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**USE OF VIDEO IN TEACHING VOCABULARY  
TO INTERMEDIATE STUDENTS**

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## **ABSTRACT**

The aim of this study was to investigate the effects of using video in teaching vocabulary. Within this research, we tried to find out whether we can improve vocabulary learning capacity of the students by presenting them new vocabulary in a video context.

We carried out this study over 44 students. Five target units of vocabulary have been chosen. We divided the students into two groups: The control group that studied the vocabulary on course books (GCB: Group of Course Book) and the experiment group that studied the vocabulary through video (GV: Group of Video). Pre – activity tests have been applied before each unit in both groups and the level of the students has been detected. After each unit, post – activity tests have been applied in each group.

During the process, we saw that GV students were really enthusiastic about vocabulary lessons. In GCB group, students could not get rid of the boredom of a classical lesson. Finally, the results of the post – activity tests showed us that students who learnt the new vocabulary within a video context were more successful than the students who studied course books.

## ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, kelime öğretiminde video kullanımının etkilerini araştırmaktır. Bu araştırmada, öğrencilere yeni kelimeleri video ortamında sunmanın, onların kelime öğrenme yeterliliklerini geliştirip geliştirmeyeceğinin bulunmasına çalışıldı.

Bu çalışma 44 öğrenciyle yürütüldü. Beş adet hedef kelime ünitesi belirlendi. Öğrenciler iki gruba bölündü: Kelimeleri kitaptan çalışan kontrol grubu ve kelimeleri video ile çalışan deney grubu. Her üniteden önce aktivite öncesi testler uygulandı ve öğrencilerin seviyeleri belirlendi. Her ünitenin sonunda da, her iki grupta da aktivite sonrası testler uygulandı.

Bu süreçte video grubundaki öğrencilerin derslere karşı çok hevesli olduğu görüldü. Kitap grubunda ise öğrencilerin klasik dersin sıkıcılığında kurtulamadığı görüldü. Sonuç olarak aktivite sonrası testler göstermiştir ki yeni kelimeleri video ortamında öğrenen öğrenciler, bu kelimeleri kitaptan öğrenen emsallerinden daha başarılı olmuşlardır.

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

In Turkey, it is very common to confront people who deeply feel the lack of knowing a foreign language, especially English. Moreover, most of the people who are learning, learnt, or have learnt English say that they can't speak English fluently. One of the major obstacles to speaking English fluently is insufficient vocabulary and lack of knowledge about how to use already-learnt vocabulary. So, the importance of teaching vocabulary efficiently has gained considerable importance in recent years. In his book, *Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary*, Allen has stated the following ideas:

**In teacher-preparation programs today, there is more attention to techniques for teaching vocabulary. One reason is this: In many ESL classes, even where teachers have devoted much time to vocabulary teaching, the results have been disappointing. Sometimes—after months or even years of English—many of the words most needed have never been learned. Especially in countries where English is not the main language of communication, many teachers want more help with vocabulary instruction than they used to receive (2006:5).**

On the other hand, giving too much emphasis on teaching vocabulary with traditional methods seems not to be enough for long-term memorization of new vocabulary. Students of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the century of hi-tech gadgets, get easily bored with school life, lessons, exams, homework, and particularly ordinary reading and memorization sections. They have to be motivated before teaching and learning. The reasons underlying this drawback stem from the life – style of this century. Therefore, teachers have to present them something new that appeals to their hi-tech appetite.

In this study, the role of using films, cartoons, animations, briefly the video, in teaching vocabulary to intermediate students, is going to be the main point. The advantages of using video in teaching vocabulary to intermediate students are going

to be discussed and a comparison of it with the traditional methods is also going to be included.

### **1.1. Background of the Study**

As an English teacher, it is very likely not to get even any response to a question asked to a student. There might be various underlying reasons. Not being able to understand the English speech of the teacher, lacking essential vocabulary or grammar knowledge to answer, lacking self-confidence that also depends on the knowledge of the language, even not knowing how to bring vocabulary together are the most possible reasons of this.

It isn't fair to put the blame on only students. Our students do live in a decade that cannot be compared with the past decades. They have got a wide range of interests from computers to iPods, cell phones to internet cafes. Books and dictionaries may not find a suitable place in their lives. Therefore, if the teacher can't present them what they have to teach in a way that appeals to them, the student will not pay much attention to what is being taught.

### **1.2. Statement of the Problem**

No matter how many times students see a word, most of them seem not to have learnt it. Moreover, they don't try to. Most of the students aren't accustomed to using dictionaries when they see a new word or phrase. Even if a teacher compels a student to look a new word up in a dictionary, it is considered to be a torture by the students.

### **1.3. Goal and scope of the study**

Most of the students in Turkey don't like learning English through traditional methods and they are unfortunately anxious about this. Therefore, the major aim of this study is to suggest a technique in teaching vocabulary that can easily motivate intermediate level students: *use of video*. Audio – visual aspect of video in teaching

vocabulary is going to be emphasized and the advantages of video that appeal to the interests of intermediate students are going to be discussed as well.

Moreover, the comparison of using video in teaching vocabulary with the traditional techniques is going to be presented. Using up-to-date materials in teaching vocabulary is going to be proved to motivate students and provide them with the full comprehension of new vocabulary. We want to persuade students that learning in general, and particularly learning vocabulary could be a part of their life styles. For instance, if a student is keen on watching action films, we will show him the way to learn new vocabulary while watching “**Matrix**”.

#### **1.4. Research questions**

First of all, we must answer this question: “*Why do students find learning vocabulary difficult or boring?*” The answer of this question will lead us to the solution of the problem. Another question that concerns this study is “*To what extent are traditional techniques successful in teaching vocabulary?*” Consequently, our major question is: “*Can teaching vocabulary through video to intermediate level students be more efficient than traditional methods?*”

#### **1.5. Limitations of the Study**

It is not always possible to teach through video. You may not find suitable course books specially designed for video classes. Another drawback is even though you can find materials for video classes; you may not access required equipment at schools. For example video player, projector device, VCD or DVD players, etc.

It may not always be possible to teach new vocabulary through video because students may abuse video classes. They may consider video classes as a relaxation activity or “movie hour”. Finding the video material suitable for intermediate level may not always be possible, either. In order to learn new vocabulary through video classes, students should also have sufficient level of listening comprehension.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **2.1. A THEORETICAL BASE FOR VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION**

The importance of vocabulary development to general academic achievement has been recognized for years. It is apparent that there is a strong relationship between vocabulary and academic performance. For example, the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and intelligence test performance is one of the most robust findings in the history of intelligence testing. Similarly, vocabulary knowledge has been found to assist reading comprehension in various countries and across age groups and content areas.

The importance of vocabulary is most easily understood if considered from a linguistic perspective. We know that a word is a label for an internal reality. When you create a label, you also create a set of new perceptions. Let's think about taking a course in astronomy. Before taking the course, you might look at the night sky and see only a sea of stars. After a few weeks, you begin to see novae and galaxies. The creation of labels (words) is a tool we use to structure perceptions; new labels foster new perceptions. When names are learned we see what we had not seen before, for we know what to look for.

We might conclude that the words of language represent their concepts of the people who use them. Indeed, the isomorphic relationship between concept knowledge and word knowledge is commonly accepted by most researchers and theorists. For example, Marzano (1988, p. 1) defines concept knowledge in terms of word knowledge, stating that a concept is the "socially accepted meaning of one or more words which express the concept." It is no wonder that vocabulary knowledge is so closely related to academic success. The number of words students know represents the concepts and information they know.

### 2.1.1. What Do You Know When You Know a Word?

As we have seen, words can be considered labels for concepts. That is, when you know a concept, you also know the label for it. At least two types of labels- phonological and orthographic- are important to vocabulary or concept knowledge. Researches indicate that the processing of these two types of labels is related. Once an individual learns the phonological label (the sound for the word) and the orthographic label (the letters for the word), the recognition of one label acts as a strong cue to the recognition of the other. This suggests that teaching the phonological and the orthographic labels for a word might be combined more often than they are. Rather than learning spelling and word recognition separately, students can be taught to spell a word at the same time they learn to recognize it and associate meaning. Learning to spell a word is facilitated by explicit reference to the phonological label and the experiences associated with the word. Similarly the ability to recall a phonological label is greatly affected by the orthographic salience of the word. Knowing both the phonological and orthographic labels for the word can be considered as an important aspect of word knowledge from both cognitive and educational perspectives.

Of course, learning a new word is not just a matter of learning a label. Vocabulary knowledge implies a rich understanding of the word. At the simple level, students know a word by definition; at the complex level, they associate experiences with the word. As an example, being able to say *Duralumin is a strong, lightweight alloy of aluminum* is knowledge of the word at the simple level. Such knowledge does not indicate a pupil really knows what the word means.

How can complex knowledge or a rich understanding of a word be characterized? The answer to this question lies in an understanding of how information is stored in long term memory. There are a number of theories about how to describe information storage. One common distinction is between episodic and semantic information. **Episodic memory** contains events that have occurred. If you recall your last birthday you probably replay that event in your mind as though it were a movie. Episodic memory is specific; it is about discrete instances in one's past.

**Semantic memory** is more general. It contains decontextualized information extracted from episodic memory. For example, you might store general information about birthdays in your semantic memory (e.g., they occur once a year, they are pleasant). Researchers once believed that knowledge about words begins as episodes and is transformed gradually to a more semantic representation. In other words, word knowledge initially is made up of specific events and then gradually transforms to general characteristics. However, Watts (2006) has shown that even a fairly sophisticated knowledge of words can be primarily episodic. We associate specific events with words we know, even words that are abstract and fairly general in nature.

Another common distinction about the types of information in long term memory is that between linguistic and nonlinguistic information. Non-verbal imagery and verbal symbolic processes are the two major components of thinking. This has been referred to as the dual coding theory. Images are more than just pictures in the mind. They include information stored as mental pictures with auditory, kinesthetic, tactile, and emotional elements. Thus, a mental image of a past event would include pictures of the event along with associated memories of smells, sounds, tastes, sensations, and emotions.

Information stored linguistically usually is realized as inner speech. The importance of inner speech to human cognition has always been emphasized. Human thought could be characterized primarily in terms of the linguistic representation of information. However, it is a misconception to think that linguistic thought is represented only as words, just as it is a misconception to think that mental images are only pictures in the mind. Linguistic thought probably is represented in its most basic form as highly abstract semantic units. In his explanation of the semiotic theory of language processing, Canning (2000) asserts that humans code information linguistically into basic forms such as agents, objects, and relationships. We tend to separate out experience into persons, places, and things that act on or are acted on by other persons, places, or things. This occurs at a very deep, prelinguistic level that might be likened to a deep structure semantic level. This is similar to the contention of case grammarians who assert that all languages have a deep semantic regularity. The linguistic coding of information contains abstract symbolic representations of information commonly expressed as words. Relating the dual coding theory to word

knowledge, we might conclude that information about a word is encoded as images and linguistic symbols. The imagery information can be expressed in a number of ways (e.g., mental pictures, sensations), as can the linguistic information (e.g., words, relationships between words, abstract symbols).

A third perspective of word knowledge is provided by the split brain research. Working with patients whose corpus callosums had been severed surgically, fairly specific brain functions was able to be isolated. It was found that the mind stores information in a modular fashion.

**The brain is organized into relatively independent functioning units that work in parallel. The mind is not an indivisible whole operating in a single way to solve all problems...the vast and rich information impinging on our brains is broken into parts... (Marzano, 1988: 4).**

So strong are the modular components in determining human behavior that the human mind is characterized as consisting of multiple but parallel selves. Sometimes a module or a self contains auditory, olfactory, tactile, visual, and other types of information. Sometimes it consists of only one type of information. Regardless of the composition of a module, it is usually mediated and integrated by language: The behaviors that these separate systems emit are monitored by the one system we come to use more and more, namely the verbal natural language system.

### **2.1.2. Changes in Word Knowledge**

The fact that word knowledge can be either deep or superficial suggests that knowing a word involves a developmental process. Concept formation progresses through four levels: concrete, identity, classificatory, and formal. Attainment of a concept at the concrete level occurs when something is attended to one or more times, discriminated from other things, and remembered; then later it is attended to, discriminated, and recognized as the same thing. For example, a young child attends to a clock on a wall, discriminates it from other objects, represents it internally, then later retrieves the earlier representation of the clock and recognizes it as the same

thing. At this point, the child knows the concept of that particular clock at the concrete level.

Attainment of a concept at the identity level occurs when an individual observes an item and recognizes it as the same one previously encountered in a different context. For example, the child who recognizes the clock after it is removed from one room and placed in another room has attained an identity level concept of that particular clock.

To learn a concept at the classificatory level, a person must already have learned at least two examples of the concept at the identity level. Attainment of the lowest classificatory level of a concept occurs when an individual regards at least two different examples of a concept as equivalent. For example, the child who treats the clock on the wall and the other one on the desk as equivalent has attained the concept of clock at a beginning classificatory level.

Finally, attainment of a concept at the formal level occurs when an individual can correctly identify examples of the concept, give its name, discriminate and name its defining or critical attributes, give a socially accepted definition, and indicate how examples differ from non-examples.

### **2.1.3. Two Views on Direct Vocabulary Instruction**

There have been a number of general reviews of research on vocabulary instruction. Among the most noteworthy are those by Anderson and Freebody (1981), Graves (1986), Mezynski (1983), and Stahl and Fairbanks (1986). According to these reviews, direct teaching of vocabulary almost always is successful in improving understanding of words taught specifically. Many of the most powerful techniques involve the different ways of knowing a word discussed in the previous section.

As powerful as direct vocabulary instruction appears to be, its transfer to reading comprehension is not strong. Since virtually all such studies have succeeded in boosting vocabulary knowledge but few have demonstrated corresponding gains in



comprehension, additional considerations are necessary. In a series of experiments, it has been found that:

- **Direct vocabulary instruction can increase the comprehension of texts containing the words taught.**
- **In order to affect comprehension, vocabulary instruction needs to be extensive (up to 20 minutes of instruction per word) and to include frequent encounters with the words (up to 24).**
- **Instruction in vocabulary should be multifaceted, including associating new words with a variety of contexts, creating contexts for words, contrasting words to discover relationships, and using the words outside of class.**
- **Instruction should include speed training to build automaticity in word recognition and lexical access.**
- **Instruction can be particularly fruitful when words are grouped in semantic categories and taught in relation to one another. (Marzano, 1988:9)**

Direct vocabulary instruction was suggested be a focal point of education if approached systematically and intensively. Direct approaches to vocabulary instruction range from narrow exposures to new words (telling students the meaning of new words) to rich exposures to new words (having students identify personal experiences related to new words and relationships among new words) to extended rich activities (having students identify words in their outside reading and make varied connections with known words and experiences).

Some of the studies seem to support heavy classroom emphasis on direct vocabulary instruction. However, other research suggests that direct vocabulary instruction is of little value. Given the amount of time that must be devoted to vocabulary instruction and the large number of words students encounter in their reading, the utility of direct vocabulary instruction has been questioned. We have seen that for students to learn words well enough to affect reading comprehension, they must be exposed to the words many times for extended periods of time. It is estimated that there are 88,500 different words in student reading materials for

grades three through nine. The direct teaching of all 88,500 words would require students to learn about 12,600 words per year. Assuming that each word would require twenty minutes of instruction, direct vocabulary instruction would require more than twenty-four hours of instruction per day.

From this, one might conclude that most vocabulary learning should be left to students' reading. Specifically, students learn about one in twenty of the new words they encounter in their reading. Although this number might seem small, it is estimated that if students spend twenty-five minutes a day reading at a rate of 200 words per minute for 200 days of the year, they would read a million words of text annually. Given this amount of reading, children would encounter 15,000 to 30,000 unfamiliar words and would learn between 750 and 1,500 of them. Thus, a period of sustained silent reading could lead to substantial yearly gains in vocabulary, probably much larger than could be achieved by spending the same amount of time on instruction specifically devoted to vocabulary.

We should add a note of caution to the notion that wide reading should be used as the primary method for vocabulary development. It was found that incidental learning of vocabulary is not an automatic by-product of wide reading. Rather, students must be primed for the new words they will encounter to use context effectively to understand and learn new words. However, the supportive research on incidental learning from wide reading is clear and defensible from many perspectives. Simply stated, wide reading greatly enhances vocabulary development.

In summary, the research on vocabulary instruction cited thus far shows that direct instruction increases knowledge of words taught directly. However, for instruction to transfer to reading, it must be relatively long in duration and foster a deep understanding of words. Even the most ambitious instructional program could not possibly cover all words students encounter in their reading. Consequently, wide reading and language development activities must play a dominant role in vocabulary instruction.

From the discussion above, there appear to be two diametrically opposed camps relative to vocabulary learning - those who assert that new words should be

taught directly in an intense and rich fashion and those who assert that wide reading should be the vehicle for teaching new words. Actually, there is a relatively well articulated middle ground on which virtually all researchers and theorists agree. Those who say wide reading should be the primary vehicle for vocabulary learning do not discount the need for or importance of direct vocabulary instruction. Nagy and Herman (1987) state:

**We do not want to overstate our case and imply that classroom time should never be devoted to teaching the meaning of new words. But reports of new effective methods of vocabulary instruction seldom contain any warning about their limitation. We feel that methods of vocabulary instruction can be effectively developed and implemented only if their limitations as well as their strengths are understood (Marzano, 1988:11).**

Similarly, those who believe vocabulary should be taught directly do not say that students should receive direct instruction on all words. It is estimated that many of the 88,500 words in printed school English are so rare they may be encountered only once in an avid reader's lifetime and that students already know many of those words when they enter school. Using that estimate, we can conclude that there are only about 7,000 words that students do not know and that appear relatively frequently in reading materials. If less than half of these words were singled out for direct instruction and the rest left to incidental learning, the target words could be taught directly in most classrooms. This would require teaching about 400 words each year in grades three through nine - a task that is not impossible even assuming these words would be taught in a rich fashion.

#### **2.1.4. A Comparison of the Past and Present of Vocabulary Teaching**

Experienced teachers of English as a Second Language know very well how important vocabulary is. They know students must learn thousands of words that speakers and writers of English use. Fortunately, the need for vocabulary is a point on which teachers and students agree.

For many years, however, programs that trained language teachers gave little attention to techniques for helping students learn vocabulary. Some books appeared to be telling teachers that students could learn all the words they needed without help. In fact, teachers were sometimes told that they ought *not* to teach many words before their students had mastered the grammar and the sound system of the language. In journal articles for teachers, vocabulary was seldom mentioned. Pronunciation and grammar were emphasized, but there was little or no emphasis on vocabulary. In short, vocabulary has been neglected in programs for teachers during much of the twentieth century. Perhaps we should try to understand why this is so.

#### **2.1.4.1. Reasons for Neglecting Vocabulary in the Past**

One reason why vocabulary was neglected in teacher-preparation programs during the period 1940-1970 was that it had been emphasized too much in language classrooms during the years before that time. Indeed, some people had believed it was the only key to language learning. Learners often believed that all they needed was a large number of words. They thought they could master the language by learning a certain number of English words, along with the meanings of those words in their own language. Of course this belief was wrong. In addition to knowing English words and their meanings, one must also know how the words work together in English sentences. That is one reason for the emphasis upon grammar in teacher-preparation programs during the past few decades. During those years, teachers were told a great deal about new discoveries in English grammar. They heard much less about ways to help students learn words.

There is a second reason why so little was said in methodology courses about teaching words and their meanings. Some specialists in methodology seemed to believe that the meanings of words could not be adequately taught, so it was better not to try to teach them. In the 1950s, many people began to notice that vocabulary learning is not a simple matter. It is not simply a matter of learning that a certain word in one language means the same as a word in another language. Much more needs to be learned; and there were those who felt the complexities were too great to be dealt with in class.

According to an English/Spanish dictionary, for example, the words garden and jardin seem to have the same meaning. Each means a place where flowers are grown. But there are meanings of garden that do not correspond to the meanings of jardin. A garden is a place where vegetables may grow as well as flowers; whereas vegetables are grown in a huerta in Spanish, not in a jardin. This is just one of countless possible examples to show that vocabulary learning is not simply a matter of matching up words in the native language and the target language. Often those who prepared teachers gave the impression that vocabulary learning was so complex that one might better devote most of the class time to teaching the grammatical structures, with just a few vocabulary words, since students could not be given full and accurate understanding of word meanings in class. Indeed in some books and articles about language teaching, writers gave the impression that it was better not to teach vocabulary at all (Allen, 1983:2).

These, then, were some of the reasons for the general neglect of vocabulary in programs that prepared teachers during the time when teachers were getting a good deal of help with other aspects of language instruction. Here are the possible reasons:

1. Many who prepared teachers felt that grammar should be emphasized more than vocabulary, because vocabulary was already being given too much time in language classrooms.
2. Specialists in methodology feared students would make mistakes in sentence construction if too many words were learned before the basic grammar had been mastered. Consequently, teachers were led to believe it was best *not* to teach much vocabulary.
3. Some who gave advice to teachers seemed to be saying that word meanings can be learned *only* through experience, that they cannot be adequately taught in a classroom. As a result, little attention was directed to techniques for vocabulary teaching.

Each of those beliefs about vocabulary is true to a certain extent. It is true that too much time has been devoted to vocabulary in many classrooms. Often so much time goes into explaining the new words that there seems to be no time for anything else. That, of course, is unfortunate. Students who do not learn grammar along with vocabulary will not be able to use the language for communication. Even material in which all the words look familiar may be impossible to understand if the grammatical constructions have not been learned. The following paragraphs, for instance, contain very easy vocabulary; yet the meanings of the sentences cannot be grasped without a substantial knowledge of grammar:

**Things always know when a person isn't well. They know, but they just don't care. Many times, in little ways, things make life hard for people. They have special ways of doing this.**

**When I'm not well, I can never find the things I need. The things I need have gone away from all the places where I look. That is one of the facts I have learned about people and things (Lowes & Targets, 1998:34).**

In classes where too little time is spent on grammar, students fail to learn how words are used in sentences; only the general meaning of a word is learned. Students learning the words **emphasize** and **emphasis**, for example, need more than an understanding of the area of meaning which those words represent. They should learn that **emphasis** is a noun, used like this, "We put **emphasis** on it." They should learn that **emphasize** is a verb, used like this, "We **emphasize** it." The noun use should be contrasted with the verb use, as follows:

*There was not much **emphasis** on it. (Note the use of on.) Few people **emphasized** it. (Note that on is not used.)*

It is true, then, that students must learn grammar, which involves uses of words. It is never enough to learn only the words and their meanings. It is true that in some classrooms sentence construction has been given too little attention. It is also

true that students will make mistakes if they learn the meanings of many words without learning how to put words together in sentences.

Furthermore, there is truth in the belief that experience is the best vocabulary teacher. Through experience with situations in which a language is used by speakers or writers, we learn that many of the meanings of a word do not correspond to the meanings of its so-called equivalent in another language. Since full understanding of a word often requires knowing how native speakers feel about what the word represents, some meanings cannot be found in a dictionary. It is necessary to know something about the customs and attitudes of native speakers if we are to know what words really mean to them. Tice gives an example to this:

**Take the word wall, for instance. Every language has a word for the thing that English calls a wall. But how people feel about walls can be very different in different parts of the world, and those feelings are part of the meaning of the word. Suppose someone says, "Our new neighbors have built a wall around their property." In many countries, that statement would not surprise anyone. In those countries, it is customary to build a wall around one's property; most people do so. In most English-speaking communities, however, houses and gardens are usually visible from the street. To the native speaker of English, the building of the wall might suggest unfriendliness (1997: 35).**

As we have seen, the learning of word meanings requires more than the use of a dictionary, and vocabulary acquisition is a complex process. Fortunately, however, teachers are being given more help with vocabulary teaching today.

#### **2.1.4.2. Reasons for the Present Emphasis on Vocabulary**

In teacher-preparation programs today, there is more attention to techniques for teaching vocabulary. One reason is this: In many ESL classes, even where teachers have devoted much time to vocabulary teaching, the results have been

disappointing. Sometimes—after months or even years of English—many of the words most needed have never been learned. Especially in countries where English is not the main language of communication, many teachers want more help with vocabulary instruction than they used to receive.

Something else also accounts for today's concern with the learning of vocabulary. That is the fact that scholars are taking a new interest in the study of word meanings. A number of research studies have recently dealt with lexical problems (problems related to words). Through research the scholars are finding that lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; communication breaks down when people do not use the right words (Hieberd, 2005).

Such discoveries by scholars do not surprise classroom teachers. Teachers have never doubted the value of learning vocabulary. They know how communication stops when learners lack the necessary words. They do not believe that the teaching of vocabulary should be delayed until the grammar is mastered. In fact, neither grammar nor vocabulary should be neglected. There is, thus, no conflict between developing a firm command of grammar and learning the most essential words.

#### **2.1.4. The Role of Vocabulary Teaching in Reading Comprehension**

The National Reading Panel defined vocabulary as one of two aspects of comprehension instruction, the other being comprehension strategy instruction. By identifying vocabulary as one of five major components of reading, the National Reading Panel has directed attention to vocabulary instruction. Although some of the research base may not be as extensive or as robust as hoped would be, the report of the National Reading Panel has brought vocabulary into the foreground after a period when little attention was given to vocabulary instruction in classrooms.

##### **2.1.4.1. Findings of the National Reading Panel**

The concluding statement of the National Reading Panel's synthesis of vocabulary research provides a succinct summary of classrooms where students'



vocabulary expands and is elaborated: "Dependence on a single vocabulary instruction technique will not result in optimal learning". This conclusion is understandable in light of the complexity of what it means to know a word. This conclusion also means that educators need to design classroom experiences that are multi-faceted, if students are to acquire new words and increase the depth of their word knowledge. The design of these environments does not come about, however, by happenstance. The National Reading Panel identified eight specific findings that can provide a scientifically based foundation for the design of rich, multifaceted vocabulary instruction. These conclusions of the National Reading Panel are as follows:

- 1. There is a need for direct instruction of vocabulary items required for a specific text.**
- 2. Repetition and multiple exposure to vocabulary items are important. Students should be given items that will be likely to appear in many contexts.**
- 3. Learning in rich contexts is valuable for vocabulary learning. Vocabulary words should be those that the learner will find useful in many contexts. When vocabulary items are derived from content learning materials, the learner will be better equipped to deal with specific reading matter in content areas.**
- 4. Vocabulary tasks should be restructured as necessary. It is important to be certain that students fully understand what is asked of them in the context of reading, rather than focusing only on the words to be learned. Restructuring seems to be most effective for low-achieving or at-risk students.**
- 5. Vocabulary learning is effective when it entails active engagement in learning tasks.**
- 6. Computer technology can be used effectively to help teach vocabulary.**
- 7. Vocabulary can be acquired through incidental learning. Much of a student's vocabulary will have to be learned in the course of doing things other than explicit vocabulary learning.**

**Repetition, richness of context, and motivation may also add to the efficacy of incidental learning of vocabulary.**

- 8. Dependence on a single vocabulary instruction method will not result in optimal learning. A variety of methods was used effectively with emphasis on multimedia aspects of learning, richness of context in which words are to be learned, and the number of exposures to words that learners receive ( Hieberd, 2005: 7).**

A critical feature of effective classrooms is the instruction of specific words. This instruction includes lessons and activities where students apply their vocabulary knowledge and strategies to reading and writing. Discussions are held where teachers and students talk about words, their features, and strategies for understanding unfamiliar words.

Often it has been assumed that the vocabulary of students is too large to be affected by the small number of words that can be taught directly. The research emphatically demonstrates that this is not the case. Direct vocabulary instruction was effective in improving comprehension. It may also be that attention to specific words serves to direct students' attention to features of words that they then generalize in a strategic manner.

Although direct and explicit guidance on specific words and on word learning strategies are critical, the incidental learning of vocabulary is also pointed. That is, students acquire vocabulary when it is not explicitly or intentionally taught. Indirect exposure contributes most of the vocabulary learning that occurs with students. Given the size of vocabulary that people attain and the amount of time available for instruction, this finding is not surprising. Research gives us little insight into the precise mechanisms by which this implicit or indirect learning takes place. However, in the Panel's identification of characteristics of effective vocabulary lie possible explanations. Furthermore, although we describe the vocabulary that arises from frequent reading and rich oral language discussions as incidental learning, the creation of such occasions in schools and homes represents intentions on the part of educators and parents. Students need to know *about* words, not simply acquire new

words, if they are to be successful in understanding unfamiliar vocabulary in their reading. The number of words that students will encounter means that priority is given to developing strategies that students can use when they are reading independently and to occasions where they can apply these strategies in their reading and writing, as well as discuss the ways in which the authors whom they read use words. Underlying these strategies is a curiosity about words—the relationships between words with similar roots, the connotative and denotative meanings of words, the ways in which new words enter language, the idiomatic uses of language, the multiple meanings of individual words, the vocabularies of specialty areas, the connections between English words and Romance or Greek words, and so on.

The perspective that comes from the Panel's conclusions about classrooms that extend and enrich students' vocabularies is one of *variety* and *richness*. Effective classrooms provide multiple ways for students to learn and interact with words. These ways of learning words and strategies for learning words engage students and motivate them to listen to and look for new words. The contexts in which students see words are rich, such as books that use language inventively, and pertain to many content areas. The ways of learning words also include technology and multimedia where students can interact with language orally, pictorially, and in writing. What is also clear is that this learning is not a happenstance occurrence. Classrooms where students receive sound word instruction are ones where lessons focus their attention on specific words and word-learning strategies, where opportunities to talk about words are many, and where occasions for applying what has been taught with engaging and content-rich texts and with motivating purposes occur with regularity and purpose.

#### **2.1.4.2. The Words That Should Be Taught**

As the summary of the primary findings of the NRP (NICHD, 2000, cited in Hieberd, 2005) indicated, vocabularies are expanded and elaborated in multiple ways. However, whereas the opportunities for learning words may be myriad, the effects of comprehension on vocabulary were found most consistently when at least some words are taught directly. The mandate of the NRP to focus on instructional research meant that the critical question of curriculum or identifying which words are

best taught was not addressed. Educators and policymakers are left with the question of identifying which words, from among the thousands of words that students will encounter in their school careers, should be taught directly.

Word frequency is one variable that will be proposed. Frequency should be applied by ignoring the most frequent and the least frequent words, concentrating on the middle levels of words. The argument is that the most frequent words are probably already known and that the least frequent words should be taught when they occur in reading.

Importance and utility are clearly factors that should guide the selection of words to be taught. These criteria suggest that only words that are of some use for students—words that they will see and use sufficiently often—should be taught explicitly. However, this criterion should be applied with the frequency criterion in mind. As students are likely to know many high-frequency words, these are not good candidates for the importance criterion.

Instructional potential is another criterion that is clearly related to the selection of words for explicit vocabulary instruction. That is, vocabulary instruction should make sense in the context of the reading lesson. Words that are related to the selection, the content, or to a thematic unit have instructional potential and should be considered high on the list of candidates for explicit instruction.

There is also an oral component that should be considered. Younger students have a greater oral vocabulary than reading vocabulary. For older students, this relationship is probably reversed. The presence or absence of oral vocabulary knowledge should be a consideration in the explicit instruction of reading vocabulary items. Of course, conceptual understanding is an important criterion, even though it is often neglected in discussions of vocabulary.

Finally, repetition is a factor that, although acknowledged in learning theories that range from behaviorism to information processing, has not been addressed recently as a factor in the acquisition of receptive, written vocabularies. Older research did consider this question. The total number of explicit repetitions first

graders needed for learning a word was estimated being based on intelligence quotient (IQ). The number that stayed in the minds of publishers (and educators) for decades was the one assigned to the middle IQ group (90-109): 35 repetitions. Students with high IQs (120-129) needed only 20, whereas students with IQs from 60-69 needed 55 repetitions. Today we no longer accept this one-dimensional view of learning ability. What is valuable is that Gates and his counterparts saw the learning of a word to result from numerous repetitions. Except for very noteworthy occasions (e.g., the first time *turbulence* is experienced on a plane—and this involves an oral vocabulary), single exposures to words are unlikely to produce the desired learning.

Although repetitions are important, it is less clear how sufficient exposure to particular words should be accomplished. For example, spacing of exposure over time is more effective in the learning of most content than bunching the learning in a single session (Lowe & Target, 1998). However, evidence for spaced presentations came from studies where instruction was explicit and where words often appeared in lists or singly, not in texts. How this transfer to the incidental learning that takes place when students encounter words in, for example, reading self-selected or even assigned texts on their own is unclear.

#### **2.1.4.3. What does a Long-Term Comprehensive Approach to Promoting Vocabulary Growth Look Like?**

Effective vocabulary instruction is a long-term proposition. Attention to vocabulary growth has to start early, in preschool, and continue throughout the school years. Although the exact nature of effective instruction changes across grade levels, the focus on and commitment to vocabulary instruction is a sustaining component of schooling. Effective instruction must also be multifaceted, encompassing: teaching individual words; extensive exposure to rich language, both oral and written; and building generative word knowledge.

#### **2.1.4.4. Teaching Individual Words**

Teaching individual words is what commonly comes to mind when we talk about vocabulary instruction. Intensive or rich vocabulary instruction requires giving students both definitional and contextual information (i.e., information about what a word means and about how it is used), and providing them with opportunities to process this information deeply by applying it in ways that require creativity and connections with their existing knowledge.

#### **2.1.4.5. Exposure to Rich Language**

Many researchers believe that a substantial proportion of vocabulary growth occurs as children gradually learn the meanings of new words through repeated encounters with the words in text or in conversation. A review of the research on learning words from context indicates that the chances of learning the meaning of a particular word after encountering it once in context are relatively low, somewhere around 15% (Swanborn & de Glopper, 1999, cited in Hieberd, 2005). Exposure to rich language is essential for promoting vocabulary growth, but the benefits of such exposure accumulate slowly.

#### **2.1.4.6. Generative Word Knowledge**

Generative word knowledge is vocabulary knowledge that can transfer to the learning of new words. There is a tendency to think of vocabulary knowledge as consisting of isolated, memorized information about the meanings of specific words, but such a conception is clearly inadequate. A variety of types of knowledge about words contributes to word learning. Most obviously, there are word-learning strategies, such as the use of context and word parts that can be taught to students to make them better word learners. Effective word learners also possess knowledge about what constitutes a possible word meaning, which helps them distinguish between relevant and irrelevant information in the context.

An effective approach to vocabulary instruction should address all three of these components—teaching individual words, exposure to rich language, and

generative word knowledge. And in fact there are a number of instructional interventions that attempt to do so. For example, Beck and McKeown's Text Talk is a very promising example of a comprehensive approach to vocabulary growth for younger students (Allen; 2006). Likewise, the Vocabulary Enrichment Program described by Foorman, Seals, Anthony, and Pollard-Duradola (2003, cited in Hieberd, 2005) is a comprehensive approach.

## **2.2. TRADITIONAL TECHNIQUES IN TEACHING VOCABULARY**

### **2.2.1. Why Basic Vocabulary may be hard to Learn**

Why are students often slow to learn foreign words for familiar objects? To answer that question, we must look at the vocabulary from the students' point of view. The students already have satisfactory words—in their own language—for everything in the classroom that they might want to name. They have been able to talk about such familiar objects for many years. Therefore, most members of the class feel no real need to learn other words for such things now. This is a problem that does not arise when words like **rock star** and **cowboy** are being acquired outside the classroom. (Those are words for new experiences that are not already named by words in the students' mother tongue.) But it is a problem to be solved when we teach the basic words that textbooks introduce. From the students' point of view, such words do not seem really necessary because words in the mother tongue serve all practical purposes.

Allen (1983) states that there is something else to be noticed about vocabulary learning in and out of class:

**Let's imagine what happened years ago, when each of our students was learning words for familiar objects—words in the mother tongue. Quite probably, each word came to the child's attention as part of an experience that had special importance for him. Perhaps the words for window and door**

were learned when he heard an adult say (in the home language), "Grandma's gone, but we'll go to the window and wave goodbye," and "Daddy's here! Let's go to the door and let him in." Of course we don't know what really occurred on the day when the child learned those words in his own language, but one thing is sure. We do know that he was not told, for example, "Here are some words to learn. You will need them someday. The first word is window. Window means. . . ." Yet that is how vocabulary is often presented in the language class (p. 9).

When we think about vocabulary lessons in this way, we become aware of five facts (Marzano; 1988):

- 1. Foreign words for familiar objects and persons are important to teach, but we cannot expect most members of the class to learn them easily.*
- 2. Teaching such words will require special skills because students often feel their native-language words for familiar objects and persons are all they really need.*
- 3. Students are very likely to feel that foreign words for familiar objects are not really needed when the foreign language is not used for communication outside the language class.*
- 4. When a student feels no real need to learn something, a feeling of need must be created—by the teacher.*
- 5. To create in students' minds a sense of personal need for a foreign word, it is not enough to say, "Here is a word to learn." "Here is what the word means." "The word will be useful to you someday."*



### **2.2.2. What to Do About the List on the Textbook Page**

Some teachers read aloud each word from the list while the students' books are closed. Other programs permit students to look at each word while the teacher is pronouncing it. Each procedure has advantages and disadvantages. Many times the sight of a word has a bad effect on students' pronunciation, as English spelling sometimes has little relation to the way the word sounds. Sometimes, however, pronunciation is considered less important than the rapid growth of vocabulary. At such times, students are encouraged to look at the word while hearing it pronounced, since learners tend to remember a word more easily if they see and hear it (Tice, 1997).

There is no harm in having students say each word after the teacher says it. Some students find it helpful; many enjoy saying the word as soon as they hear it. Hearing the word, seeing it, and saying it - all of these may be aids to learning. But they are only part of the learning process. More is needed, and the harm comes when there is no time for anything more. There are classes in which every student is asked to say every new word before anyone knows (or cares) how the word is used for communication. In such classes, too much time goes into this repeating of words.

When too much time is given to seeing and saying words (without relation to their normal use), too little time remains for more helpful activities. And as such, the alphabetized list of words at the top of our sample vocabulary part is not very conducive to that activity. Yet before leaving that list of words, let's think about ways of showing their meanings.

### **2.2.3. Some Traditional Techniques in Vocabulary Teaching**

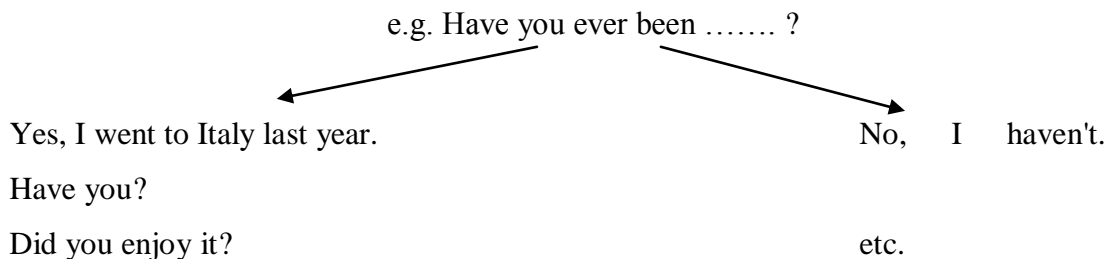
We will now examine the most common ways in which meaning of new items is conveyed in a normal teaching situation. Although 'traditional approaches and techniques' may sound pejorative, it is not intended to be; indeed, a teacher who was not able to make use of the following techniques might feel severely handicapped. Most of these are the means which tend to be associated with a more teacher-centered approach and consequently the items taught through these means

are usually selected by the teacher rather than the learner. They may be used for teaching incidental items or in a 'vocabulary lesson'.

### 2.2.3.1. Visual Techniques

#### *Visuals*

These include flashcards, photographs, blackboard drawings, stick figures, wall charts and realia (i.e. objects themselves). They are extensively used for conveying meaning and are particularly useful for teaching concrete items of vocabulary such as food or furniture, and certain areas of vocabulary such as places, professions, descriptions of people, actions and activities (such as sport and verbs of movement). They often lend themselves easily to practice activities involving student interaction. For example, a set of pictures illustrating sporting activities could be used as a means of presenting items such as skiing, sailing, climbing, etc. These visual aids can then be used as the basis for a guided pair work dialogue:



#### *Mime and gesture*

These are often used to supplement other ways of conveying meaning. When teaching an item such as “to swerve”, a teacher might build a situation to illustrate it, making use of the blackboard and gesture to reinforce the concept.

### 2.2.3.2. Verbal Techniques

#### *Use of illustrative situations (oral or written)*

This is most helpful when items become more abstract. To ensure that students understand, teachers often make use of more than one situation or context to

check that learners have grasped the concept. To illustrate the meaning of 'I don't mind', the following context may be useful:

Ali likes *Dallas* and *Upstairs, Downstairs* equally. Unfortunately, they are both on television at the same time. It doesn't matter to him which programme he watches. How does he answer this question?

Teacher: Do you want to watch *Dallas* or *Upstairs, Downstairs*?

Ali: I...

The teacher could then follow this with a check question to ensure that the concept has been grasped: 'Does he want to watch one programme more than another?' He may then encourage students to use the idiom in different contexts, for instance: 'Do you want tea or coffee?' in order to elicit 'Tea, please,' or 'Coffee, please' or 'I don't mind'.

### ***Use of synonymy and definition***

Teachers often use synonymy with low level students, where inevitably they have to compromise and restrict the length and complexity of their explanations. It would, for example, be justifiable at low levels to tell students that 'miserable' meant 'very sad'. Secondly, it is commonly used with higher level students and subsequently qualified. 'Bloke', for instance, means the same as 'man', but is colloquial. This qualification is clearly very important.

Definition alone is often inadequate as a means of conveying meaning and clearly contextualized examples are generally required to clarify the limits of the item. For example, 'to break out' in 'a fire broke out' has the sense of 'to start', but this would be a misleading definition for a learner and might encourage him to think that 'the lesson broke out' was acceptable English.

### ***Contrasts and opposites***

As with synonymy, this is a technique which students themselves use, often asking 'What's the opposite of...?' A new item like 'sour' is easily illustrated by

contrasting it with 'sweet' which would already be known by intermediate level students.

### *Scales*

Once students have learnt two contrasting or related gradable items, this can be a useful way of revising and feeding in new items. If students know 'hot' and 'cold', for example, a blackboard thermometer can be a framework for feeding in 'warm' and 'cool' and later 'freezing' and 'boiling'. Similarly with adverbs of frequency:

I	never hardly ever occasionally sometimes often always	go to the cinema on Sundays.
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These can also be given in a jumbled version for students to put in an appropriate order.

### *Examples of the type*

To illustrate the meaning of super ordinates such as 'furniture', 'vegetables', 'meat' and 'transport', it is a common procedure to exemplify them e.g. table, chair, bed and sofa are all *furniture*. Some of these can of course also be dealt with through visual aids.

#### **2.2.3.3. Translation**

Use of translation in vocabulary teaching has always been a controversial topic. Hedge states about this in his book:

**We have spoken to teachers who have admitted feeling guilty about the use of translation in the classroom; almost as**

**if they were cheating. This is quite ridiculous, for translation can be a very effective way of conveying meaning. It can save valuable time that might otherwise be spent on a tortuous and largely unsuccessful explanation in English, and it can be a very quick way to dispose of low frequency items that may worry the students but do not warrant significant attention. For monolingual groups it is also a valid approach to highlight the danger of false cognates: for example, the French word *sensible* would be translated as 'sensitive' in English, and not 'sensible' (2001:123).**

Some would argue that translation may be legitimate for items possessing a clear mother-tongue equivalent, but should otherwise be avoided. This is possibly overstating the case. Translation may not always convey the exact sense of an item, but then neither do English synonyms or definitions on many occasions. A more real danger with translation is that if students continue to use the mother tongue as a framework on which to attach L2 items, they will not develop the necessary framework to take account of sense relations between different items in the new language.

If teachers rely too heavily on the use of translation and deliver most explanations in the mother tongue, their students are surely losing some of the essential spirit and atmosphere of being in a language learning classroom. They are also being denied access to listening practice for which there is usually a high degree of interest and motivation.

### **2.3. THE ROLE OF VIDEO IN TEACHING VOCABULARY**

Video is at best defined as the selection and sequence of messages in an audio-visual context. Considerable confidence is placed in the value of audio-visual aids to enhance the learning of foreign languages, yet there is little empirical data and research to support the proposition that video facilitates in the learning of foreign languages. However, with the amount of time devoted to using video in the Foreign

or Second Language (F/SL) classroom, research is warranted to show how audio-visual aids enhance the language learning process. Currently, research over the past two decades, shows that there are several limitations to be recognized when examining results. First, many studies have been done with visual aids and not with actual foreign and second language videos. Secondly, many video studies use intact groups instead of random groups who were studying only one foreign language. Thus, studies using different groups and languages may yield different results from those found in the literature. As Canning-Wilson (2000) points out, to find varied results, researchers would need to ask whether or not the same findings would hold true in different languages.

Another limitation on video studies deals with the long-term effects of using video in the classroom. It can be argued that video instruction should be discouraged because there is little empirical proof to verify comprehension. For example, how can long-run effects of video be measured and how much exposure to video would make a significant difference in the language learning process? In addition to these queries, researchers would need to ask if the visual significantly affects listening comprehension. Research would also need to address how video manifests itself differently from prolonged exposure to a visual aid that does not have an audio component? With such unanswered questions yet to be proven with quantitative measures practitioners must ask themselves if there is sufficient evidence to support continued use of audio-visual aids in the learning of foreign languages to justify the allocation of resources for them in the foreign or second language classroom.

However, in recent years, some of these questions have begun to be addressed, but in limited contexts. For example, Tatsuki (1999) suggests that unlike a student, who listened in *sound only* conditions, the use of *video and sound conditions* were more consistent in their perception of the story, in the sense that difficult and easy passages formed a pattern. The study notes that scenes where utterances were backed up by an action and/or body language and that were relatively shorter were considered to be easier to be understood by students. Less lively scenes, which involved relatively long stretches of conversation, were labeled as more difficult. These comments illustrate that visual cues are important, since they either facilitated or distracted from understanding. In addition, his research also notes

that "It is also interesting to point out that students in the *sound-only* conditions in the two experiments were less successful in maintaining the interest and concentration in listening".

Research by Herron, Hanley and Cole (1995, cited in Canning-Wilson, 2000) indicates that the visual support in the form of descriptive pictures significantly improved comprehension scores with language videos for English speaking students learning French. The results of the study indicate that extensive listening is facilitated by the richness of the context that visual organizers, such as educational videos, provide. Rieth (2001) has found that advanced organizers based on videos helped learners improve comprehension and aid in the retention of information.

A recent large-scale survey by Canning-Wilson (2000) suggests that the students like learning language through the use of videos. One of the results of her survey shows that learners prefer action/entertainment films to language films or documentaries in the classroom. She states although these films may seem to hold student interest, she believes that it could be inferred that student comprehension of the video may be due to the visual clues instead of the auditory components.

It can be hypothesized that the more meaningful an advanced organizer is the more impact it can have on comprehension and retention. Their results of using twelve different videos with foreign language learners indicates that scores improved when advanced organizers, such as a pictures and/or visual stimuli, are used with the video. Perhaps the findings from these studies can be attributed to the fact that video offers contextual support and/or helps learners to visualize words as well as meanings.

Individuals process information in different ways. The strategies used by one learner are likely to differ from those used by a different learner. It has been proved that what benefits one group of learners may actually hinder the performance of a different group of learners. Issues of the value of video as a teaching tool are often questioned. Watts (2006) suggests that "the profession has virtually no empirical basis for promoting the use of visuals as aids to comprehension in the second language; we know practically nothing about how students benefit from visuals". Recently, in a lecture on the use of visuals in research, Canning-Wilson (2000)

claims that the use of illustrations, visuals, pictures, perceptions, mental images, figures, impressions, likenesses, cartoons, charts, graphs, colors, replicas, reproductions, or anything else used to help one see an immediate meaning in the language may benefit the learner by helping to clarify the message, provided the visual works in a positive way to enhance or supplement the language point. She reports that images contextualized in video or on its own can help to reinforce the language, provided the learner can see immediate meaning in terms of vocabulary recognition in the first language. Furthermore, her research suggests that visuals can be used to help enhance the meaning of the message trying to be conveyed by the speakers through the use of paralinguistic cues.

Additional factors must be considered when looking at video as an instructional medium to teach a foreign or second language. Learners learn primarily because of what they bring to their classroom experience in terms of their perceived needs, motivations, past experiences, background knowledge, interests and creative skills. Furthermore, experts suggest that instructional design and cognitive processing considerations are more salient than media used to deliver the instruction. The incorporation of criterion-based questions in video instruction is likely to improve intended learning, but scant empirical data has unequivocally proven this hypothesis. In 1994, Balatova's studies (cited in Çakır, 2006) indicated that visual cues found in videos were informative and enhanced comprehension in general, but did not necessarily stimulate the understanding of a text. It was also found that teaching with video had some affective advantages. If the results of their findings are true and the same results can be replicated, perhaps practitioners will no longer have to rely solely on anecdotal evidence.

### **2.3.1. Reasons for Video Implication in Elt Classroom.**

A great advantage of video is that it provides authentic language input. Movies and TV programmes are made for native speakers, so in that sense video provides authentic language input. That is to say, it is obvious that the practical implications of video in any classroom environment can easily be used; teacher can step in the process whenever he wishes; he can stop, start and rewind to repeat it for several times where necessary. Any selected short sequence from the programme can



be utilized for intensive study. To pay special attention to a particular point in the programme, it is possible to play the video in slow motion or at half speed or without sound.

Besides, the learner can concentrate on the language in detail and interpret what has been said, repeat it, predict the reply and so on. The learner can also concentrate in detail on visual clues to meaning such as facial expression, dress, gesture, posture and on details of the environment. Even without hearing the language spoken clues to meaning can be picked up from the vision alone. Using visual clues to meaning in order to enhance learning is an important part of video methodology.

The other point that should be focused is that in foreign language to interpret an attitude is very difficult owing to the fact that the listener concentrates himself on the verbal message, not the visual clues to meaning. Video gives the students practice in concluding attitudes. The rhythmic hand and arm movements, head nods, head gestures are related to the structure of the message. Moreover, the students have a general idea of the culture of the target language. It may be enjoyable for the learners to have something different for language learning apart from the course books and cassettes for listening.

### **2.3.2. Advantages of Using Video in Teaching Vocabulary**

What are the practical implications of using video in teaching vocabulary? Video provides visual stimuli such as the environment and this can lead to and generate prediction, speculation and a chance to activate background schemata when viewing a visual scene reenacted. It can be argued that language found in videos could help nonnative speakers understand stress patterns. Videos allow the learner to see body rhythm and speech rhythm in second language discourse through the use of authentic language and speed of speech in various situations. Videos allow contextual clues to be offered. In addition, video can stimulate and motivate student interest. The use of visuals overall can help learners to predict information, infer ideas and analyze the world that is brought into the classroom via the use of video instruction. In a teaching or testing situation video can help enhance clarity and give

meaning to an auditory text; it can create a solid link between the vocabulary being learned and the practical application of it in a testing situation; the video can act as a stimulus or catalyst to help integrate materials or aspects of the language; videos can help manipulate language and at the same time be open to a variety of interpretations. Tatsuki (1999) claims that:

**"Video can give students realistic models to imitate for role-play; can increase awareness of other cultures by teaching appropriateness and suitability; can strengthen audio/visual linguistic perceptions simultaneously; can widen the classroom repertoire and range of activities; can help utilize the latest technology to facilitate language learning; can teach direct observation of the paralinguistic features found in association with the target language; can be used to help when training students in ESP related scenarios and language; can offer a visual reinforcement of the target language and can lower anxiety when practicing the skill of listening."**

Video used in a classroom should be interpretive and to the point. The visual should show reasonable judgement and enhance comprehension, heighten sensory acuteness, and illustrate the target language being used. Practitioners should avoid the use of distracters, over-crowded or violent stimuli. Visuals are ineffective in the learning process when the visual is too small; when the visual or video uses stereotypes; when the visual or video is a poor reproduction; when the picture is too far away from the text illustration; when the video has irrelevant captioning; when the video or visual offers too much information related or unrelated to the picture; when the video or visual is poorly scaled; and when the picture is not esthetically meaningful. A visual cue may be accompanied by a written cue to focus on a lexical item being furnished. Videos can make the task, situation or language more authentic. More importantly, video can be used to help distinguish items on a listening comprehension test, aid in the role of recall, help to sequence events, as

well as be adapted, edited or changed in order to meet the needs of the language learner .

Çakır (2006) also gives us information about the disadvantages of video in ELT classes:

**On the other hand, besides advantages, the disadvantages of video should also be taken into account. The main disadvantages are cost, inconvenience, maintenance and in some cases, fear of technology. Additionally, the sound and vision, quality of the copies or home-produced materials may not be ideal. Another important issue in this case is that the teacher should be well-trained on using and exploiting the video. Otherwise, it becomes boring and purposeless for students.**

### **2.3.3. Teacher's Role**

Just as in many English teaching situations, the teacher plays a key role in using the video as an aid for vocabulary teaching for he or she has the prime responsibility for creating a successful vocabulary learning environment. The teacher should benefit from the power of video films. At this point, video should never be considered as a medium which rivals or overshadows the teacher, but it is a useful aid for him. That is, it can not replace the teacher because it can only teach things which are recorded on, and this makes the learning foreign language attractive. It is certain that the teacher is as effective as the video film in teaching through video, because he is the only person who enables the learners to comprehend what they watch and hear by using some of the communicative techniques. The teacher can be a controller, an assessor or organiser, a prompter and a participant as well.

The teacher is a controller because he or she is the only person who controls not only what the learners do but when they speak as well while they are watching the video film. The teacher is also an assessor because he or she assesses the learner's work in order to see how well they are performing. The teacher should wait

until the end of the activity and then he must evaluate the learner's outputs. Furthermore, the teacher is an organiser because he needs to be so. He should be a good organiser in teaching the foreign language through video, and should know exactly what to lead to success. He should not give useless information or confusing instructions to the learners in order not to waste a lot of time. He should clearly explain what they are going to watch and what their task is.

The other role that the teacher carries is being a prompter because he acts as a prompter. When there is a silence viewing or what the learners are confused about what to do next, he is expected to encourage learners to participate. The teacher is a participant because he participates in the activities while teaching a foreign language through video. He knows the materials and all the details about them, which help the learners feel comfortable and facilitates learning. Considering these factors in mind, the teacher should prepare to promote active viewing and facilitate successful language learning. This requires being familiar with the video materials before they are used in class. The teacher should develop a plan for each video unit and encourage active viewing. To aid comprehension, he should prepare viewing guides which are easy and related to the language level of the students.

Languages are not fixed but constantly changing, so is the media; television, radio and newspaper which are an extraordinarily rich source of language in use. In order to expose foreign language learners to the target language, the use of technology needs to be exploited in the classroom as much as possible. For that reason, a great tendency towards the use of technology and its integration into the curriculum developed by the foreign language teachers has gained a great importance. Particularly the use of video has received increasing attention in recent studies on technology integration into teacher education curricula. (MacQueen, 2006)

It is an undeniable fact that video is one of the best materials that enables students to practice what they have learned through various techniques. As Canning-Wilson (2000) describes video, at the most basic level of instruction, is a form of communication and it can be achieved without the help of language, since we often interact by gesture, eye contact and facial expression to convey meaning. Thus, it is clearly true such kind of materials present complete communicative situations by

means of the dynamic, immediate and accessible combination of sound and vision. The students contextualize the language they have learnt. In other words, they can see and hear the speakers in dialogues, their ages, their sex, perhaps their relationship with one another, their way of dressing, social status, what they are doing and perhaps their feelings. Moreover, as previously slightly mentioned, paralinguistic features such as facial expressions or hand gestures provide aural clues of intonation. The learners can also see the setting of the communication on the screen, so they can clarify whether the situation is formal or informal.

Methodologically speaking, watching video films should be different from passive television viewing. So, the teacher should encourage the learners to watch the films actively, by using the supplementary materials, such as worksheets prepared by him or supplied with the films. The learners should participate in the activities; if possible, they themselves set up some projects in the target language, by recording their own activities such as speaking, interviewing, reporting etc. Shortly, the role of the learner is not to be a passive viewer but an active member in the triangle of the video, the teacher and the learner.

To reach successful and effective results in teaching vocabulary through video, the learners and the teachers should perform their tasks perfectly. Moreover, they should be informed of the new methods and techniques in FLT. To do this, seminars can be organised. A group of teachers and experts should prepare video cassettes, which will be easily available. These cassettes should be modern, interesting and in parallel with the syllabus. In a word, it can be concluded that the use of technology is nowadays inevitable in the classroom. When used appropriately, video is quite beneficial for learners and teachers as long as they are considered only as mere entertainment, but carefully chosen films can be a useful and extremely motivational teaching tool for both practicing listening skills and stimulating speaking and writing.

## **2.3.4. Classroom Implications**

### **2.3.4.1. Use of Video Course Books**

Video is one of the most useful aids available for language teaching. It is motivating. It shows how people speak to each other. It is excellent for teaching both behavior and body language. It shows the culture of the people using the language. It is one of the best ways of communicating meaning and stimulating students to talk. But how can you exploit these advantages most effectively in teaching vocabulary? There are several useful techniques you can use to add variety to your vocabulary instructions and to make more effective use of video in the classroom.

The following is a description of five basic techniques for using video in teaching vocabulary: silent viewing, pause/freeze frame, sound only, split viewing, and normal viewing. We've also included suggestions for specific teaching activities based on each technique.

#### **1. Silent Viewing**

This technique, which involves playing the video with the **sound off** and showing only the pictures, can be used to stimulate student interest and language use about what is being shown on the screen (rather than what can be heard on the soundtrack), or to get students to focus on what is being said, through the use of a variety of guessing and prediction tasks. Playing a short video sequence with the sound turned off not only helps students concentrate on the situation, but it also stimulates their imagination. Some classroom activities based on the Silent Viewing technique are:

- **What are they saying?**

Show a dramatic scene with short exchanges of dialog, where the action, emotions, setting, and situation give clues to what is being said by the characters. Students watch the scene with the **sound off** and guess or predict what the characters are saying. Then they watch the scene with the **sound on** and compare their guesses and predictions with what the characters actually say.

- **What's happening?**

Write the following three questions on the board, or dictate them to students:

*Where are the people ?*

*Who are they?*

*What's happening?*

Students watch a dramatic scene and use the questions as a guide to help them guess the gist of the situation rather than the exact words used by the characters.

- **What's the conversation?**

Students watch a dramatic scene, preferably one involving a conversation between two people. Then they work in pairs and try to write an appropriate dialog to accompany the pictures. Students practice their dialog in pairs and then take turns performing the dialog in front of the class. Finally, students watch the scene again, this time with the sound on and compare their dialog with the dialog that is actually used in the video.

- **What did you see?**

Students watch a video sequence and then write a descriptive commentary on what they see.

## **2. Pause / Freeze Frame**

This technique, which involves using the pause button to stop the video while keeping a still picture frozen on the screen, can be used with either sound on or sound off. The Pause / Freeze Frame technique is useful for concentrating on a single image or sentence in a video sequence. It is ideal for studying language in detail. Some classroom activities based on the Pause / Freeze Frame technique are:

- **Listen and say**

Students watch a video sequence twice with the sound on. During the first viewing they simply follow the story. During the second viewing, use the pause function to

stop the video from time to time so that students can repeat the line just spoken. Encourage students to use the same intonation and stress patterns as the speakers. Offer opportunities for individual students to repeat the lines, as well as for the whole class to repeat the lines in chorus.

- **Tell me what you see**

Play a video sequence with the **sound off** and pause at a convenient point to show a still picture. Students work in pairs and take turns describing what they see in the picture. As a variation, instead of using a single picture, you can pause at several different points where specific items come into prominence.

- **Guess the next line**

Students watch a dramatic sequence, preferably one involving a dialog between two characters, with the **sound on**. During the viewing, pause the video at several different points, always just after one character has asked a question or said a sentence to which the second character is expected to respond. Students guess what the second character will say in response to what the first character has said. After eliciting suggested responses from the students, play the video and allow students to hear the actual response used in the video. After going through a sequence in this manner, play the entire sequence again, straight through without pausing, so that students have a chance to follow the dialog spoken at its natural pace.

### **3. Sound Only**

This technique involves playing the video with the **sound on** and **no picture**. (Cover the screen with a cloth, a coat, or a large piece of paper.) With Sound Only, students listen and concentrate on what they hear, rather than on what they see. As with Silent Viewing, the creation of an information gap stimulates the imagination and student language use. Some classroom activities based on the Sound Only technique are:

- **Describe the person**

Choose a video sequence in which one character speaks continuously for at least 10 or 15 seconds. On the board, write a list of words that students are likely to need to



describe the character, for example, *old, young, tall, short, dark, fair, nice, nasty*. Play the video sequence with **sound only**. Students listen and write down the words they feel describe the character. Students then work in pairs or small groups, comparing and giving reasons for their answers. Elicit some answers (and reasons for them) from the class. Then replay the sequence with **sound and picture** so that students can modify or confirm their original answers.

- **Describe the scene**

Select a video sequence with a soundtrack in which some clues are given as to the location, number of characters, and general situation of the scene. Write the following questions on the board, or dictate them to the students:

*Where does the scene take place ?*

*How many characters are in it?*

*How are they dressed?*

*What are their ages ?*

*What is their relationship?*

*What are they doing ?*

Play the sequence with **sound only**. Students listen and then work in pairs or small groups asking and answering the questions and giving reasons for their answers. Finally, play the scene again, this time with **sound and picture**. Students discuss the questions again, taking into consideration the new information they now have from the pictures.

#### **4. Split Viewing**

The technique of Split Viewing involves having some students see a video sequence and hear the soundtrack, while other students only hear the sound track. Some activities based on the Split Viewing technique are:

- **Tell me what happened**

This activity is a lot like a game. Divide the class into pairs. One student in each pair is a listener who faces away from the screen. The other student is a watcher who

faces the screen. Play the video episode. Listeners listen only. When the sequence ends, the watchers have three minutes to tell the listeners what they saw. At the end, encourage one or two listeners to sum up the story. Then replay the episode for all students to watch. At the end, the listeners and the watchers compare their earlier versions with what actually happens in the video.

- **Find out what happened**

This activity follows a procedure similar to that described above, but instead of watchers telling listeners what happened, the listeners have to ask the watchers questions to find out what happened. After listeners have interviewed watchers, call on listeners to report the information they found out. This is all useful practice in asking questions and reporting information.

## **5. Normal Viewing**

As you would expect, the technique of Normal Viewing involves watching the video with **sound and picture**, the way most people normally watch TV or a video. There are numerous activities based on this technique, and only a few of them are listed here. The most common and popular techniques that involve Normal Viewing are:

- **Role play**

Select a video sequence with a dialog involving two or three characters. Divide the class into groups composed of the same number of students as there are characters in the video sequence. Play the sequence twice. The students' task is to study the situation in the video and then role-play the same situation using whatever words or other means they wish. After students have viewed the sequence twice, allow the groups five minutes or so to practice role-playing the situation in the video. Finally, groups take turns performing their role plays for the class, using their own words, actions, and gestures. Role play is an excellent way of having students use the language they have learned. With role play students concentrate not just on the language people use, but also on how they behave.

- **Change!**

This is a variation of role play (above). In large classes, each group prepares the role of one character. It then nominates one of its members to play that character. During the role play, members can be substituted by the teacher calling "Change!" or by another group member tapping the role player on the shoulder and replacing him or her.

- **Behavior study**

In this activity, students watch a dramatic sequence, imagine a similar situation in their own country, and examine the differences in behavior. Select a video sequence that illustrates two or three incidents of behavior that are culturally different from the students' own culture. Ask the students to observe the video carefully. Play the video sequence and pause after each incident. Elicit information about what the people in the video said and did and how this differs from the students' culture. For example: Watch how the people greet each other. Play the relevant part of the sequence and elicit from the class:

- a. where the people are
- b. what they say
- c. what they do
- d. what their relationship is
- e. how they would act differently in the students' own language and culture

- **Comparing situations**

Two or three incidents or sequences can be contrasted to allow the students to compare behavior in two different situations (e.g., people greeting each other at a party, and people greeting each other at a business meeting).

- **Prediction**

Before having students watch a scene, tell the class where the scene takes place and ask them to predict eight to ten things they might see in the video. For example, for a scene that takes place in a kitchen, students might predict the following: *an apple, a cake, a cook, a stove, a table, a spoon, a sink, a chair, a refrigerator*. Play the video. Students watch and call out the names of the predicted items as they see them on the video.

- **Thinking and feeling**

As much as the words we use, our body language—such as posture, gestures, and facial expressions—conveys what we really think and feel. An interesting and valuable activity involves describing what characters in a video are thinking and feeling, using clues from the dialog and the body language they use. To carry out this activity, start by pre-teaching a number of words students can use to describe feelings exhibited by a character or characters in the video, for example, *angry, irritated, furious, curious, surprised, disappointed, unhappy, worried*. The students' task is to watch the video and name the feelings being expressed. Play the video, stopping at crucial points to focus on a character. Ask students which word describes the character's emotions or feelings at that point, and have them give reasons for their answers.

- **Telling the story**

Students can watch a video episode and then produce an oral or written summary of the story. Alternatively, they can watch a video episode and make up a story about the events leading up to the episode they saw on the video or about what may happen next. Using video to get students to make up a story is an excellent way of getting students to recycle language they have learned and use it in original ways for their own purposes.

### **2.3.3.2. Use of Authentic Videos with Subtitles**

Even if it can sometimes be more difficult to handle, it is in fact very functional to use authentic video in the foreign language class, since students can profit more efficiently from this type of input, given its presentation of real (not manipulated) and complete communicative situations, that is what learners really need in real life.

There is an obvious problem in using authentic videos in the foreign language class: they present real language that is not graded nor simplified, and spoken at a normal speed. That is why the video clips need to be prepared in advance, accompanied by the appropriate pre-viewing, viewing and post-viewing activities.

The source of the clips can be sitcoms, soaps, series, films, short films, TV commercials, or documentaries. We are talking about clips because the video sequences need to be short (Stempleski; 2006), around two or three minutes long, to have time to exploit all their contents in class, using the appropriate ad-hoc activities just mentioned. Finally, if we want these clips to be successful as a point of departure to develop foreign language skills, it is necessary for them to be clear, independent, self-contained, and interesting enough to motivate students and stimulate discussion.

Students of all levels can benefit from the use of video, since there are always easier video sequences, spoken at a slower rate that can match lower level students' needs. Besides, authentic video has an obvious advantage over conventional audio tapes (that are typically very demanding and may damage the students' confidence): the visual dimension that makes understanding easier through gestures and context.

Depending on the video clip used and the goal of the lesson, authentic input of this kind can still be very demanding on students. In fact, badly handled video activities can be just as de-motivating. Here is where the use of subtitles can play a key role in the foreign language class, to help overcome this problem. Although subtitles have sometimes been considered as distracting or as a source of laziness in students, nowadays we should realize that 'far from being a distraction and a source of laziness, subtitles might have a potential value in helping the learning acquisition process by providing learners with the key to massive quantities of authentic and comprehensible language input'. Indeed, text in the form of subtitles helps learners monitor a speech that would probably be lost otherwise. In fact, while TV programs and films that are not subtitled can create a high level of insecurity and anxiety in students, the incorporation of subtitles provides instant feedback and a positive reinforcement that contributes to create a feeling of confidence in learners that can help them feel ready and motivated to watch foreign television, films, etc., with or without the support of subtitles in the near future.

Obviously, whenever students do not know how to use subtitles efficiently in the language class, they need to learn how to use them as a support (for finding new words, for understanding better, fixing spelling, or any other functional purpose) and

not as a way of forgetting the information contained in the aural channel. Here follow some instances of activities learners can perform to achieve this goal; these samples can make use of standard or bimodal subtitles, indistinctively or in combination. First of all, they can watch a clip with subtitles, then without them, and subsequently with subtitles again; this activity can make them realize that subtitles are not so necessary so as to understand the dialogues (this should happen during the second viewing) and that it is possible to listen to the dialogues and read at the same time (this kind of awareness would take place in the third viewing). The previous activity can also be performed changing the order of the subtitles, that is, without-with-without, or using only two viewings (with-without or without-with). Another possible activity that can accompany the previous ones consists in making students note down the words or expressions from the dialogue that do not appear in the subtitles to discuss them in groups afterwards. Finally, accompanying the first and the second activities described above, the class can perform oral pair or group discussions on each student's self assessment of their own degree of understanding when they view the clip with or without subtitles, and how they feel about the experience. When some or all of these activities are undertaken several times, the learner's mind will quickly learn how to pay equal attention to both channels (aural and textual) at the same time, and so he/she will be able to use subtitles as a support every time he/she faces them.

Authentic video accompanied by subtitles can help vocabulary learning in the foreign language class in various ways. A subtitled video clip provides a triple connection between image, sound and text, sound and text being linked by translation when standard subtitles are used. This fact is relevant enough when think the importance of visual associations in memory for vocabulary learning is thought and how this type of connection generally encourages greater retention in lexical terms. This mnemonic power of images is here enhanced by the presence of sound and text together; when this text appear in the form of translation, the associations in memory are enhanced even further. Hence, the potential usefulness of authentic subtitled video clips in vocabulary learning should not be negated (Stempleski, 2006).

Vocabulary learning has commonly been one of the most neglected areas of language learning, since many educators prefer to dedicate more time and effort to other 'more complicated' issues, leaving vocabulary learning for the student to cope with by himself/herself. However, nowadays, vocabulary learning is claimed to be more complex and less straight forward than what it was often considered to be. Likewise, vocabulary learning through video has traditionally been scarce, since teachers have typically regarded audio-visual materials as resources used to improve other learning skills.

In this context, authentic video and subtitles can precisely play an important role to help learners increase and strengthen their foreign language vocabulary, given the appropriate guidance. Any well-prepared learning task using subtitles in authentic video clips will encourage a better understanding and acquisition of new vocabulary; new and old lexical items will enter the students' minds more easily given the motivating and comprehensive atmosphere provided by this familiar type of audio-visual environment. When these tasks are prepared using standard subtitles, the translation element enables low level students, who often cannot benefit from most contextual cues when they watch authentic video, to face an easier retrieval of lexical information. The translation element can likewise help higher level students to be conscious of new and unfamiliar vocabulary items that might otherwise be simply lost without the support of subtitles.

This cognitive overloading of information provided by the triple connection of image, sound and text plus the optional element of translation is very positive in terms of vocabulary learning. Some authors have already demonstrated how video clips are more efficient than still pictures when we teach unknown vocabulary items. Among other reasons, this is due to the fact that video is able to improve the building of a mental image, to create a curiosity that leads to intense focusing, and because it embodies that highly beneficial combination of media already discussed (Stempleski, 2006).

### **Example of task**

Many different tasks can make use of authentic video and subtitles to improve foreign language vocabulary; the creativity of the teacher will play a key role here.

A very straight forward example of an easy task to teach vocabulary items is the following. A clip can be taken from a film, TV show, or sitcom containing someone willing to buy or sell a house, either going to the real state agency or visiting a house. To cut the clip, a freeware software called DVD Shrink can be downloaded from <http://www.dvdshrink.org/what.html> and can be used; this offers a very easy and fast way of cutting up any DVD or video file. Once the clip is taken, all vocabulary items related to the field of housing (renting apartments, buying houses, etc) are extracted and included in a list that can be completed with other relevant words of the field that are not included in the clip.

The class might be started with a pre-viewing activity describing the students' houses in pairs or in groups or proposing housing ads for the school newspaper. With such an activity, students can remember all the related vocabulary they already know and the teacher can help them in this process. Then, the viewing of a clip related to the topic that has been discussed is announced. The clip can be shown with or without subtitles, and the subtitles can be standard or bimodal; all this will depend on the level of the class and on the goals of the teacher.

After the clip is viewed for the first time, the class discusses its content and students are asked to try to remember all the words or expressions related to housing they have heard. They are written on the blackboard and learners are told to pay close attention to the second viewing of the clip, to write down in their notebooks all words related to the housing field they can hear. After the second viewing, students complete the blackboard's list.

As a post-viewing activity, learners are asked to perform role-plays imitating the situation of the clip and using as many words related to housing as they can. Then, as homework, they are told to write an essay on a related topic where they can use most of the terms learned in the course of the task.

The task presented here is just a possible instance that follows a particular structure that can fit a 45 minutes lesson. Obviously, any aspect of the task and its development can be changed to suit each teacher's or each classroom's needs.



# **CHAPTER 3**

## **METHOD**

This chapter provides an overview of the research design, materials, the testing instruments, and the data collection procedures for the present study designed to contribute to the research on the use of video in vocabulary teaching for improving vocabulary learning capacity of the learners.

### **3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN AND PARTICIPANTS**

In order to understand the effects of video on vocabulary learning, some quantitative data have been gathered for this study. In this quantitative part of the study we used five pre-activity tests and five post-activity tests to see the effects of video on vocabulary learning.

A control group and an experimental group have been arranged in Büyükkoyuncu Private High School. Both groups consisted of 22 students. The students in the groups were nearly at the same level of English language knowledge. At the beginning of the study, five different units of vocabulary have been chosen.

In each group, we applied a pre-activity test to see the level of the students. Then, in the experiment group (GV), we used video to teach the unit. On the other hand, we used course books to teach these units in the control group (GCB). At the end of the each unit, we applied a post-activity test.

### **3.2. MATERIALS**

#### **3.2.1. Selection of the Vocabulary units**

In this study, we aimed at teaching vocabulary through video at intermediate level. So, we had to choose vocabulary units in accordance with this idea. There were five units each of which had been chosen to attract the attention of the teenagers. We tried to keep in mind that the more natural and life-related the topics were, the more

enthusiastic the students would be. For all these reasons the following units were chosen:

- 1- Sports
- 2- Travel and Holiday
- 3- Food and Drinks
- 4- Animals
- 5- Adjectives describing people

### **3.2.2. Selection of the Video Patterns**

For each unit of vocabulary we tried to choose a different resource of video either a movie or a video course book.

For teaching vocabulary about sports, the movie “Asteriks” has been used. In this movie, there were different types of Olympic sports.

While teaching vocabulary about travel and holiday, we used the video course book of Stempleski (2006) called “World Link”.

In order to teach vocabulary about food and drinks, students watched the animation “Over the Hedge”. In this movie, some animals collected food from both nature and urban settlements. This movie has also been an introduction to the next unit “animals”.

For teaching vocabulary about animals, we used the movie “Even the Almighty”. In this movie, the main character, Even, built an ark with the help of various animals.

Finally, to teach vocabulary about describing people, we used Upstream DVD Workbook, which accompanied the main course book of the students.

### **3.2.3. Pre-Activity and Post-Activity Tests**

As we said before, there were five units of vocabulary. Before each unit we applied a pre-activity test (Appendix A, B, C, D, E) to see the level of the students. These tests consisted of various types of questions ranging from multiple choice tests to matching items. Moreover, these tests were at elementary or pre-intermediate level.

The post-activity tests (Appendix F, G, H, I, J) have been applied at the end of each unit. In these tests we also used various types of questions. However, post-activity tests consisted of intermediate level questions.

### **3.3 Procedure**

As it has been noted before, the research involved the comparison of two separate groups. The groups can be categorized as follows:

GV (n = 22), who watched video

GCB (n = 22), who studied with the course book

None of the students in both groups were aware that they were taking part in an experiment before and at the time of the research.

There were two classes assigned for vocabulary for each group a week and the experiments took place in these vocabulary classes. One unit was studied every week. At the beginning of the lessons, each group took pre-activity tests. After the assessment of the tests, GV watched video in accordance with the target vocabulary and GCB studied the target vocabulary through their course books. At the end of the lessons, both of the groups took the post – activity tests.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## RESULTS

### 4.1. PRE-ACTIVITY TESTS

As noted before, at the beginning of each unit students took pre – activity tests at elementary or pre – intermediate level. These tests consisted of various types of questions for each unit.

Our first pre – activity test was about sports. Both groups took the test and scores were very close (Appendix K). In group GV, mean score was 53 points. The lowest score was 44 points and the highest score was 75 points. In group GCB, mean score was 56,5 points. The lowest score was 34 points and the highest score was 74 points.

Our second pre – activity test was about travel and holiday. The scores were again very close (Appendix K). In group GV, mean score was 55 points. The lowest score was 44 points and the highest score was 67 points. In group GCB, mean score was 53 points. The lowest score was 42 points and the highest score was 67 points.

Our third pre – activity test was about food and drinks. In group GV, mean score was 60,4 points. The lowest score was 51 points and the highest score was 72 points. In group GCB, mean score was 59,8 points. The lowest score was 50 points and the highest score was 73 points.

Our fourth pre – activity test was about animals. The scores were very close as before (Appendix K). However, mean scores were higher than the previous pre – activity tests. In group GV, mean score was 66 points. The lowest score was 56 points and the highest score was 80 points. In group GCB, mean score was 67 points. The lowest score was 52 points and the highest score was 84 points.

Our last pre – activity test was about describing people. In this test, mean score was not as close to each other as they were before. Besides, mean score of

GCB was much higher than that of GV. In group GV, mean score was 57,3 points. The lowest score was 40 points and the highest score was 80 points. In group GCB, mean score was 63 points. The lowest score was 50 points and the highest score was 80 points.

Table 4.1. Mean scores, lowest scores, and highest scores of the tests

	<b>Sports</b>		<b>Travel</b>		<b>Food &amp; Drinks</b>		<b>Animals</b>		<b>Describing People</b>	
<b>Groups</b>	<b>GV</b>	<b>GCB</b>	<b>GV</b>	<b>GCB</b>	<b>GV</b>	<b>GCB</b>	<b>GV</b>	<b>GCB</b>	<b>GV</b>	<b>GCB</b>
<b>Mean Sc.</b>	53	56,5	55	53	60,4	59,8	66	67	57,3	63
<b>Lowest Sc.</b>	44	34	44	42	51	50	56	52	40	50
<b>Highest Sc.</b>	75	74	67	67	72	73	80	84	80	80

#### **4.2. POST ACTIVITY TESTS**

As noted before, at the end of each unit students took post – activity tests at intermediate level. These tests also consisted of various types of questions for each unit. GV students took the tests after watching the video pattern. GCB students took the tests after studying the course book.

Our first post – activity test was about sports. Both groups took the test and scores were different (Appendix L). In group GV, mean score was 89,3 points. The lowest score was 77,5 points and the highest score was 100 points. In group GCB, mean score was 79,4 points. The lowest score was 70 points and the highest score was 90 points. These scores showed us that video improved the learning capacity of the students in this unit.

Our second post – activity test was about travel and holiday. The scores were closer than the previous test (Appendix L). However, GV scores were higher than the GCB scores. In group GV, mean score was 86,1 points. The lowest score was 75 points and the highest score was 95 points. In group GCB, mean score was 81,1 points. The lowest score was 70 points and the highest score was 95 points.

Our third post – activity test was about food and drinks. In group GV, mean score was 89,9 points. The lowest score was 79 points and the highest score was 96 points. In group GCB, mean score was 81 points. The lowest score was 73 points and the highest score was 90 points.

Our fourth post – activity test was about animals. The scores were very close as to the other post – activity tests (Table 4.2). Again mean scores were higher than the previous post – activity tests. In group GV, mean score was 89,5 points. The lowest score was 76 points and the highest score was 100 points. In group GCB, mean score was 86,9 points. The lowest score was 78 points and the highest score was 100 points, too.

Our last post – activity test was about describing people. In group GV, mean score was 87,6 points. The lowest score was 80 points and the highest score was 94 points. In group GCB, mean score was 80,7 points. The lowest score was 50 points and the highest score was 88 points.

Table 4.2 Mean scores, lowest scores, and highest scores of the Post-Activity tests

	<b>Sports</b>		<b>Travel</b>		<b>Food &amp; Drinks</b>		<b>Animals</b>		<b>Describing People</b>	
<b>Groups</b>	<b>GV</b>	<b>GCB</b>	<b>GV</b>	<b>GCB</b>	<b>GV</b>	<b>GCB</b>	<b>GV</b>	<b>GCB</b>	<b>GV</b>	<b>GCB</b>
<b>Mean Sc.</b>	89,3	79,4	86,1	81,1	89,9	81	89,5	86,9	87,6	80,7
<b>Lowest Sc.</b>	77,5	70	75	70	79	73	76	78	80	72
<b>Highest Sc.</b>	100	90	95	95	96	90	100	100	94	88

### 4.3 CONCLUSION

Pre – Activity tests results showed us that the levels of the students were very close to each other (APPENDIX K). In addition, the mean score of GCB was higher in units *Sports, Animals, Describing People*”. After the post – activity tests, we saw that GV scores increased and in each test, the mean score of GV was higher than GCB. This meant that using video in teaching vocabulary helped us (teachers) and improved the scores of the students. On the other hand, we can't say that GCB students were not successful at all. Their scores were really good and even very close to those of GV in some tests (Animals). As a result we can say that students learn vocabulary better if vocabulary is presented within a video context.

# **CHAPTER FIVE**

## **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

### **5.1.VIDEO AND VOCABULARY TEACHING**

Reading is often regarded as a basic and dominant subject for children during their school years. Poor reading, however, is the most frequently reported academic problem of students with learning disabilities. These students have been found to exhibit significant deficits in a range of reading tasks including phonetic awareness, word recognition, vocabulary, and reading comprehension. Common characteristics of this population include weak word recognition skills in relation to connected text and spontaneously generating vocabulary knowledge. Those weaknesses hamper their text comprehension during reading. It is obvious that the learner and learning environment (e.g. text, material, setting, teacher) constitute the basis of learning, and a student's learning is directly affected by his/her learning environment. Semantically rich meaningful contexts provided by the environment allow students to make sense of their surroundings and can be used to help students organize previous knowledge and acquire new information.

So one way to create semantically rich meaningful contexts (called macro-context) in the classroom is to use video. It is argued that video has three instructional advantages. First, it provides a rich source of information with opportunities to notice sensory images, dynamic features, relevant issues, and inherent problems. Second, it enables students to perceive dynamic moving events and to more easily form mental models. Third, video allows students to develop skills of pattern recognition, which are related to visual and auditory cues rather than to events labeled by the teacher.



This study investigated the effects of using video technology as a tool for facilitating the vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension skills of students. The video instruction group (GV) learned word meanings and concepts in videodisc based contexts, while in the non-video group (GCB) students were taught word definitions and concepts using a dictionary and printed texts. All students were administered pre – activity and post - activity tests over 5 target units of vocabulary. Findings indicated that students in the video instruction group had statistically higher word acquisition scores than those in the non-video instruction group.

## **5.2.SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

This study was limited by several conditions; therefore there are some suggestions for future researches according to the limitations mentioned in chapter one.

First of all, this study consisted of five-unit vocabulary study. Two classes per week (five weeks in total) cannot be thought to be enough to reach to a scientific statement. In a future research, it is suggested that this study must be applied to whole schooling year encompassing a whole vocabulary curriculum.

Second, student groups were really successful and hard-working students. Most of them may have been enthusiastic about learning English previously. That's why, in a future research, experimental and control groups could consist of students at different levels, different schools, and even different type of high schools (Anatolian high schools, science high schools, technical and vocational high schools etc.).

Fourth, our pre and post activity tests may not be good enough to evaluate the acquisition or learning of the target vocabulary. Although there were various types of questions, there was nothing about speaking skills of the students and writing skill was not really necessary at all for these tests. In a future research, these tests should involve all the skills a student needs to improve to learn a language.

Finally, we thought that every student likes watching movies. So, we didn't think about applying a questionnaire. However, if a student does not like watching movies, it may be boring for him or her to learn vocabulary like this. In a future study, such a questionnaire could be useful to see that whether using video improves learning vocabulary for everybody.

### **5.3.CONCLUSION**

This study has investigated the effects of using video in teaching vocabulary at school. The main problem that led us to this study was that most of the students don't like learning / memorizing new vocabulary, were afraid of new vocabulary, and even hate learning new vocabulary. There had to be something they could like while learning language or vocabulary. We thought that video might be the solution because almost all the teenagers like watching videos.

We decided on five target units of vocabulary, applied pre – activity tests in the control and the experimental groups. In the control group students studied these units on printed texts (course books) and in the experimental group, students learnt these vocabulary units in a video context for each. At the end of each unit we applied a post - activity test. The scores of the experiment group were higher in each test.

At the end of this study we saw that the use of video improved students' vocabulary learning. Moreover, the motivation of the students was higher thanks to the video patterns; so, it should be born in mind that the use of technology, especially the technology that students are keen on, makes learning easier, faster, and more interesting.

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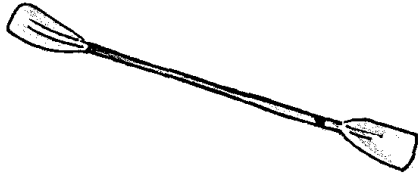
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# APPENDIX A- SPORTS

## PRE- ACTIVITY TEST

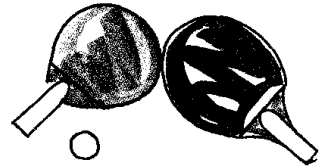
What sports do you think of when you see ...?



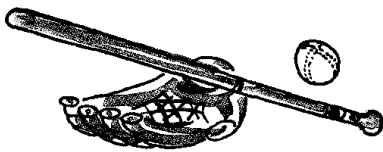
1 .....



3 .....



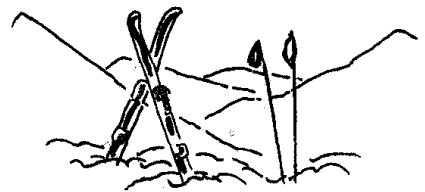
5 .....



2 .....



4 .....



6 .....

Each correct answer is 5 points.

Ask questions for these answers.

1 *...What's your favourite sport?.....*

I like running best.

2 Do you .....?

Yes, but not soccer, only American football.

3 .....?

No, I don't do any at all. I prefer watching TV.

4 Do you .....?

Yes. I go to the swimming pool every Friday.

Each correct answer is 13 points...

Write down six things you can do with a ball.

..... it

..... it

..... it

..... it

..... it

..... it

Each correct answer is 5 points...

## APPENDIX B- TRAVEL - HOLIDAY

### PRE- ACTIVITY TEST

Complete this postcard that John sent to his family while he was on holiday. You may need a word or phrase in each space.

Hi everyone, I've been in Paris for almost a week now and I'm having a <sup>(1)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_. I spent the first few days <sup>(2)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ - The Eiffel Tower, Notre Dame, and all the usual tourist attractions. Most places are absolutely <sup>(3)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ with tourists (it's the time of the year I suppose), so yesterday I decided to have <sup>(4)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ round the shops and I bought a few <sup>(5)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_. Today I've been to a couple of very interesting art <sup>(6)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_. I got <sup>(7)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ on my way back to the hotel but it didn't matter because I discovered a really fascinating <sup>(8)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ with lots of little stalls selling just about everything from apples to antiques. I ate in the hotel the first night but usually I <sup>(9)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ and have dinner in a restaurant - the food is fantastic. I'm afraid I've <sup>(10)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ a lot of money, but it's a great place and I've <sup>(11)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ lots of photographs so you'll be able to see for yourself when I get back home on the 24th. See you then, John

Each correct answer is 8 points.

#### Fill the gaps.

- A: Are you working on Monday?  
B: No, I'm ..... holiday.
- A: Are you going ..... holiday this year?  
B: Yes, I'm going camping.
- A: Did you have a good ..... in Greece?  
B: Yes, it was wonderful.
- A: Are you flying to Italy?  
B: No I'm going ..... train.

Each correct answer is 3 points.

# APPENDIX C- FOOD & DRINK

## PRE- ACTIVITY TEST

Put these words into two lists: fruit and vegetables, as in the example.

beans    pineapple    grapes    onions    apple    carrot    garlic    pear    mushrooms

### FRUITS

### VEGETABLES

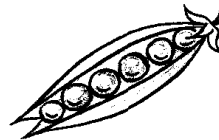
beans

Each correct answer is 3 points...

Write the names of these fruit and vegetables.



1 .....



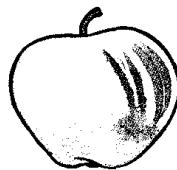
3 .....



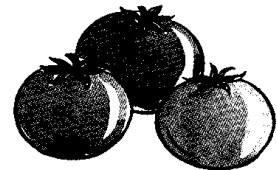
5 .....



2 .....



4 .....



6 .....

Each correct answer is 6 points...

Here are the names of some drinks with the letters mixed up. What are they?

1 eta tea

4 fecofe

2 rebe

5 rituf eciju

3 klim

6 nilemar retaw

Each correct answer is 8 points

# APPENDIX D- ANIMALS

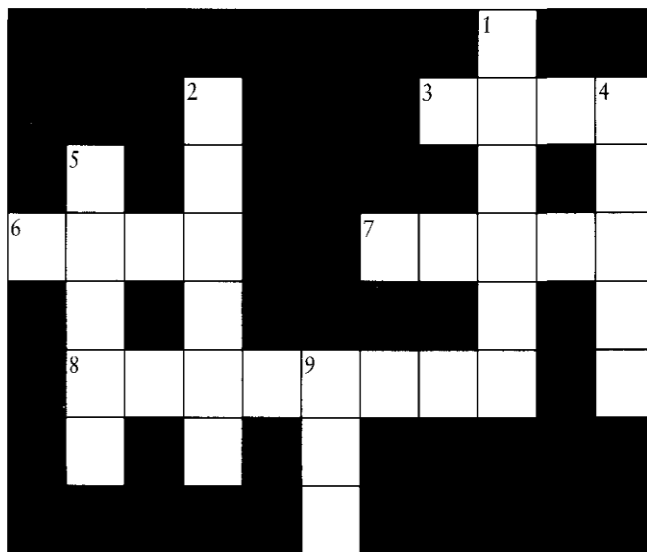
## PRE- ACTIVITY TEST

Complete these sentences.

- 1 A .....*tortoise*..... goes to sleep in winter.
- 2 A ..... has a very long neck.
- 3 ....., ..... and ..... are birds.
- 4 ..... and ..... are large cats.
- 5 You can ride a ..... and an .....
- 6 ..... swim and ..... fly.

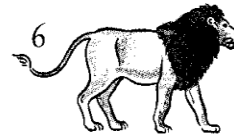
Each correct answer is 11 points.

Look at the pictures and complete the crossword.



Across

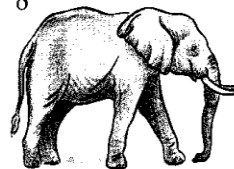
3



7



8



Down

1



2



4



5



9



Each correct answer is 5 points.



**APPENDIX E- DESCRIBING PEOPLE: PRE-ACTIVITY TEST**  
**(EACH CORRECT ANSWER IS 10 POINTS)**

- 1- She has got blonde \_\_\_\_\_  
.
- a) eyes
  - b) hair
  - c) fingers
  - d) shoulders
- 2- He's got very pale \_\_\_\_\_  
.
- a) skin
  - b) hair
  - c) eyes
  - d) nose
- 3- They've both got curly \_\_\_\_\_  
.
- a) shoulders
  - b) complexion
  - c) skin
  - d) hair
- 4- I would say he was medium \_\_\_\_\_  
.
- a) strong
  - b) weak
  - c) fat
  - d) height
- 5- Her brother has got very broad \_\_\_\_\_  
.
- a) hair
  - b) nose
  - c) skin
  - d) shoulders
- 6- Last time I saw him he had grown \_\_\_\_\_  
.
- a) handsome
  - b) moustache
  - c) medium-height
  - d) well-built
- 7- He's got very muscular \_\_\_\_\_  
.
- a) arms
  - b) built
  - c) eyes
  - d) complexion
- 8- Both men were very good \_\_\_\_\_  
.
- a) built
  - b) height
  - c) weight
  - d) looking
- 9- All of them have got dark \_\_\_\_\_  
.
- a) hair
  - b) fingers
  - c) shoulders
  - d) appearance
- 10- She doesn't like men with hairy \_\_\_\_\_  
.
- a) eyes
  - b) complexion
  - c) chest

# APPENDIX F- SPORTS

## POST- ACTIVITY TEST

Organise these words and put them in the correct columns below? (You can put a word in more than one column if you wish.)

swimming gloves crash helmet course football racket track  
 ring boots pool motor racing clubs tennis net court golf  
 pitch track trunks boxing goals costume shorts whistle vest

<i>Sport</i>	<i>Place</i>	<i>Equipment</i>

Each correct answer is 2,5 points...

**True or false?** If *false*, correct the sentence to make it *true*.

- 1 The people who watch a football match are the audience.
- 2 The official who gives the score in tennis is the umpire.
- 3 Athletes wear shorts.
- 4 You need a stick to play hockey.
- 5 Boxers wear gloves.
- 6 Tennis is played on a pitch.
- 7 The referee in football has a whistle.
- 8 Women wear trunks for swimming.

Each correct answer is 2,5 points...

**What do you call a person who...?**

- |  |                        |
|--|------------------------|
| 1 does the long-jump? <i>a long-jumper</i> | 5 does gymnastics?     |
| 2 rides horses in races?                   | 6 plays hockey?        |
| 3 drives cars in races?                    | 7 plays football?      |
| 4 throws the discus/javelin?               | 8 does the pole-vault? |

Each correct answer is 2,5 points...

**APPENDIX G-TRAVEL – HOLIDAY POST- ACTIVITY TEST**  
**(EACH CORRECT ANSWER IS 5 POINTS)**

**Match what you want on the left with what you need on the right.**

**You want:**

- 1 to have a cup of tea in your room
- 2 to go to the top floor
- 3 to open your door
- 4 to get up at 6 a.m.
- 5 to phone your country
- 6 to watch the news
- 7 to wash your hair
- 8 to dry your hair

**You need:**

- a the lift
- b an outside line
- c a shower
- d a kettle
- e a hair dryer
- f a morning call
- g a TV
- h a key

**There are six typical language mistakes in the paragraph below. Underline them and then write the corrections.**

*The Smiths stayed at a camping last summer because all other kinds of holiday accommodations are too expensive for them. Every day Mrs Smith had a sunbath, Mr Smith made a sight-seeing and the children made a travel around the island. One day they made an excursion to a local castle.*

**What would you say in a hotel when...**

- 1 you want to reserve a room for a couple with a small baby?
- 2 you have to wake up early for an important meeting?
- 3 your TV screen suddenly goes blank?
- 4 it's midnight, you've just arrived and you're very hungry?
- 5 you'd rather not go to the dining-room for breakfast?
- 6 you are not sure whether to leave a tip or not?

# APPENDIX H- FOOD - DRINK

## POST- ACTIVITY TEST

Can you write down a vegetable and fruit:

	<i>Vegetable</i>	<i>Fruit</i>
1 beginning with the letter 'p'	..potato.....	.....
2 beginning with the letter 'b'	.....	.....
3 beginning with the letter 'm'	.....	.....
4 beginning with the letter 'c'	.....	.....
5 beginning with the letter 'a'	.....	.....

Each Correct answer is 2 points

Which is the odd one out in each group, and why?

- 1 pork      veal      salmon      beef
- 2 salmon      shrimp      oyster      lobster
- 3 lettuce      aubergine      tomato      cucumber
- 4 peach      onion      mushroom      courgette
- 5 chicken      lamb      beef      mussels

Each correct answer is 2 points...

Sort these dishes out under the headings *starters*, *main courses* or *desserts*.

chicken casserole      coffee gateau      fresh fruit salad      sorbet      Irish stew  
paté and toast      prawn cocktail      rump steak      chocolate fudge cake  
grilled trout      shrimps in garlic

starters	Main courses	desserts

Each correct answer is 5 points

What might you say to the person/people with you in a restaurant if...

- 1 your chips had too much oil/fat on them?
- 2 your dish had obviously been cooked too much/too long?
- 3 your piece of meat was absolutely perfectly cooked?
- 4 your dish seemed to have no flavour at all?

Each correct answer is 4 points...

# APPENDIX I- ANIMALS

## POST- ACTIVITY TEST

Match the animal with its meat and with its young animal. Draw lines.

<i>animal</i>	<i>meat</i>	<i>young</i>
sheep	chicken	piglet
cow	pork	lamb
hen	beef	calf
pig	lamb	chick

Each correct answer is 6 points...

Divide these words into three groups and give each one a title.

monkey   horse   goat   fly   lion   cow   elephant   pig   mosquito  
butterfly   tiger   wasp   sheep   camel   ant   leopard   bear   chicken

GROUP 1.....	GROUP 2.....	GROUP 3.....

Each correct answer is 2 points...

Complete the sentences with a suitable word.

- 1 They've got lots of pets: two dogs, four cats, and a .....
- 2 Their farm animals include cows, sheep and .....
- 3 The children love to see the 'big cats' at the zoo such as lions, tigers and .....
- 4 I hate most insects, but particularly mosquitoes and .....
- 5 We saw some really large animals at the Safari Park: elephants, giraffes and .....

Each correct answer is 8 points...

# APPENDIX J- DESCRIBING PEOPLE

## POST- ACTIVITY TEST

WANTED! MISSING! Complete the gaps in these police posters.

### WANTED FOR MURDER



Ian Prowse,  
height 6ft,

.....-faced,  
..... hair,  
..... skin

### Wanted for Robbery



Sandra King  
height 5ft 4,

..... hair,  
..... build,  
.....-faced

### Missing



Louise Fox  
age 7, Asian

.....  
.....  
hair.

### Wanted dead or alive



Jake 'Dagger'  
Flagstone, 6ft

....., with  
..... and .....;  
..... build.

Each correct answer is 3 points...

Answer these remarks with the *opposite* description.

*Example:* A: I thought you said he was the short, chubby one.

B: No, quite the **opposite**, *he's the tall, thin-faced one*

1 A: Was that his brother, the dark-skinned, wavy-haired one?

B: No, quite the **opposite**, his brother's...

2 A: She's always quite well-dressed, so I've heard.

B: What! Who told you that? Every time I see her, she's...

3 A: So Charlene's that rather plump fair-haired woman, is she?

B: No, you're looking at the wrong one. Charlene's...

4 A: So, tell us about the new boss; good looking?

B: No, I'm afraid not; rather...

5 A: I don't know why, but I expected the tour-guide to be middle-aged or elderly.

B: No, apparently she's only...

Each correct answer is 8 points.

Replace the underlined word in each sentence with a word which is either more suitable or more polite.

1 He told me he met a handsome girl in the disco last night.

2 She's beautiful but her younger sister is really quite ugly.

3 I think Peter is getting a bit fat, don't you?

4 Most people want to stay slim, but not as skinny as that girl over there.

Each correct answer is 6 points.

APPENDIX K

PRE – ACTIVITY TEST SCORES

	SPORTS PRE-ACTIVITY TEST RESULTS		TRAVEL AND HOLIDAY PRE-ACTIVITY TEST RESULTS		FOOD AND DRINKS PRE-ACTIVITY TEST RESULTS		ANIMALS PRE-ACTIVITY TEST RESULTS		DESCRIBING PEOPLE PRE-ACTIVITY TEST RESULTS	
	GV	GCB	GV	GCB	GV	GCB	GV	GCB	GV	GCB
SCORES OF THE STUDENTS	49	74	58	61	51	53	74	52	50	60
	44	49	67	49	58	55	80	79	50	50
	53	62	55	49	62	60	69	68	40	60
	46	34	50	53	56	53	79	74	60	60
	49	54	61	44	53	56	58	73	60	70
	62	57	58	67	65	73	61	73	60	50
	64	62	58	49	56	59	64	63	70	70
	51	57	52	61	71	63	61	68	50	80
	52	49	49	49	72	63	64	68	80	70
	57	62	44	47	61	61	56	64	60	60
	52	62	55	55	59	62	63	56	50	60
	57	62	67	61	67	62	64	61	50	50
	57	64	49	58	64	56	63	56	60	50
	59	51	52	55	62	69	63	69	60	70
	59	70	47	55	59	69	74	61	60	50
	62	47	44	64	59	56	69	64	60	60
	62	54	61	58	56	50	56	84	60	60
	64	44	61	61	64	67	74	56	70	50
	67	62	64	64	61	56	56	56	60	70
	70	62	58	47	64	63	61	69	50	60
74	44	55	47	56	59	79	56	60	50	
75	49	55	42	61	69	69	73	70	60	
MEAN	53	56,5	55	53	60,4	59,8	66	67	57,3	63

APPENDIX L

POST – ACTIVITY TEST SCORES

	SPORTS POST-ACTIVITY TEST RESULTS		TRAVEL AND HOLIDAY POST-ACTIVITY TEST RESULTS		FOOD AND DRINKS POST-ACTIVITY TEST RESULTS		ANIMALS POST-ACTIVITY TEST RESULTS		DESCRIBING PEOPLE POST-ACTIVITY TEST RESULTS	
	GV	GCB	GV	GCB	GV	GCB	GV	GCB	GV	GCB
SCORES OF THE STUDENTS	77,5	87,5	80	95	92	86	94	92	80	86
	80	85	85	80	87	84	92	88	88	83
	82,5	70	75	80	94	79	94	86	91	72
	82,5	72,5	75	80	90	90	90	86	94	84
	85	70	80	75	89	82	88	84	83	78
	85	75	85	95	94	84	90	78	91	75
	85	75	90	95	96	77	86	86	88	88
	85	77,5	90	90	88	87	92	84	91	72
	87,5	75	95	85	89	75	98	100	83	78
	87,5	77,5	85	80	94	73	88	96	83	78
	87,5	77,5	80	75	89	90	94	96	89	83
	87,5	80	85	85	92	86	86	88	94	80
	90	80	90	85	96	86	86	78	91	86
	92,5	80	90	75	90	77	90	80	83	80
	95	77,5	85	70	85	73	94	86	80	78
	95	80	90	85	96	77	88	84	80	80
	95	82,5	95	90	88	80	86	80	88	84
	95	85	85	75	89	78	80	88	91	83
	95	87,5	90	70	96	74	78	90	94	86
	97,5	85	95	75	79	77	76	92	83	78
97,5	90	80	70	81	84	98	86	91	75	
100	77,5	90	75	83	83	100	84	91	88	
MEAN	89,3	79,4	86,1	81,1	89,9	81	89,5	86,9	87,6	80,7