before the accident.'

Bethany, the surfer who lost an arm

Bethany Hamilton was the best girl surfer of her age when she lost an arm in a shark attack. She was only thirteen years old and was surfing in Hawaii when a tiger shark attacked her and tore off her left arm. It happened so fast she didn't even scream.

But Bethany was determined to get back on a surf board as soon as possible. As soon as she left hospital, she began practising her surfing exercises on the beach. Everyone was amazed to see her surfing so soon after her accident. Incredibly, she finished 5th at the National Surfing Championships.

'The first time I went back into the sea I was so happy I cried,' she said. 'It was easier than I thought. But obviously it's much more difficult than with both arms, and I have to accept I'll probably never be world champion, which used to be my dream.'

Since then Bethany has signed a contract with Rip Curl, and has written a book about her experiences which has been made into a film. 'I always dream of the sea,' she says. 'When you surf a wave, it's like walking on water, and when you're in the air, it's like flying.'



7 3.14 SONG 🎵 *You can get it if you really want*

APPENDIX F
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,801	20

The acceptable value is 0,70. The result is higher than 0,70; so this test is reliable.

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
s1	9,33	16,997	,381	,792
s2	9,50	17,933	,139	,807
s3	9,40	17,990	,125	,808
s4	9,45	16,855	,404	,791
s5	9,42	16,413	,519	,783
s6	9,45	16,653	,455	,788
s7	9,53	16,318	,552	,782
s8	9,38	16,776	,429	,789
s9	9,32	16,857	,423	,790
s10	9,17	17,518	,312	,796
s11	9,55	16,418	,529	,783
s12	9,38	17,146	,334	,795
s13	9,50	17,866	,155	,806
s14	9,67	16,291	,623	,778
s15	9,33	16,829	,425	,790
s16	9,33	17,602	,227	,801
s17	9,42	16,480	,501	,785
s18	9,63	17,343	,311	,796
s19	9,40	17,990	,125	,808
s20	9,33	17,333	,295	,797

T. C.
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Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

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Doğum Tarihi:	01.01.1987		
Medeni Durumu:	Evli		

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