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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE MEANING-GIVEN METHOD AND MEANING-INFERRED METHOD ON RETENTION IN TEACHING VOCABULARY AT SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AT SELCUK UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE MEANING-INFERRED METHOD AND MEANING-GIVEN METHOD ON RETENTION IN TEACHING VOCABULARY AT SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AT SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AT SELCUK UNIVERSITY

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This study aims to investigate whether a word learning method in which learners infer the meaning of unknown words from the context leads to better retention than one in which the meaning of unknown words is presented by means of a gloss on the right hand margin. This was a quantitative quasi-experimental study, in which a pre-test, post-test, retention test was used.

Two groups of students participated in this study. One group was the control group, the other group was the experimental group. Both experimental and control groups learnt the same target words. The treatment for the experimental group was achieved via the implementation of guessing the meaning from the context method and for the students in the control group, a definition or synonym was provided in the margin for the targeted words and they were also free to use a monolingual dictionary. The comparison of the post-test and retention test scores of the two groups demonstrated that those students whose teachers used meaning-inferred method led to better retention than those used the meaning-given method.

Keywords: Vocabulary acquisition, Inferring the meaning from context, Guessing strategies, Meaning-given method, Marginal gloss, Dictionary use,

ÖZET

KELİME ÖĞRETİMİNDE BAĞLAM İÇERİSİNDEN ANLAM ÇIKARIM YÖNTEMİ İLE ANLAMI DOĞRUDAN VERME YÖNTEMLERİNİN AKILDA TUTMAYA ETKİSİ SELÇUK ÜNİVERSİTESİ YABANCI DİLLER YÜKSEK OKULUNDA KARŞILAŞTIRMALI ÇALIŞMASI

Zeynep ORTAPİŞİRİCİ,
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Mayıs, 2007

Bu çalışma, yabancı dilde bilinmeyen kelimenin anlamını bir bağlam içerisinden çıkarım yaparak öğrenen öğrencilerin, bilinmeyen kelimenin doğrudan verilmesi yöntemiyle öğrenen öğrencilerle karşılaştırıldığında kelime öğreniminin kalıcılığının daha başarılı olup olmadığı incelenmiştir. Ön-test, son-test ve gecikmeli testin kullanıldığı nicel sözde-deneysel bir çalışmadır.

Çalışmaya iki grup katılmıştır. Bir grup kontrol grubunu oluşturmuştur. Diğer grup da deney grubunu oluşturmuştur. Her iki grup öğrenci aynı bilinmeyen kelimeleri öğrenmişlerdir. Deney grubundaki öğrenciler bilinmeyen kelimeleri bağlamdan çıkarım yöntemiyle, kontrol grubundaki öğrenciler de bilinmeyen kelimelerin anlamını parçanın sağ tarafında İngilizce olarak verilen tanımını veya eşanlamlısını hemen görerek öğrendiler. Bu öğrenciler aynı zamanda isteğe bağlı olarak İngilizce'den İngilizce'ye sözlük kullandılar. Grupların öntest, sontest ve gecikmeli test sonuçlarının analizi, anlam çıkarım yöntemini kullanan öğrencilerin, kelimenin anlamını doğrudan verme yöntemiyle öğrenen öğrencilere göre kelime edinimlerinin daha kalıcı olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Yabancı dilde kelime edinimi, anlamı bağlamdan çıkarımda bulunmak, tahmin yöntemleri, anlamı doğrudan verme yöntemi, kenar sözlük, sözlük kullanımı

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INTRODUCTION

1.1. Presentation

This chapter begins with background of the study. Then it goes on with some information on education at Selcuk University, School of Foreign Languages (SOFL). The purpose and hypotheses of the study follow the problem statement. The next part is devoted to the limitations of the study.

1.2. Background of the Study

Vocabulary learning has always been an essential component of learning a language. The importance given to vocabulary instruction in ESL/EFL has varied with different approaches and methods through the history of language learning and teaching. These different methods have been preferred at different time periods. However, the main priority has given to grammar and skills like reading and writing, and the importance of lexical knowledge has not been realised for years. As Zimmerman (1997a: 5) notes, "the teaching and learning of vocabulary have been undervalued in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) throughout its varying stages and up to present stage". In addition Meara (1982) emphasized the neglect of second language (henceforth L2) vocabulary acquisition by researchers:

> This neglect is all more striking in that learners themselves readily admit that they experience considerably difficulty with vocabulary, and once they have got over the initial stages of acquiring their second language, most learners identify the acquisition of vocabulary as their greatest source of problems. (Meara,1982:100)

Through the years different language teaching methods emerged but these methods have not given vocabulary knowledge sufficient importance. However in the last two decades a considerable amount of vocabulary research has been conducted in the field of language learning. In Turkey, these different methods have been studied, too. Especially, many universities have preparatory classes to teach English. These preparatory classes aim to provide the students whose level of English is below proficiency level so that they can pursue their studies at their departments without major difficulty. To achieve this aim, the

preparatory classes run a program placing emphasis on various language skills so that they will use in their academic career, but there have been difficulties achieving this aim. Unfortunately, in Turkey, vocabulary has often been taught through mother tongue translation in an unplanned way which seems to be the most common and easiest technique for many teachers of English as a foreign language. However, we are of the opinion that this technique, which was derived from GTM (Grammar Translation Method), has some drawbacks and should not be used in preparatory schools too much. Firstly, the words dealt with in this way are unlikely to become a long-term part of the learner's own store of English. Thus, it will not produce good results in terms of vocabulary learning. Scrivener (1994:73) also claims that teaching vocabulary through mother tongue translation neglects one of the facts that words live within their own languages and though a dictionary translation can give an introduction to the meaning of a word, it can never really let us into the secrets of how that word exists within its language. Instead, we are left with questions:

* What words have a similar meaning to this word? How do they differ in meaning?

* Is this word part of a family or group of related words?What are the other members ?How do they relate to each other?

* What other words typically keep company with this word (often coming before or after it in a sentence) ?

* What are the situations and contexts where this word is typically found or not found?

(Scrivener, 1994:73)

Thus, learning vocabulary becomes an importat task for language learners. Based on research findings, Aitchison (1987) estimated that an educated adult might know no less than 50.000 words and up to 250.000 words. If this is the case, students must learn 5000 words every year, or 13 words every day. Then, how do the students learn these words? It's the fact that there is no way to teach 13 new words in school every day because of limits on class time.The idea that vocabulary acquisition through reading appears to indicate that reading-based vocabulary enlargement can be enhanced through students' taking responsibilities in their learning vocabulary such as inferring the meaning from the context, and studying on intentional vocabulary learning activities.

Research also indicates that retention fragility of lexical knowledge should be considered in vocabulary acquisition, lexical knowledge is more subject to forgetting than grammatical knowledge as it is composed of relatively more discrete unitscompared to grammatical knowledge (Ellis,1995). This more fragile knowledge type implies a need for deep level of processing or more mental effort. Activities for deep level of processing include changing grammatical category of the words, matching definitions with words, multiple choice, cloze or open cloze, and semantic mapping exercises (Wesche, Paribackht,2000).

Although the generally cited previous research (Haastrup,1991; Mondria,1996; Schauten-von Parreren,1985), has supported the idea that vocabulary acquisition in foreign language teaching is whether learning methods based on inferring the word meaning with the aid of the context lead to better retention than those in which the meaning of a word is "given".

The researcher examines the empirical evidence for the supposed superiority of the meaning-inferred method over the meaning-given method.

1.3. Problem

At the beginning of each term, new university students at Selcuk University take a proficiency exam in order to be exempt from preparatory school program. Unfortunately, most of the students fail. Approximately 2000 preparatory students study English for academic purposes. Preparatory students have only one year to learn English, and the content of the curriculum is very intensive. Meaning of the new vocabulary is generally introduced through mother equivalents in an unplanned way. The vocabulary taught in classrooms is definitely not enough for preparatory students at Selcuk University. Furthermore, students at SOFL (School of Foreign Languages) should have the ability to recognize and retain a great amount of vocabulary in order to be successful in their departments. In order to be able to read authentic materials in English, it is very important for EFL learners at Selcuk University to learn to derive word meanings from context so that they will be more independent as a word learner. Therefore, it is necessary to use deep level processing or more mental effort of the

students in teaching vocabulary. As a result, the implementation of meaning-inferred method at SOFL may help students grow their vocabulary.

1.4. Purpose of the Study and Research Hypotheses

The present study proposes a research question that will be answered by testing hypotheses:

Is there a significant difference between the vocabulary learning performance of the students who recieved teaching regarding meaning-inferred method and meaning-given method?

Hypothesis 1: The students whose teachers use meaning-inferred method will score significantly higher on the post-test than the students whose teachers use meaining – given method.

Hypothesis 2: The students whose teachers use meaning- inferred method will score significantly higher on the retention test than the students whose teachers do not use meaning-given method.

1.5. Significance of the Study

The above given aim of the study appears to prove the thesis, the study may have a contriibution toward vocabulary teaching offered at SOFL and it may lead to research on other skills. Students can be more fluent readers of English materials instead of looking up every unknown word in the dictionary while reading. The instructional goals may be achieved more easily by making use of meaning-inferred method. The study may also suggest new ways of language teaching and learning experience at Selçuk University School of Foreign Languages.

1.6. Scope and Limitations

This study is limited by several conditions:

1) This study is conducted on early pre-intermediate level young adult students at Selçuk University, School of Foreign Languages. The groups were chosen according to their scores in the Placement Test at the beginning of the first

semester. After nearly five months, the students' language levels might have varied. This variation may have affects on the measure.

2) This study only covers the selected forty content vocabulary items such as adjectives, verbs, adverbs. However, these vocabulary items do not include technical terms. In addition, grammatical and phonological aspect of vocabulary is beyond the scope of this study.

3) The other limitation of the study is the number of the students in experimental and control groups. It was because the number of the students in classes which is around seventeen. So, in this study the number of the subjects was about thirty-four. Due to small number of subjects involved in the research, the results will be limited to the subjects under study. A larger group of subjects would help to produce results that are more reliable.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

The importance given to vocabulary instruction in ESL/EFL has varied in accordance with numerous approaches and methods through the history of language learning and teaching. Favoring these different methods at different time periods scholars and language teachers have mainly given priority to grammar and skills like reading and writing. Therefore, vocabulary has either been neglected for the most part, or taken for granted as an underlying aspect of reading skill where new words supposed to be learned indirectly when focusing on other skills.

Through the years different language teaching methods were emerged, but these methods have not given vocabulary knowledge sufficient importance. The Grammar Translation Method required learners to memorize lists of words (Larsen-Freeman,1986).The bilingual word lists were common tools for learning vocabulary by memorizing, it started to lose its primacy with the advent of the Direct Method which emphasized acquisition of language and vocabulary naturally through interaction. Oral communication was viewed as the most important aspect of language learning. So, vocabulary knowledge became more important. However, the vocabulary items taught were simple and familiar. The use of pictures and realia was predominant in this method. Later on, emerging from the needs of the military during the World War II, the Audio Lingual Method came to the fore. Audiolingualism originated from the idea that language learning is a process of habit formation. Vocabulary was introduced through the lines of the dialogue; the number of the vocabulary items was limited to make the drills possible. The major objective of language teaching should be for students to acquire the structural patterns; students would learn vocabulary afterward (Larsen-Freeman, 1986,p.41).

Communicative Language Teaching, on the other hand, is a different method that aims to develop the language learners' fluency in authentic contexts. Even though the knowledge of the structures and vocabulary is considered to be

crucial in the Communicative Approach, still the primary objective was making the students communicate meaningfully by using the target language. The underlying assumption was that words and their meanings did not need to be taught explicitly since, it was claimed, learners will 'pick up' vocabulary through reading or indirectly while engaged in grammatical or communicative activities. In short, lexical learning was seen as taking place automatically or unconsciously, as a cumulative by-product of other linguistic learning (Maiguashca,1993). For instance, a learner who has the most control of the structures and vocabulary is not necessarily regarded as the best communicator (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).As a result, the search for meaningful communication underestimated to a large extent the role of vocabulary in language learning once again.

Similar to communicative approaches, Natural Approach established by Krashen and Terell (1983) values comprehensible and meaningful input, so vocabulary knowledge is considered to be vital for language acquisition.

The development in the area of vocabulary research varied in years. In the late 1970s with the communicative approach, vocabulary was considered important however, the words were not explicitly taught. Starting in the 1980s vocabulary knowledge gained more interest from the researches and various studies were carried out.

In sum, not only the importance of lexical knowledge varied throughout years, but also studies regarding vocabulary learning focused on different areas. With the growing number of research, different definitions for lexical knowledge are suggested by the researchers.

2.2. What is it "to know a word" ?

There has been a lot of different definitions for lexical knowledge. The earliest definition of knowing a word belongs to Cronbach. He discussed generalization, application, breadth, precision and availability as the dimension of knowing a word. Generalization refers to the ability to define a word. Application means the ability to select or recognize situations appropriate to the word. Breadth is the knowledge of multiple meanings. Applying a word correctly to all situations

is precision and using the word in thinking and discourse is availability. However, knowing a word is much more complex than just knowing its definition. Many complex mental operations take place in the mind of the learner from the time they see a word to the time that they are able to use it productively. Knowing the definition of a word may not include that the learner acquires other aspects of it such as written-form, spoken form or register. As can be seen, knowledge of meaning is not the only knowledge necessary to be able to say that a word is learnt fully and can be referred to at any time by the learner.

When the definition of knowing a word is applied in the field of vocabulary learning research, it is soon understood that it is not a convenient way of handling vocabulary learning process since knowing a word is more than just knowing its meaning. Then, the lexicology experts have tried to come up with various categories and degrees of vocabulary knowledge. However, these different categorizations of vocabulary knowledge led to different interpretations in the field "depending on what is intended by knowledge of a word" (Beck & McKeown, 1996, p.808). Therefore, we need to clarify and reach a consensus on the process of vocabulary learning, the concept of 'knowing a word' should be analyzed and defined thoroughly because the study carried out on vocabulary learning can be better interpreted and analyzed with help of the vocabulary knowledge categories the researchers define in their particular studies.

One of the oldest, the most comprehensive and fundemental definition of vocabulary knowledge comes from Richards. It includes eight assumptions:

> Knowing the degree of probability when and where to encounter a given word, and the sorts of words to be found with it, the limitations imposed on it by register, its appropriate syntactic behaviour, its underlying form and deviations, the network of associations it has, its semantic features, and its extended and metaphorical meanings.
>
> (Richards, 1976, p.77- 89)

Another detailed catogorization of vocabulary knowledge is provided by Taylor (1990). He mentioned seven categories in studying L2 vocabulary, most of which are similar to Richard's categories: frequency of occurence, word register, word collocation, word morphology, word semantics, word polysemy and the

relationship of sound to spelling and the knowledge of the equivalent of the word in the mother tongue.

In comparison to Richard's and Taylor's detailed definitions, a generally accepted definition of knowing a word moves from being able to recognize the sense of a word to being able to use it productively (Laufer,1990; Palmberg,1987). Furthermore active/productive and passive/receptive distinction was made by almost all of the models of lexical knowledge. Passive vocabulary is needed for listening and reading, whereas active vocabulary is needed for speaking and writing. Corson (1983) considers active vocabulary as motivated vocabulary and passive vocabulary as unmotivated vocabulary.

The idea that passive lexical knowledge develops before active lexical knowledge is accepted by the researchers. It is also stated that as the number of passive vocabulary increases, the number of active vocabulary also increases. Even though, the learners know the vocabulary items, the free usage of these items will take place later (Laufer and Paribakht,1998). Laufer and Paribakht (1998) found that the learners' passive vocabulary was larger than their controlled active vocabulary.

Even though, there is no consensus in relation to the nature of lexical knowledge, some researchers consider lexical knowledge having a continuum composed of several levels of knowledge. One view suggests that the continuum for knowing a word starts with an unclear familiarity with the word form and end with the ability to use the word correctly (Faerch, Hasstrup & Philipson, 1984). Others, on the other hand, define lexical knowledge in terms of taxonomies i.e. they claim that lexical knowledge has different components. In order for the learners to say they know a word, they have to know the meaning(s) of the word, the written form of the word, the spoken form of the word, the grammatical behaviour of the word, the collocations of the word, the register of the word, the associations of the word, the frequency of the word (Nation,1990). These are known as types of word knowledge, and most or all of them are necessary to be able to use a word in the wide variety of language situations one comes across.

As mentioned by (Read,2000), it is quite difficult and impractical to evaluate each and every aspect of vocabulary knowledge in one study. For instance, being able to write a word does not guarantee being able to pronounce it. Learner's absolute knowledge of each vocabulary item cannot be confined to just one of these categories. Therefore, researchers should make it clear what they mean by vocabulary knowledge.

In this study, the concept of 'knowing a word' refers to: 1-knowing its meaning / L1 equivalent, 2- knowing its written form (spelling).

2.3. The Nature of Vocabulary Acquisition

2.3.1. How Do We Learn Our Native Language?

There is a massive amount of L1 acquisition and L1 vocabulary acquisition research that gives insights into the field of language learning. However, how much of this knowledge can be transferable to an L2 (EFL/ESL) setting is still a vague issue. Firstly, it is necessary to understand the process of L1 vocabulary acquisition to be able to understand the latter. Therefore it would be better to analyze L1 and L2 vocabulary learning processes individually and then make a comparison of them to be able to clarify each process and their relationship.

Children start to learn words from the very first day of their lives and this process of word learning lasts throughout their lives although the rate and the amount of it changes. As Elshout-Mahr & Daalen- Kapteijns (1987, p.53) stated, 'vocabulary learning is a many sided issue. Word meanings are learned in different situations to different degrees of completeness, and with diverse learning outcomes'. Acquiring vocabulary knowledge is more than just getting acquainted with word forms or labels: it also implies becoming familiar with new meanings, concepts and meaning relations of 'known' words. In addition to these attempts to define the process of L1 vocabulary learning in general, answers to questions such as 'How does a child acquire words? and 'What are the conditions to be met to learn words?' have been investigated.

Children acquiring their native language seem to easily learn elements of the core meaning of the words in a kind of "fast mapping" between word and concept, but it may take much longer to come to a refined understanding of all of a word's meaning features (Carey, 1978). Aitchison (1987) summarizes the process of meaning acquisition in L1 children in three basic stages: (1) labeling (attaching a label –word- to a concept), (2) categorization (grouping a number of objects under a particular label), and (3) network building (building connections between related words).

Once learners have acquired the core meaning, they then learn from additional exposure to the target word in context how far the meaning can be extended and where the semantic boundaries are. This is an ongoing process.

Several theories have been proposed in order to explain the issue of lexical acquisition. One of the most popular thories is the *semantic feature hypothesis* which bases on cognitive development and categorization. Within this theory, the direction of vocabulary learning is from superordinate categories-the most general semantic features of a word- to subordinate categories –the most specific semantic features of a word-.In general, the assumption is that: 'words will be overextended at the onset and then eventually narrowed down until they are correct'' (Ingram,1989,p.399).

Another influential theory is *functional core concept theory*. Unlike semantic feature hypothesis, this theory suggests that children come up with a concept and then attach a word to it. It is perhaps most useful to think of core meaning as the common meaning shared by members of a society The fact that people can define words in isolation proves that some meaning information is attached to a word by societal convention that is not dependent on context (Scmitt, 2000, p.27). One theory that has been developed to explain how people deal with flexibility is *prototype theory*. Aitchison (1987) calls the flexibility of meaning 'fuzzy meaning'.The fuzziness becomes particularly noticeable at the boundary between words. If we think about the two words *walk* and *run*, there is a flexibility when the state of walking turn into running. There is a fuzzy boundary. Instead of assuming that concepts are defined by a number of semantic features,

it proposes that the mind uses a prototypical ‘ best example’ of a concept to compare potential members against (Scmitt,2000).In other words, “speakers have a central form of a concept in their minds and the things they see and talk about correspond better or worse with this prototype” (Cook,1991,p.39). Since basic vocabulary items are easier to learn and use, the children learn them first and then learn the superordinate or subordinate level of terms.

2.3.2. What does L1 Vocabulary Acquisition tell us about L2 Acquisition?

A huge amount of research has done on L1 acquisition. Much can be gained by examining these researches for insights into L2 acquisition. However, the question of whether these processes are similar or not, has not been answered fully but it is certain that L2 vocabulary learning is different in some aspects. Firstly, L2 learners bring to their learning their knowledge of L1, including L1 vocabulary, which may lead to transfer and interference if both L1 and L2 vocabulary are stored together. Secondly, L2 learners are cognitively more mature than L1 learners. L2 learners have already developed categories that allow them to classify the world around them. Thirdly, L2 learners do not have the sufficient amount of exposure and opportunity to experience language input in terms of both quantity and quality, and this may be regarded as a constraint. Learner’s motivation and age also affect the second language vocabulary acquisition. Nation summarizes the situation as one in which there are still many more questions than answers:

> There isn’t an overall theory of how vocabulary is acquired. Our knowledge has mainly been built up from fragmentary studies, and at the moment we have only the broadest idea of how acquisition might ocur. We certainly have no knowledge of the acquisition stages that particular words might move through. Additionally, we don’t know how the learning of some words affects how other words are learned. There are still whole areas which are completely unknown.
>
> (Nation,1995,p.5)

Because we cannot physically see or track word in the mental lexicon, all research evidence is indirect. In the end, we have not got a certain understanding of the vocabulary acquisition process until neurologists are finally able to

physically trace words in the brain. Although there is not a global theory that can explain vocabulary acquisition, models have been proposed to describe the mechanics of acquisiton such as how meaning is learned. Much of this has been with L1 learners, but it can be applied to L2 learning. Numerous studies have also focused on L2 vocabulary learning itself. Some important features of vocabulary acquisition have been revealed through these researches on vocabulary acquisition.

One of those features is the incremental nature of vocabulary knowledge. Incremental nature of vocabulary acquisition refers to the gradual learning of different knowledge types that belong to a single word. Schmitt (2000) stresses that these different types of knowledge cannot be learned entirely at one time. Moreover, some knowledge types are mastered before others. For example, in a study by Schmitt (2000), learners first learned a word's spelling, then the meaning of the word. He also found that within a single type of word knowledge, there was also a continuum. In this continuum, the learners first learned a word's basic meaning and then learned other meanings of the word. One conclusion that can be drawn from Schmitt's study is that complete mastery of a word takes time because of the incremental nature of vocabulary acqusition.

Another aspect of vocabulary acqusition is the distinction between receptive and productive vocabulary. The term *receptive vocabulary* refers to the type of vocabulary knowledge that lets learners recognize and understand a word when encountered in a written or audio piece of language, whereas *productive vocabulary* refers to the type of vocabulary knowledge that enables larners to produce a word (Melka, 2001). According to Schmitt, if we look at lexical knowledge from a word –knowledge standpoint, it is clear that all knowledge does not have to be either receptively or productively known at the same time. For example, it is easy to find students who can produce a word orally without any problems but cannot read it receptively. Likewise, students can often give the meaning(s) of a word in isolation but cannot use it in context for lack of productive collocation and register knowledge.

Another important feature of vocabulary acquisition is its retention fragility. When there is learning, there is also forgetting what has been learned. Forgetting is a natural part of learning. According to several researches, in second language vocabulary lexical knowledge is more likely to be forgotten than grammatical knowledge (Cohen as cited in Craik; Craik, 2002). Schmitt stated that the fragility of vocabulary knowledge is due to the fact that "vocabulary is made up individual units rather than a series of rules" (2000). Forgetting the learned vocabulary can mean losing all the effort put into learning them. Thus, once the vocabulary items are partly or completely learned, they should be recycled systematically to foster successful retention. If we take them together, this indicates that word learning is a complicated but gradual process.

2.4. Role of Memory in Vocabulary Acquisition

Memory has a key role in language learning. Ellis (1996) suggests that short-term memory capacity is one of the best predictors of both eventual vocabulary and grammar achievement. We all know that learners forget material as well. This is quite natural. When one does not use a second language for a long time or stops a course of language study, forgetting can also occur even if a word is relatively well known. This is called *attrition.* In general lexical knowledge is more likely to be forgotten than other linguistic aspects, such as phonology or grammar. This is logical because vocabulary is made up of individual units rather than a series of rules. Receptive knowledge does not attrite dramatically, when it does, it is usually peripheral words, such as low-frequency noncognates, that are affected (Weltens & Grendel, 1993). On the other hand, productive knowledge is more likely to be forgotten (Cohen, 1989; Olhstein, 1989). The rate of attrition seems to be independent of proficiency levels; it means learners who know more will lose about the same amount of knowledge as those who learn less. Overall, Weltens, Van Els, and Schils (1989) found that most of the attrition for the subjects in their study occured within the first two years and then leveled off.

When learning new information, most forgetting occurs soon after the end of the learning session. After that major loss, the rate of forgetting decreases. From this point of view, it is critical to have a review session soon after the

learning session, but it will be less essential as the time goes on. The principle of *expanding rehearsal* was derived from this insight. It suggests that learners review new material soon after the initial meeting and then at gradually increasing intervals. One explicit memory schedule proposes reviews 5- 10 minutes after the end of the study period, 24 hours later, 1 week later, 1 month later, and finally 6 months later (Russel,1979,p.149). In this way forgetting is minimized. This means that words and phrases need to be recycled often to cement them in memory.

According to psychological theory, our memory consists of three independent systems. They differ in function and duration. They are*; sensory store*, *short term memory, long term memory*. The *sensory memory* keeps an exact copy of what is seen or heard (visual and auditory). It only lasts for only a few seconds, some believe it last only 300 milliseconds. It has unlimited capacity. After entering sensory memory, a limited amount of information is transferred into short-term memory. If the user can categorize and interpret the information, the information is passed onto the short term memory where it can be processed and then, possibly, stored in the long-term memory. *Long-term memory* retains information for use in anything but the immediate future. *Short-term memory* is used to store or hold information while it is being processed. It has the ability to hold information in mind over a brief period of time (15 seconds). However, this can be extended by rehearsal, for example, by constantly repeating a phone number so that it is not forgotten. In 1956 American psychologist George Miller reviewed many experiments on memory span and concluded that people could hold an average of seven items in short-term memory. Short-term memory also known working memory is critical for mental work or thinking. Short-term memory is fast and adaptive but has a small storage capacity. Long-term memory has an almost unlimited storage capacity but is relatively slow. The object of vocabulary learning is to transfer the lexical information from the short-term memory, where it resides during the process of manipulating language, to the more permanent long-term memory.

The main way of doing this is by finding some preexisting information in the long-term memory to “attach” the new information to. The information in the

long- term memory is stored, but not immediately accessible, unlike the information in the short-term memory. When we need information that is stored in the long-term memory we first have to locate it and retrieve it. There are different ways of searching for information in the long-term memory. One is through imaging techniques such as the Keyword Approach. Another is through grouping the new word with already known words that are similar in some respect. The new word can be placed with words with a similar meaning (prank-trick, joke, jest),a similar sound structure (prank-tank, sank, rank) or other grouping parameter the most common must be meaning similarity. Because the "old" words are already fixed in the mind, relating the new words to them provides a "hook" to remember them by so they will not be forgotten. New words that do not have this connection are much likely to be forgotten.

2.4.1. Vocabulary Retention

Most language learners think that once they have studied particular words, they have completed learning those words. They do not have any attempt yo remember and use it in other contexts. However, as the time passes, they may forget some of the learned words either partially or completely. There are numerous different vocabulary learning strategies to help the learners to store the vocabulary in their long-term memory. Commonly used vocabulary learning strategies are simple memorization, repetition and taking notes. Learners often favor "shallow" strategies, even though they may be less effective than "deeper" ones. Indeed researches show that "deeper" vocabulary learning strategies, such as forming associations (Cohen &Aphek,1981) and using the Keyword Method (Hulstijn,1997) have been shown to enhance retention better than rote memorization. If we make a generalization, shallower activities may be more suitable for beginners, whereas intermediate or advanced learners can benefit from deeper activities.

2.4.2. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Scmitt (1997: pp.199-227) states that vocabulary learning strategies increased to a great number and with one list containing fifty-eight different strategies. It is quite useless unless organized in some way, so it is organized in two ways. First, the list is divided into two major classes: 1-strategies that ae useful for the initial discovery of a word's meaning, and 2- those useful for remembering that word once it has been introduced. This means that the different processes are needed to work out a new word's meaning and usage, and consolidating it in memory for future use. Second, the strategies are classified into five groupings.

The first contains strategies used by an individual when faced with discovering a new word's meaning without help of another person's expertise (*determination strategies*). This can be done through guessing from one's structural knowledge of a language, guessing from an L1 cognate, guessing from context, or using reference materials. *Social strategies* use interaction with other people to improve language learning. One can ask teachers or classmates for information about a new word and they can answer in a number of ways (synonyms, translations, etc.).

Memory strategies traditionally known as mnemonics involve relating the word to be retained with some previously learned knowledge, using some imagery, or grouping.

Mnemonic Techniques are as follow:

"Mnemonic" means "aiding memory." Often referred to as "memory trick," mnemonics work by developing a retrieval plan during encoding so that a word can be recalled through verbal and visual clues. Mnemonics help learners because they aid the integration of new material into existing cognitive structures and because they provide retrieval clues. Learners need to experiment with different kinds of mnemonic techniques to see which ones work best for them.

Linguistic Mnemonics

The Peg Method

This method allows unrelated items, such as words in a word list, to be recalled by linking them with a set of memorized "pegs" or "hooks." Learners associate words to be memorized with these "pegs" to form composite images.

The Keyword Method

It calls for the establishment of an an acoustic and image link between an L2 word to be learned and a word in L1 that sounds similar. For instance, the German word Ei "egg" can be learned by first establishing an acoustic link with the English word eye and then conjuring up an interactive image of an egg with an eye in the middle of it. Similarly, the Spanish word pan "bread" can be learned by imagining a loaf of bread in a pan.

Spatial Mnemonics

The Loci Method

To use this ancient technique, one imagines a familiar location, such as a room. Then one mentally places the first item to be remembered in the first location, the second item in the second location, and so forth. To recall the items, one takes an imaginary walk along the landmarks in the room and retrieves the items that were "put" there.

Spatial Grouping

Rearrange words on a page to form different kinds of patterns such as triangles, squares, columns, and so on.

The Finger Method

Associate each item to be learned with a finger.

Visual Mnemonics

Pictures

Pair pictures with words you need to learn. Studies have shown that this is an effective and efficient way to memorize vocabulary.

Visualization

Instead of using real pictures, visualize a word you need to remember. This is much more effective than merely repeating the word.

Physical Mnemonics

Physically enacting the information in a word or a sentence results in better recall than simple repetition. Several teaching techniques are based on physical reenactment. Among them Total Physical Response (Ahser 1965, 1966), use of melodrama by Rassias (1968, 1972), and the Silent Way (Gattegno, 1972).

Grouping

It is well known in psychology that if the material to be memorized is organized in some fashion, learners can use this organization to their benefit. Group the words you need to remember by color, size, function, likes/dislikes, good/bad, or any other feature that makes sense to you.

Elaborating

Relate new words to others. For example, if you need to remember the foreign language word for cat think of word for dog. Alternatively, you can think of the superordinate term animal.

The Narrative Chain

Link words in a list together into a sentence or a story. By using the words and associating them with each other you create a firmer connection between the new words and those already stored in your memory.

Semantic Mapping

Arrange the words into a diagram with the a key word at the top and related words as branches linked to the the key word and to each other. You can practice this technique in a group.

Self-Assessment

Practicing retrieval can improve long-term recall. In addition, you can find out what percentage of the material you retained with your study method and

timing. If you are not satisfied with the results, try new techniques and/or spend more time on task.

Personalization

No two people in the world have the same vocabulary because everybody has different interests and experiences. In addition to the vocabulary contained in your learning materials, you should make an effort to learn words in the foreign language that reflect your own interests and expertise.

Since you need to learn many thousands of words to become a competent speaker of the language you are studying, it is a good idea to develop a plan for learning new words every day besides those included in your lessons. If you are a beginner, set up a schedule for learning numbers one day, colors the other, foods the third, and so o. You can also supplement the vocabulary in your textbook. For instance, if it gives the word for cold, learn the word for hot as well.

Review

Even though your self-test revealed perfect recall, chances are that by the next day you will have forgotten part of the material. Unlike computers, human beings tend to forget over time. Therefore, one of the keys to successful language study is regular reviewing of previously learned material.

Spaced Practice

Spaced practice leads to better long-term recall. Long periods of study are less helpful for long-term retention to foreign language learners than shorter but more frequent study periods. (Schmitt,2000).Spaced repetition was developed on the basis of how human memory works. According to studies on memory (Baddeley,1982; Bahrick et al,1993),dividing learning practice time equally over a period, leads to better learning and remembering. The studies suggest extending the space between successive repetitions gradually since practicing items massively at one time does not result in better learning and retention.

Real-Life Practice

When material learned in one context is retrieved in another, memory performance tends to suffer. Military training, therefore, always includes practice under conditions that simulate those in the battle field. Language skills learned in the highly familiar and safe cocoon of the classroom tend to disintegrate in the more stressful real-life communication conditions. Participation in real-life communicative situations during language training is a must The learners should seek out as many opportunities for real-life practice as they can possibly find.

It is worth noting that memory strategies generally involve the kind of elaborative mental processing that facilitates long-term retention. This takes time, but the time expended will be well spent if used on important words that really need to be learned, such as high-frequency vocabulary and technical words essential in a particular learner's field of study.

Cognitive strategies exhibit the common function of " manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learner" (Oxford,1990, p.43).They are similar to memory strategies, but are not focused so specifically on manipulative mental processing; they include repetition and using mechanical means to study vocabulary, including the keeping of vocabulary notebooks.

Finally, *Metacognitive strategies involve a consci*ous overview of the learning process and making decisions about planning, monitoring, or evaluating the best ways to study. It includes deciding which words are worth studying and which are not, as well as persevering with the words one chooses to learn.

In sum, it would be possible to suggest the statements below to the learners:

* Read more books and magazines to develop a wider vocabulary. Use context clues and reread to discover the meanings of unknown words.

* Don't interrupt your reading to check the meanings of all new words.

* Refer to the glossary of the text to clarify the meaning.

* Use sticky notes to indicate a few words to check in the dictionary or glossary after reading. Keep a lightweight dictionary to carry with you.

* Use prefixes, suffixes, and roots to expand the meaning of new words.

* Say the word aloud until you are comfortable with it.

* Make a sketch to help remember the word or try to visualize it. Create a personal association to help remember the word.

* Make a list of synonyms for a new word to expand the meaning. “Hook” the new word to a word you already know.

* Set a goal to learn a new word everyday. Use a small stack of word cards to write down each word and carry the stack with you so you can look at the words several times everyday.

* Use your new words in conversation.

* For material of a technical nature, exchange words and phrases that are troublesome with another person and discuss the text with others.

2.5. Incidental and explicit learning of vocabulary

2.5.1. Studies on Incidental versus Intentional Vocabulary Learning in L2

Explicit and incidental learning are the two approaches to vocabulary acquisition. Explicit learning focuses attention directly on the information to be learned, which helps for the acquisition the most. But it is also time consuming, it would be too laborious to learn a great sum of lexicon. Incidental vocabulary learning can occur when one is learning the vocabulary as the by-product of an activity so it gives a double benefit for time expended although it is slower and gradual.

In general, retention rates under incidental learning conditions are extremely low (Swanborn and De Glopper,1999), due to frequency of occurence, presence or absence of a cue, relevance of the target word. Retention rates under intentional learning conditions are much higher than under incidental conditions.

For example, in an experiment conducted by Hulstjin (1992) native speakers of Dutch an expository text of 907 words, containing 12 unfamiliar pseudo-words. Each pseudo-word occured only once and supplied with an L2 marginal cue as to its meaning. Half of the participants (N=24) performed the reading task under incidental learning conditions. They were instructed to read the text carefully and prepare for answering some reading comprehension questions, which were to be given after reading, without the text being available. The other half of the participants (N=28) performed the same task but under intentional conditions, that is, they were informed in advance that there would be a vocabulary retention task after completion of their reading task. The average retention ratios of participants in incidental and intentional groups were 4 percent and 53 percent respectively on the immediate post-test in which all target 12 words were tested in isolation, and 43 percent and 73 percent on a subsequent post-test in which all12 target words were tested in their original context. In a similar study, Mondria and Wit-de Boer (1991) asked Dutch high school students to learn eight French content words, which were presented in sentence contexts of varying strength along with their L1 translation. The mean retention score under this form of intentional learning was 65 percent.

The fact that incidental vocabulary acquisition takes place in second language learning is generally acknowledged among researchers. Most scholars agree that except for the first few thousand most common words, L2 vocabulary is predominantly acquired incidentally (Huckin & Coady 1999). However, as for an exact definition and characterizition of the processes and mechanisims involved in this phenomenon, many questions remain unsettled.

As it is mentioned before, vocabulary is learned incrementally and this means that lexical acquisition requires multiple exposures to a word. This is certainly true for incidental learning, as the chances of learning and retaining a word from one exposure when reading are only about 5% -14% (Nagy,1997,p.74;cited in Schmitt,2000). Other studies suggest that it requires five to sixteen or more repetitions for a word to be learned (Nation,1990,p.45). If recycling is neglected, many known words will be forgotten. Generally, this

recycling occurs naturally as more frequent words appear repeatedly in texts and conversations but this repetition does not happen for less frequent words, so teachers should try to find ways to support learner input to offset this. Therefore extensive reading seems to be one effective method.

For explicit learning, recycling has to be consciously built into any study program. Learning activities need to be designed to require multiple manupilations of a word, such as in vocabulary notebooks in which students have to go back and add aditional information about the words (Schmitt & Schmitt,1995). Understanding how memory works can help us design programs that give maximum benefit from revision time spent.

L2 learners benefit from a complementary combination of explicit teaching and incidental learning. Explicit teaching can supply valuable first introductions to a word, but not all lexical aspects can be covered during these studies. The varied contexts in which learners come across the word during later incidental meetings can lead to broader understanding of its collocations and additional meaning senses. Additionally, explicit teaching is essential for the most frequent words of any L2, because they are indispensable for language use. The learning of these basic words cannot be left by chance, but should be taught as quickly as possible, because they open the door to further learning (Schmitt,2000,p.137). Less frequent words, on the other hand, may be best learned by reading extensively, because there is not enough time to learn them all through conscious study. Thus, explicit teaching and incidental learning complement each other well, with each being necessary for an effective vocabulary program.

Therefore, it is worth to add a vocabulary learning strategies component to the vocabulary program. The teacher cannot teach all the words students need. Students will eventually need to effectively control their own vocabulary learning. It seems reasonable to introduce them to a variety of strategies and let them decide which ones are rigt for them.

2.6. The Importance of Reading for Vocabulary Growth

Reading is an important part of all vocabulary programs. It's the most elementary part of the programs. There is a plenty of evidence that learners can acquire vocabulary from reading only. For intermediate and advanced learners with vocabularies above 3,000 or so words, reading offers an exposure to all remaining words. Even beginning students with a limited vocabulary can benefit from reading by accessing *graded readers*- books written with a controlled vocabulary and limited range of grammatical structures-..Many words can be learned incidentally through verbal exposure, but spoken discourse is associated with more frequent words and lower less frequent words.Written discourse, on the other hand, tends to use a wide variety of vocabulary and it makes a beter resource to acquire a broader range of words. Vocabulary learning can be enhanced by making certain words salient, such as by glossing them clearly in book margins (Hulstijn, 1992). But, the important thing is extensive reading for the vocabulary growth. Advanced students can use authentic texts but for beginning students, graded readers give the best access to a particular input. Nation believes that graded reades are an effective resource especially as they provide the following benefits: they are an important means of vocabulary expansion, they provide opportunities to practice guessing from context and dictionary skills in a suportive environment in which most words are already known, and partially known words are repeatedly met so that they can be consolidated.

For intermediate students who are on the threshold of reading authentic texts, *narrow reading* may be appropriate. The idea is to read numerous authentic texts, but all on the same topic. Reading on one subject means that much of the topic-specific vocabulary will be repeated throughout the course of reading, which both makes the reading easier and gives the reader a beter chance of learning this recurring vocabulary. One example of this approach is reading daily newspaper account of an ongoing story. Hwang and Nation (1989) report that 19% of stories in international, domestic, and sports sections of the newspapers they looked at were on a recurring topic. Narrow reading can also accelerate access into authentic materials but most of the words in any text need to be known before it

can be read. 95% of known words in the text is a reasonable figure to cope with this authentic reading (Laufer,1988). The percentage of text known also affects the ability to guess an unknown word's meaning from context (also called inferencing from context). Guessing a new word's meaning from context is a key vocabulary learning skill, and Nation identifies it as one of the principal strategies for handling low-frequency vocabulary.

2.7. Main Approaches and Methods in Vocabulary Teaching

2.7.1 Vocabulary teaching methodologies through the ages

Records of second language learning extend back at least to the second century B.C., where Roman children studied Greek. In early schools, students learned to read by first mastering the alphabet, then progressing through syllables, words, and connected discourse. Some of the texts gave students lexical help by providing vocabulary that was either alphabetized or grouped under various topic areas (Bowen, Madsen & Hilferty,1985). As the art of rhetoric was highly prized, and would have been impossible without a highly developed vocabulary, we can assume that lexis was considered important at this point of time.

Later, in the medieval period, the study of grammar became predominant when the students studied Latin. Language instruction had a grammatical focus during the Renaissance. In 1611 William of Bath wrote a text that concentrated on vocabulary acquisition through contextualized presentation, presenting 1,200 that exemplified common Latin vocabulary. Scholars such as William and Comenius attempted to raise the status of vocabulary, while promoting translation as a means of directly using the target language, getting away from rote memorization, and avoiding such a strong grammar focus.

The eighteenth and nineteenth centuries brought the Age of Reason where people believed that there were natural laws and these laws could be derived from logic. Language was no different. Latin was supposed as the language least corrupted by human use. So, many grammars were written to purify English based on Latin models. Robert Lowth's *A Short Introduction to English Grammar (1762)* was one of the most influental prescriptive grammars.

Attempts were also made to standardize vocabulary. Then, the dictionaries were produced. The first was Robert Cawdrey's *A Table Alphabetical (1604).* Many others followed until Samuel Johnson brought out his *Dictionary of the English Language* in 1755, which soon became the standard reference. The main language teaching methodology from the beginning of the nineteenth century was *Grammar Translation Method* which has a list of vocabulary items, and some practice examples to translate from L1 into L2 or vice versa. The main criterion for vocabulary selection was often its ability to illustrate a grammar rule (Zimmerman,1997). Students were expected to learn the necessary vocabulary themselves through bilingual word lists, which made the bilingual dictionary an important reference tool.

In the early decades of the 20th century, a great deal of importance was given to vocabulary teaching. In addition, several researches were carried out on the role of vocabulary. Richards and Rodgers explains the importance of these attempts as follows:

> In the 1920s and 1930s several large-scale investigations of foreign language vocabulary were undertaken. The impetus for this research came from two quarters. First, there was a general consensus among language specialists, such as Palmer, that vocabulary was one of the most important aspects of foreign language learning. A second influence was the increased emphasis on reading skills as the goal of foreign language study in some countries. ….Vocabulary was seen as an essential component of reading proficiency.
>
> (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 32)

These researches finally culminated in the appearance of Michael West's *A General Service List* in 1936 and Lorge's *The Teacher's Wordbook of 30,000 Words* in 1944. For many years, these word frequency lists were widely used as references to determine the lexical content of teaching materials.

On the other hand, vocabulary teaching declined as ALM (Audio-Lingual Method) was getting popular in language teaching because of the fact that methods such as GTM and Reading Approach had failed to enable students to communicate. While grammar translation approaches to the teaching of language provided a balanced diet of grammar and vocabulary, ALM suggested that

vocabulary teaching should be kept to a minimum and instead, the basic grammatical patterns had to be taught in a habit formation process for the sake of communication. It was believed that if learners were able to internalize these basic patterns, then building a large vocabulary could come later. Indeed, in some books and articles about language teaching, writers gave the impression that it was better not to teach vocabulary at all. For instance, Hockett (1958, cited in Nunan, 1998:117), "one of the most influential structural linguists of the day, went so far as to argue that vocabulary was the easiest aspect of a second language to learn and that it hardly required formal attention in the classroom." According to Allen (1983:3), there are mainly three reasons why vocabulary teaching was neglected especially during the period 1940-1970. First, methodologists thought that grammar should be emphasized more than vocabulary since vocabulary was already being given too much time in language classrooms. Second, they feared that students would make mistakes in sentence constructions if too many words were learned before the basic grammar had been mastered. Third, they supported the idea that word meanings could be learned only through experience and thus they could not be adequately taught in a classroom. As a result, little attention was directed to techniques for vocabulary teaching.

By the 1970s, ALM had become unpopular but its impact on vocabulary teaching lasted until 1980s when there was a renewed interest in lexicology. According to Nunan (1998), this interest partly resulted from the development of communicative approaches to language teaching such as CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) and Natural Approach. Brown (2001:25) states that "today, as we look back at these methods, we can applause them for their innovative flair, for their attempt to arouse the language-teaching world out of its audio-lingual sleep, and for their stimulation of even more research." Proponents of these methods emphasized that in the early stages of learning and using a second language, one is better served by vocabulary than grammar. Therefore, many people began to realise that vocabulary learning is not a simple matter. So, a number of handbooks for teachers, some theory-based vocabulary textbooks for students were published at that time. Although these attempts were not enough,

"in contrast with the amount of attention given to vocabulary over the previous two decades such activity may be considered a veritable flood" (Seal, *cited in Celce- Murcia, Marianne, 1991:297*).

2.7.2 Meaning-inferred method

One of the constantly recurring questions which is the aim of this research with regard to vocabulary acquisition in foreign language teching is whether learning methods based on inferring the word meaning with the aid of the context lead to better retention than those in which the word of a meaning is "given" (e.g., Haastrup, 1991; Mondria, 1996; Schouten-van Parreren, 1985). On the basis of varius studies of L1 and L2 incidental vocabulary acquisition that show that inferring leads to a certain amount of retention (Huckin & Coady, 1999). It is to be expected that, when a learner infers the meaning of a word before memorization, he or she better retains that meaning than when the meaning of the word is "presented" to the learner. The explanation for retention effect of inferencing is probably due to deep processing of the unknown word, as a result of which all kinds of links (elaborations) are formed between the word, its meaning, the context, and the already present knowledge of the learner (Anderson, 1990; Ellis, 1995; Hulstijn, 2001). The construct of task-induced involvement, introduced by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001), is a recent attempt to operationalize the construct of elaboration. According to this construct; the cognitive search and evaluation activities are conducive to retention. Search is defined as the attempt to find the meaning of an unknown L2 word, and evaluation is defined as the comparison of a given word with other words or a comparison of a specific meaning of a word with its other meanings.

Researches show that learners learn best when they are made actively involved in word learning and at different levels of mental activity.If a learner just repeats a word over and over, the processing is quite shallow because it is just maintaining knowledge. Thus writing the word out time and time again will lead to little learning. Learners should be trained to work with words deeply, by working with the collocates, looking at how word is similar but different from other words, by forming 'networks' of word relationships in their minds and not

just keeping words in isolation.Thus, learners must be given chances to notice new words for themselves, and made to hypothesize about the meaning of new words. They shoud also be given chances to experiment with their hypotheses by producing the new word in speech or writing. Only by experimenting they will be able to know, if the learning has been successful.Then, it is advisable to the teachers that it should not be tried to just present the meaning of a word to a learner, but let the learner work it out for herself, with guidance where necessary.

The field of psychology has given us an important concept related to explicit language learning: the more one manipulates, thinks about, and uses mental information, the more likely it is that one will retain that information (depth of processing hypothesis).In the case of vocabulary, the more one engages with a word (deeper processing), the more likely the word will be remembered for later use.An example of an explicit learning technique that requires relatively deep processing is the Keyword Method (Hulstijn,1997). This technique works by combining elements of phonological form and meaning in a mental image. For example, an English speaker wants to remember the Japanese word for sword *(katana*). First, a word with phonological similarity to katana is found in English, let us say, *cat.* Then a mental image is conjured up combining the two, such as samurai cat waving a sword. When the person hears the word *katana,* he or she is reminded of cat, which activates the mental image.This in turn leads to the meaning of "sword". Use of "deep processing" techniques such as the keyword method has been shown to help fix target words in memory.Conversely, techniques that only require shallow processing. Such as repeatedly writing a word on page, do not seem to facilitate retention as well.

A precondition for the successs of the meaning-inferred method is that the meaning of a word is inferred correctly.It is important that the context in which the unknown word occurs is "pregnant"_ that is, it contains sufficient clues for inferring the meaning of the word (Mondria & Wit-de Boer, 1991; Van Parreren, 1967).Although many contexts offer multiple clues to a new word's meaning the undeniable fact is that many context simply do not offer enough. This means that inferencing is not a method that can be used in every situation. Even if

enough clues are present, a single context is rarely enough for a reader to guess the full meaning of a word. Repeated encounters in a variety of contexts is necessary for this (Parry, 1993). In addition, the learners should have sufficient knowledge of the context words and need to be skilled in guessing. Learners need to know what clues to look for and where to find them.. However, all of these preconditions are not always present in practice.Then, it is better that the learners, after inferring, verify the correctness of the inferred meaning with the help of a dictionary (Schouten-van Parreren, 1985).

2.7.3. Guessing From Context

Contextual vocabulary acquisition" (CVA) is the acquisition of a meaning for a word in a text by reasoning from textual clues and prior knowledge, including language knowledge and hypotheses developed from prior encounters with the word, but without external sources of help such as dictionaries or people. It is the task faced by anyone coming upon an unfamiliar word while reading, who has no outside source of help, but who needs to figure out a meaning for the word in order to understand the text being read.

By far the most important vocabulary strategy to teach is to 'guess unknown words from context'. When someone learns her first language, most of the words not taught to her, she picks them up from books, the TV and from conversations. There is not enough time to teach thousands of words one by one in class, so language learners must also know how to guess unknown words successfully. Sadly, many teachers just expect learners to know how to guess well, but there are thousands of learners who could be helped to be more successful at guessing.

The first thing to do when a learner meets a new word is to ignore it. If it is important it will come again. If they meet the word a second time and communication breaks down, then they should try to guess its meaning. Initially, it is important to make them notice its part of speech, and then they should look for clues around the word to help with the meaning. If they have an idea, they should try to substitute their guess into the sentence to see if the meaning of the

sentence is clear. They will soon realize if they have the wrong part of speech, or wrong meaning. Finally, they can use word affix knowledge to confirm the guess.

However, it is vital to understand when teaching learners to guess words from context that they will not be able to guess successfully until they know about 95-98% of the other words in the text. If the text is too difficult, then the large number of unknown words will make successful guessing much less likely. Therefore, it is wise not to start teaching this strategy too early in the learning process, because the learners will not know enough other words to guess successfully. Starting too early leads to too much failure and can reinforce the idea that word learning is difficult.

Anderson and Nagy (1991) argue that words are polysemous, containing groups of related meanings, rather than a single fixed meaning. These meanings have a family resemblance to each other. Consider the word *give* in these different contexts (Anderson & Nagy, 1991):

John gave Frank five dollars.

John gave Mary a kiss.

The doctor gave the child an injection.

The orchestra gave a stunning performance.

All of these involve some sort of transmitting, with a giver, a recipient, and something, tangible or intangible, that is given. But the act of giving is radically different in each case. Each dinstich meaning of the verb "give" can be grasped through guessing strategy.

Contextual guesswork may be defined as making use of the context in which the word appears to derive an idea of its meaning, or in some cases, guess from the word itself, as in words of Latin origin. Knowledge of word formation, e.g. prefixes and suffixes, can also help guide students to discover meaning. Teachers can help students with specific techniques and practice in contextual guesswork, for example, the understanding of discourse markers and identifying the function of the word in the sentence (e.g. verb, adjective, noun).

Of all the reading strategies commonly recognized today in both L1 and L2 reading, arguably the most widely studied and encouraged is the guessing of the meaning of unknown words from context.

The fact that the guessing strategy is often encouraged is not surprising considering the enormous number of words in the English language, the size of the average adult's working vocabulary, and the number of words one needs to know to recognize a reasonably high percentage of words on the average written page. Webster's Third New International Dictionary, for example, contains 460,000 words, and this number does not include plural forms of nouns, different present and past tenses of verbs, neologisms, and some technical terms (Denning and Leben, 1995, p. 3). The average person's actual vocabulary (both passive and active) is much smaller, but still considerable. Although estimates of the size of the working vocabulary of the average English-speaker vary widely, commonly accepted figures over around 20,000 words (Nation, 1990, p. 11). Word frequency counts indicate that this number is more than sufficient for understanding the vocabulary of most non-technical texts, although estimates again vary. According to one, for example, the 25 most common words account for one-third of the words on a page; 135 words takes one up to 50%. After that, the number of words needed increases in lognormal distribution. So, while it takes 2500 words to cover 78% of the page, vocabulary size has to be doubled to 5000 to reach 86%, and doubled again to 10,000 to cover 92% of the text. One would need to know another 200,000 to cover the low frequency words that make up the remaining 8% (Diller 1978). However, Nation's (1990, p. 16) claim that the 2000 most frequently occurring words account for 87% of the average text, and that 2800 will account for 95%, is widely accepted today.

Regardless of the exact size of a native speaker's vocabulary, it is clear that the average second or foreign language learner faces a major challenge in trying to match it. Therefore, it is not surprising that the main reason given for encouraging use of the guessing strategy is the perception that it is the only reasonable way for L2 learners to learn enough words to form suitably large active and passive vocabularies.

Support also comes from experimental word recognition studies with L1 subjects, which have consistently shown that context plays a role in the identification of words in text (Gough, 1984; Underhill and Batt, 1996). Studies of context effects have established, among other things, that words are recognized better in context than out of context, and that simple word association enhances word recognition. For example, experiments show that lexical decision latency for a word is significantly reduced if it is preceded by a semantically related word (such as the word "wife" being displayed, then followed by "husband"). Appropriate sentential context has also been shown to improve the speed of lexical decision. Such results and their implications have been used to support the use of the guessing strategy for L2 readers.

2.8. Context Clues

Context clues are hints about the meaning of an unknown word that are provided in the words, phrases, and sentences that surround the word. Context clues include definitions, restatements, examples, descriptions etc. Because students learn most word meanings indirectly, or from context, it is important that they learn to use context clues effectively.

Contextual analysis refers to an analysis of the surrounding text (context) of an unknown word in an effort to help the reader determine the meaning of the unknown word. When the surrounding text contains a hint or suggestion to help determine the meaning of the unknown word, this hint or suggestion is referred to as a context clue.

One of the more challenging aspects of vocabulary acquisition is using context in order to clarify the meaning of a word or phrase. Quite often when confronted with an unfamiliar word within its context, students will skip over it and continue to read, or they will cease reading altogether. However, teachers can assist students' independent learning styles by showing them how to obtain the meanings of unknown words through recognizing and applying context clues.

The use of contextual clues can be one of the best ways to improve students' reading skills. Unfortunately, students often insist on understanding each

word when reading. Realizing that a text can be understood in a general sense by using contextual clues can go a long way towards helping students cope with increasingly difficult texts. At the same time, the use of contextual clues can also provide a means by which students can rapidly increase their existing vocabulary base.

2.8.1. Types of Context Clues

Context clues are made up of synonyms, definitions, descriptions, and several other kinds of specific information helpful to understanding the meaning of a passage or a particular word. In addition, clues can help strengthen and deepen the meaning of words one already knows. Context clues can help explain how something works, where or when an event takes place, what the purpose or significance of an action is, and on and on.

Some context clues are not so direct as those listed above. They might be examples, results, or general statements rather than direct definitions or descriptions. Still, indirect clues can be very helpful. Finally, one should realize that context clues do not always appear immediately before or after the word he is studying. In a lengthy piece of writing, the clues might not appear until several paragraphs later (or earlier). As an alert reader, one will want to be aware of this so that he can find these clues wherever they appear. The more clues one finds, the closer one can get to the specific meaning of a word and--more importantly--to the overall meaning of the passage itself.

Context clues may be classified into six groups as “Definition Clues”, “Synonym or Comparison Clues”, “Contrast Clues”, “Experience or Inference Clues”, “Example Clues” and “Explanation Clues or Clues from Another Sentence”.

a) Definition Clues:

A definition context clue provides the reader with the definition of the word. The definition may be given as a formal definition of the word or a restatement of the word in simpler terms. In some case, the definition will be set

off inside punctuation. Words such as *means, refers to,* and *is* are often used to introduce the definition.

Examples:

Aspiration, the act of breathing, was introduced in the CPR class. Hyperventilation refers to an increase in the number of breaths taken per minute. A dialect is a form of speech from a specific region. Scratching will exacerbate, or worsen, a wound.

b) Synonym or Comparison Clues:

The writer uses a familiar word with a similar meaning or a synonym to help build meaning for the unknown word.

Examples:

Ballet students appear so lithe; they are so limber and flexible. Many atolls can be found in the Pacific Ocean; similarly, other coral islands are found in the Caribbean Sea. She was aggrieved, or wronged, by the unfair review.

c) Contrast Clues:

The writer uses an antonym or opposite expression to build the meaning of the unknown word. Usually includes words such as *but, however, in contrast, instead, even though, although, etc.*

Examples:

Random selection is a good method for making choices, but systematic selection is easier to process.

She tried to synthesize everything she had read on the subject of twentieth-century art in contrast to separating each element she knew about nineteenth century art. In general, I concur with your opinion about the movie even though I disagree on one or two points.

d) Experience or Inference Clues:

The reader relies on his or her prior knowledge (existing schema) and experiences to infer, or guess, the meaning of the unknown word. The mood and tone of the writing will often aid the reader in inferring the meaning of a word.

Examples:

A fitness routine should include an aerobic exercise; running or fast walking are good choices.

Rachel's amazement was clear to all when she opened the door and everyone yelled "Happy Birthday." It is more healthful to lose weight gradually than to try to lose too much too fast.

e) Example Clues:

An example or illustration of the word is used to illustrate the unknown word's meaning. Example clues require more advanced reasoning skills. The reader should rely on back ground knowledge (existing schema) to help arrive at a meaning for the unknown word.

Examples:

The movie was packed with morbid scenes such as the mother's death, the father's suicide, and the crippling of the young girl. Luis must be very affluent. He wears expensive clothes and jewelry, drives a Rolls-Royce convertible, and owns a $1,750,000 house in Beverly Hills. I like a variety of condiments, such as mustard, onions, and relish, on hot dogs.

f) Explanation Clues or Clues from Another Sentence:

In this type of clue, information in another sentence provides hints to help the reader understand the unknown word. The unknown word is usually explained through the use of simpler words. The explanation may be presented before the word is given. Explanations are commonly used to help build definitions for concepts and abstract terms that cannot be easily defined in a short sentence.

Examples:

The chrome is beginning to corrode. It shows signs of pitting and being eaten away gradually. It was a martial parade, signs of the military were everywhere. Everyone was in uniform; guns, cannons, and tanks were on display; and jet fighters flew overhead.

It must be admitted that guessing procedure is elaborate and may be time-consuming. But, as learners become more proficient with it, they will learn to quickly skip steps that are not pertinent to a particular context, and the other steps will become much more automatic. This means that the whole process can be accelerated to the point where it is a viable thing to do while reading.

2.9. Meaning-Given Method

In addition to using contextual cues to guess the meaning of an unfamiliar word, the L2 reader often chooses another strategy: looking the word up in a dictionary. Although in recent years, many researchers, teachers, and textbook authors have encouraged students to guess, to use inference as the strategy of first choice, this advice appears to be based more on conjecture than on empirical findings (Nation, 1990;Coady, 1988).

The advantage of using the dictionary is that the dictionary use aids retention. Grabe and Stoller (1997) describe a successful case study of L2 learning by a highly motivated learner, who used the bilingual dictionary to study vocabulary both intentionally as well as incidentally. The dictionary not only helped the learner get the accurate meanings of words: "the conscious thought involved in deciding whether or not to look up a word was useful for vocabulary retention" (Grabe & Stoller, 1997, p. 112). +

Knight (1994) found that students using the dictionary remembered more word meanings than those who had not. In her study, two groups of students, divided according to their level of verbal ability in Spanish (the FL they were studying) were given Spanish texts in the computer and were asked to read them for a recall test. Half of the students in each group had access to an on-line dictionary and half were told to guess meanings from context. All the students were given as much time as needed for their reading. When they finished reading, they got an unexpected vocabulary test on the new words from the texts. It was found that those who used the dictionary spent more time on their reading. Yet, their results were significantly higher than those who had no access to a dictionary. The students with low verbal ability benefited from the dictionary

more than those with high verbal ability. Knight's study shows that incidental vocabulary learning occurs. Therefore dictionary use should be encouraged, especially for low-level students, who have poorer inferential skills of guessing from context.

Instruction in dictionary use that simply has students look up words and write definitions seldom produces indepth word knowledge (Scott & Nagy, 1997). This is not to say that dictionaries are not important aids to word learning. It means that instruction must show students *how to use* the definitions they find in a dictionary. Effective dictionary instruction includes teacher modeling of how most effectively to look up an unknown word and thinking aloud about how to select which is the most appropriate definition for a particular context (Graves, et al., 2004).

Miller and Gildea (1987) found that children have difficulties using dictionaries to learn vocabulary. When children were given a sentence with an unfamiliar word containing more than one meaning, they usually couldn't decide which meaning from the dictionary was the one intended by the author.As for producing a sentence containing the unfamiliar word learned from the dictionary , learners make serious mistakes. As a result it is a very complex process to learn vocabulary from the dictionary. Firstly, it interrupts the reading process. While you are looking up the unfamiliar words, you have to keep the content of the text in mind. Secondly, you have to evaluate the different definitions based on the context to see which one fits the content best.

There are advantages and drawbacks in learning vocabulary by using dictionaries. The advantage of using dictionary is that the learner can get different meanings of the words. The drawback is that learners have difficulty in interpreting these definitions.

Another way students can learn vocabulary is by using a glossary, provided one is available to them, of course. This is the easiest way to understand the meanings of words as they appear in context, since it does not even demand the effort of searching and then choosing the appropriate meaning out of several

possible ones, which is required by dictionary look-up. But it is doubtful whether using a glossary leads to retention of word meanings in memory. Hulstijn (1992) explains this shortcoming by proposing "a 'mental effort' hypothesis, which predicts that the retention of an inferred word meaning will be higher than the retention of a given word meaning" (p. 113).

Another problem with glosses is that they have to be especially prepared by the teacher or writer for each text, or found in specific textbooks, contrary to the dictionary look-up method, which can be done independently by the students. Moreover, a student who constantly depends on a glossary in order to be able to read a text is not likely to become an independent reader. He or she will always need a text especially prepared for them. In this light, a glossary can be a means or a stage in the learning process, but the skilled use of the dictionary as well as good inferring skills should be the next step.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This study aimed at determining if meaning-inferred method is effective in terms of improving students' vocabulary recognition. Therefore, it examined the difference between a group of students taught vocabulary through meaning-inferred and another group taught vocabulary through meaning-given. In addition, a second purpose was to investigate if meaning-inferred method make vocabulary teaching more memorable.

Accordingly, this research tested the following two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: The students whose teachers use meaning-inferred method will score significantly higher on the post-test than the students whose teachers use meaning-given method.

Hypothesis 2: The students whose teachers use meaning-inferred method will score significantly higher on the retention test than the students whose teachers use meaning-given method.

Consequently, this chapter describes the research design, subjects, materials, and the data collection procedure.

3.2. Research Design

In order to test the hypotheses of the study, an experimental and a control group were formed. Each groups consisted of seventeen students at early pre-intermediate level. Prior to this experiment, a pre-test was administered to both the experimental and the control group in order to determine their passive knowledge of the target vocabulary items. The pre-test included forty vocabulary questions in the form of a multiple choice test with five options.

Treatment materials were implemented in four sessions (one hour=40 minutes a day) on the same day for four consecutive weeks. In each session, the experimental group was studied a text through meaning-inferred method, each of which included ten target vocabulary items. In contrast, control group was

studied the same text with a gloss on the right of the paper, each of which covered the same set of target vocabulary items. It is also worth mentioning that the teaching process was conducted by the same teacher, the researcher herself.

After the teaching process, both groups were given the same pre-test as a post-test. The analysis of the post-test results was used to verify the first hypothesis of this quasi-experimental study. Fifteen days after the post-test, a retention test was carried out in order to test the second hypothesis. Table 1 displays this research design:

Table 1. Experimental Design

	Pre-test	Sessions	Post-test	Retention Test
Experimental Group	- Vocabulary test - 40 vocabulary questions	- Each session: 1 reading text 10 words	- Vocabulary test - 40 vocabulary questions	- Vocabulary test - 40 vocabulary questions
Control Group	- Vocabulary test - 40 vocabulary questions	- Each session: 1 reading text 10 words	- Vocabulary test - 40 vocabulary questions	- Vocabulary test - 40 vocabulary questions

According to this research design, the same vocabulary test was used as the pre-test, post-test and retention test. In addition, the total number of the new vocabulary introduced was forty for each group.

3.3. Subjects

This study was carried out with thirty-four students who were attending intensive Preparatory School Program at Selçuk University, School of Foreign Languages (SOFL). This school is in charge of teaching general English to freshmen for one year before they continue their departments. At the beginning of the term, students take a proficiency exam as a result of which some of the students are exempt from intensive English preparatory program. In contrast, students who fail are classified according to the results of a Placement Test.There are two levels in the preparatory class program, *elementary* and *pre-intermediate*.Students are required to take twenty-five hours of English a week.

Two groups were used in the study, and the groups were classified according to the results of the Placement Test that was administered at the beginning of the 2006-2007 academic year. The study started at the very beginning of the second term. Therefore, the subjects were at early pre-intermediate level after having studied in the first term. A series of *Opportunities* as course book and *Password* for reading and writing published by Longman were studied.

The researcher conducted the study herself as the regular course teacher on prep-class 36-LEVEL-B (experimental group) and prep-class 15-LEVEL-B (control group). The experimental group was comprised of seventeen students: twelve males and five females. Similarly, the control group was comprised of again seventeen students: nine males and eight females. The ages of the students in both groups ranged between 18 and 19, with similar social and educational backgrounds.

3.4. Materials

As seen in Table 1 research design, the materials used in this study were a pre-test, post-test, retention test, four texts for both groups with different studies. Since this was a quasi-experimental research study with two groups (experimental group, control group) and it has two treatment types for each group, a vocabulary test was designed in order to assess the effect of treatment types. The participants took the vocabulary test before and after the treatment sessions as this study had both a within-subject and a between-subject design.

The multiple choice vocabulary test, which was used as pre-test, post-test and retention test throughout the study, involved forty vocabulary questions covering the target vocabulary items (see Appendix A). In addition, the options were provided within the same vocabulary items.

These vocabulary items were selected from the texts according to their high frequency in the book, *Password1, 2 written by Linda Butler*. These books were studied in preparatory classes but the selected texts weren't studied before the experiment. Target word choices have been based on analyses of authentic

language data in various corpora, including data in the Longman Corpus Network, to determine which words are most frequently used and therefore most likely to be needed by students. It is also worth mentioning that multiple choice test type was deliberately chosen since it is more appropriate to test the recognition aspect of vocabulary knowledge.

The materials used with **the experimental group** during the teaching process were four reading texts. These texts were *Slow Food, An Amazing Woman, The Mountain Story* and *Your Memory at Work* from Password 1, and Password 2 published by Longman. The reading text and the activities are presented in Appendices B, C, D, and E. The targeted words were written in bold face so that students were aware of their learning.

To train the students to infer the meanings of unknown words with the aid of the context, a short training session was developed that was given within a single lesson.

The materials used with **the control group** during the teaching process were four reading texts which were the same as the reading texts in experimental group (see Appendices F, G, H, I).The target words were printed in bold face and the meaning of unknown word was presented in the right-hand margin in English. In addition, the students were provided with monolingual dictionaries during reading sessions so that the students could learn the meanings of unknown words immediately. The subjects in the control group were expected to look up the dictionary for the unknown words. Thus, they could comprehend the text and this would aid vocabulary learning.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

As aforementioned, this study aimed to investigate the effects of meaning-inferred method and meaning-given method on vocabulary recognition and retention. In order to test this, two vocabulary teaching techniques were used; guessing the meaning from context with classroom activities and using marginal gloss and monolingual dictionary while reading. Accordingly, an experimental and a control group were formed.

The experiment was carried out at Selçuk University, SOFL in the second term of the 2006-2007 academic year. Prior to the experiment, four reading texts were selected . Within these texts, fifty target vocabulary items were selected and turned into a multiple choice vocabulary test having five options. To ensure the test's reliability, the test was piloted to sixty students at Selçuk University, SOFL. According to the results of the reliability test, the number of questions was reduced to forty. As a result, the vocabulary test involving forty questions were formed and the same test was used as a pre-test, post-test and retention test throughout the study (see Appendix A). As explained before, multiple choice test type was preferred since the study was related to the knowledge of passive vocabulary, so only the recognition aspect was taken into consideration rather than production.

The pre-test was applied by the researcher to the both groups in regular class hours on the first of March. The duration of the pre-test was forty minutes. The subjects were distributed the multiple choice test including the target vocabulary and instructed to mark on the answer sheets. The aim of the pre-test was to determine the subjects' passive knowledge of the target vocabulary items. It also formed baselines for the results of the post-test.

As it shown in Table 1, the teaching process had four sessions for both the experimental and the control group. Each session carried out on the same day along the four consecutive weeks; the first session was carried out on the fourth, the second on the eleventh, the third on the eighteenth and finally the last on the twenty-fifth of March. The duration of each session was 40 minutes. It should also be noted that each sessions covered the same sets of vocabulary items for each groups (see appendix J).

The post-test was administered one day after the conclusion of the teaching process on the twenty-sixth of March. The post-test aimed to verify the first hypothesis of the study. Finally, the retention test was given two weeks after the post-test on the ninth of April. The aim of this test was to test the second hypothesis of the study. As a reminder, both the post-test and the retention test followed the same content and procedure as the pre-test. Consequently, it should

be mentioned that subjects were not informed about the study during either these tests or the teaching process.

3.5.1. The Experimental Group

As aforementioned, the experimental group (prep-class 36) had four sessions throughout the teaching process. In each session, the researcher, as the regular class teacher taught ten target vocabulary items through one reading text.

On the first session, the teacher presented the text *Slow Food* (see Appendix B) in three stages; *pre-reading*, *while-reading*, *post-reading* with reference to Davanellos (1999:14) suggesting that texts are traditionally exploited in three stages, with pre-study activities, while-studying activities, and post-study activities" .

First of all, the teacher distributed the reading text and activity sheet to the students. In pre-reading stage, the teacher asked some warm-up questions about the text. The aim of this part was to create a need and motivation on the side of the students to read the text. It activates the students thinking about the subjects of the reading by drawing on what they already know, eliciting their opinions, and/ or introducing relevant vocabulary.

After the pre-reading stage, while-reading stage started. In this part, the teacher asked the students to read the text silently without dictionaries. Then, students reread while the teacher read aloud or played the audio, as listening while reading could be helpful to students' comprehension and retention. It was also helpful for students to hear the pronunciation of new words. While-reading stage lasted about fifteen minutes.

Starting from the post-reading stage, the teacher also followed the procedure suggested by Seal (cited in Celce- Murcia, Marianne, 1991:299). This procedure focuses on *presentation*, *practice* and *consolidation* of vocabulary. Once students had a general understanding of the reading, it was time to focus on new words. Students were asked to look at the target words which were written in bold faced in the text and circled those that were new to them. Then they reread, noticing the uses of these particular words. From the beginning, they were asked

to examine the context of each unknown word and saw what information the context gave them. They worked on this as a whole class, with the guidance of the instructor. Exercises of various types were used to help students to understand the meanings of the target vocabulary in the reading and in other contexts. The collocation exercises included how words combined with others, given that knowing about possible word combinations was an important aspect of learning new vocabulary.In this way, the teacher could check vocabulary comprehension. In addition, the students had the chance of practising the target vocabulary items which had just been presented. It should be noted that the organization of the fill-in-blank exercise were also different in all sessions for variety and motivation. At the end of the session, the teacher collected the reading activity sheet.

The lesson plan explained above was also applied to the other three reading texts in different sessions. In the second session, the teacher presented the text 'An Amazing Woman' (see Appendix C). In the third session, the text 'The Mountain Story' was presented (see Appendix D). The last session finally ended with the presentation of the text 'Your Memory at Work' (see Appendix E).

3.5.2. The Control Group

As aforementioned, the control group (prep-class 15) also had four sessions throughout the teaching process. In addition, these sessions were carried out on the same dates and period of time as in the experimental group. In other words, both the conditions and the sets of vocabulary items were the same for both groups.

In each session, the researcher, as the regular class teacher in charge of course, taught ten target vocabulary items which were written in bold face through the same reading text. On the first session (see appendix F), the teacher distributed the reading text sheet. First of all, the students should do the reading the first time with the help of the glosses on the right hand margin. This made it possible for the students to see the meaning of the target words as synonyms, antonyms or in definition form. Secondly, the students were provided with monolingual dictionaries. Therefore, the students could immediately start to learn the new

vocabulary without spending a lot of time. Thirdly, students reread while the teacher read aloud or play the audio as studied with the experimental group. No exercises were given for the target vocabulary learning. Finally, at the end of the session, the teacher collected the reading text. The same procedure was also followed in the other sessions as well (see appendices G, H, I).

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of meaning-inferred and meaning-given methods in terms of vocabulary recognition and retention on early pre-intermediate preparatory class students at Selcuk University School of Foreign Languages. Therefore, the study was guided by the following two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: The students whose teachers use meaning-inferred method will score significantly higher on the post-test than the students whose teachers use meaning- given method.

In other words, it was hypothesized that students who were taught the selected forty target language vocabulary items through meaning-inferred method would be more successful in recognizing words when contrasted with the students who were taught the same set of vocabulary through meaning-given method.

Hypothesis 2: The students whose teachers use meaning-inferred method will score significantly higher on the retention test than the students whose teachers use meaning-given method.

In other words, it was to be expected when a learner inferred the meaning of a word before memorization, he or she would better retain that meaning than when the meaning of the word was "presented" to the learner.

In order to test these hypotheses, an experimental and a control group were formed. Thirty -four students, seventeen in the experimental group and seventeen in the control group, participated in the study. The students in the experimental group were taught the target vocabulary through inferring the word meaning with the aid of the context while the control group was taught in which the meaning of a word is "given".

A pre-test, an immediate post-test, and a retention test (two weeks later) were administered to the experimental group and to the control group in order to

measure the performance of both groups on the multiple-choice vocabulary test. The purpose of the pre-test was to investigate the difference in proficiency level between the two groups. After the teaching process, the same pre-test was given as a post-test in order to verify the first hypothesis of the study. Two weeks later, the groups took a retention test (delayed post-test) which aimed to test the second hypothesis.

This chapter presents the analysis of the scores obtained from the tests mentioned above. It includes the data analysis procedure and the statistical analysis of the results.

4.2. Data Analysis Procedure

The first step in data analysis was calculating the number of the correct answers for the pre-test. Since the vocabulary pre-test involved forty questions, each correct answer was given '1' point. Therefore, the maximum score on the researcher-developed pre-test was 40 points. The post-test and the retention test were also graded in the same way since they included the same vocabulary test.

After getting raw scores, the means and standard deviations for both groups on the pre-test, post-test and retention test were calculated. Next, the mean scores of the groups were compared by the application of t-tests. T- test was applied in order to compare the differences within each group. In addition, it was used in order to explore the differences between two groups. All the results were compared at the '0, 05' level of significance. It should be noted that the software used for the data analysis was SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences), version 10.00.

Consequently, the statistical analyses of this study were carried out in three stages; pre-test, post-test, and retention test (delayed post-test).

4.3. Results of the Study

4.3.1. Pre-test

Since the study aimed at testing the students' vocabulary recognition ability, it was necessary to include a vocabulary recognition pre-test to determine whether the experimental and the control groups were equivalent at the beginning of the experiment. A second purpose of the pre-test was to obtain baselines which would be used to compare and evaluate the results of the post-test and retention test.

The pre-test, which consisted of a multiple choice vocabulary test including the target vocabulary items, was administered to the both groups on the same day. The raw pre-test scores of the experimental and the control group were used to calculate the means and the standard deviations of the groups. Table 2 displays the results of this statistical analysis.

Table 2. Independent Samples T-TEST Analysis for Pre-test Scores

GROUPS	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	-t-	-p-
EXPERIMENTAL	17	4.47	3.64	0.32	0.75
CONTROL	17	4.11	4.09		

According to Table 2, the average scores of the experimental group were calculated as 4.47 ± 3.64, the control group as 4.11 ± 4.09. An Independent Samples T-Test analysis of the pre-test for the experimental and control group was computed, the t value being 0.32 at the 0.05 level of significance. This shows that there was no significant difference between the experimental and the control group ($P > 0.05$). As a result, both groups were equal in terms of their vocabulary knowledge prior to the experiment.

4.3.2. Post-test

The aim of the post-test, which was administered to the same groups after the vocabulary teaching process, was to compare the groups' improvement in their passive vocabulary knowledge. First of all, pre-test and post-test results were

compared within both groups using T-Test. The statistical results are presented as follows:

Table 3. **Comparison of the Pre-test with Post-test Results within the Control Group**

THE CONTROL GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	-p-
PRE-TEST	17	4.11	4.09	4.034	0.001
POST-TEST	17	7.47	4.78		

According to Table 3, t value (4.034), computed by the application of T-Test, the t value being 4.034 at the 0.01 level of significance. In other words, the subjects in the control group improved in terms of vocabulary recognition.

Table 4. **Comparison of the Pre-test with Post-test Results within the Experimental Group**

THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	-p-
PRE-TEST	17	4.47	3.64	7.863	0.000
POST-TEST	17	13.64	6.18		

According to Table 4, there was a significant difference within the experimental group as a result of the t value (7.863) at the 0.001 level of significance calculated by T-test. In other words, the experimental group increased their vocabulary knowledge on the post-test as well.

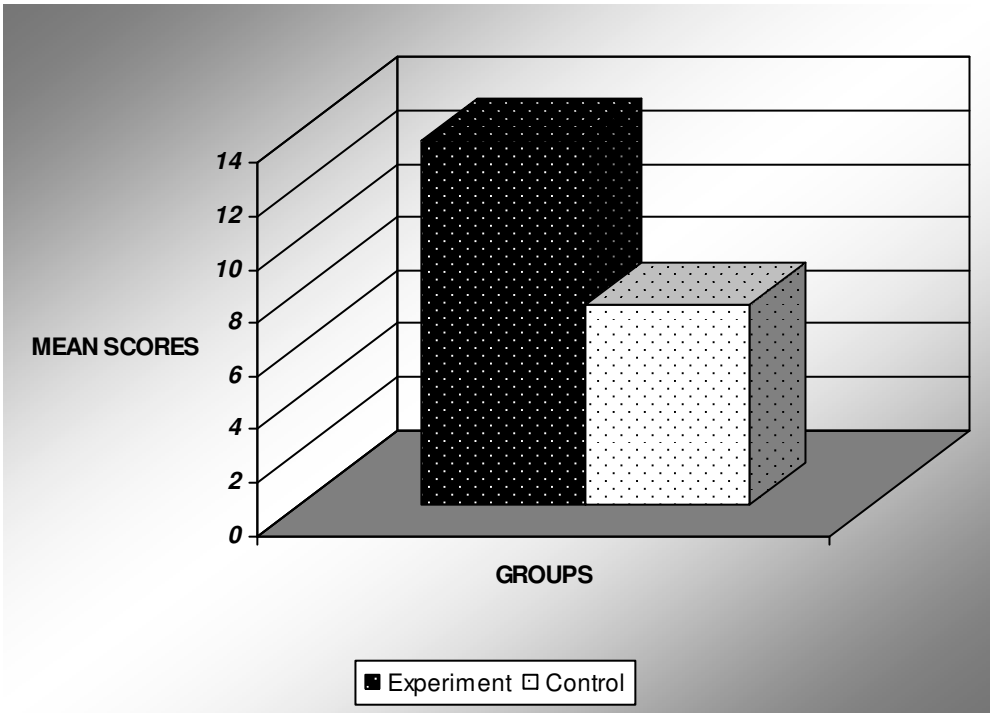
Table 3 and 4 displayed that both the meaning-inferred group and the meaning-given group showed a significant improvement when they were compared within their groups. However, another test was used in order to compare both groups' improvement on the post-test in order to explore the differences between them. Table 5 shows the results.

Table 5. **Comparison of the Experimental and the Control Group for the Post-Test Results**

GROUPS	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	-t-	-p-
EXPERIMENTAL	17	13.64	6.184	3.043	0.008
CONTROL	17	7.47	4.784		

According to Table 5, the average post-test scores of the experimental group were calculated as 13.64 ± 6.18, the control group as 7.47 ± 4.78. Accordingly, the t value was computed as 3.043 at the 0.01 as a result of t-test. This showed that although both groups improved, the experimental group scored significantly higher than the control group. Figure 1 displays the mean post-test scores of both groups.

Figure 1. **Comparison of the Experimental and the Control Group for the Post-test Results**



Consequently, these results failed to reject *Hypothesis 1*: The students whose teachers use meaning-inferred method will score significantly higher on the post-test than the students whose teachers do not use guessing the meaning from the context. Therefore, the first hypothesis of the study was verified.

4.3.3. Retention Test (Delayed Post-test)

Two weeks after the immediate post-test, a retention test (delayed post-test) was administered to the both groups in order to find out the data necessary for testing the second hypothesis of the study. Firstly, pre-test and delayed post-test results were compared within both groups using T-Test. The statistical results are presented as follows:

Table 6. **Comparison of the Pre-test with Retention test Results within** the **Control Group**

THE CONTROL GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	-t-	-p-
PRE-TEST	17	4.11	4.09	3.050	0.008
RETENTION TEST	17	6.47	4.25		

According to Table 6, t value, which was computed as 3.050 at the 0.05 level by the application of Independent Samples t-test, showed a significant difference within the control group. In other words, the subjects in the control group increased their delayed-post test scores when contrasted with their pre-test results.

Table 7. **Comparison of the Pre-test with Retention test Results within the Experimental Group**

THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	-t-	-p-
PRE-TEST	17	4.47	3.64	7.408	0.000
RETENTION TEST	17	11.52	4.73		

According to Table 7, there was a significant difference within the experimental group as a result of the t value (7.408) at the 0.05 level of significance calculated by T-test. In other words, the experimental group also increased their vocabulary knowledge on the delayed post-test scores when compared with their pre-test results.

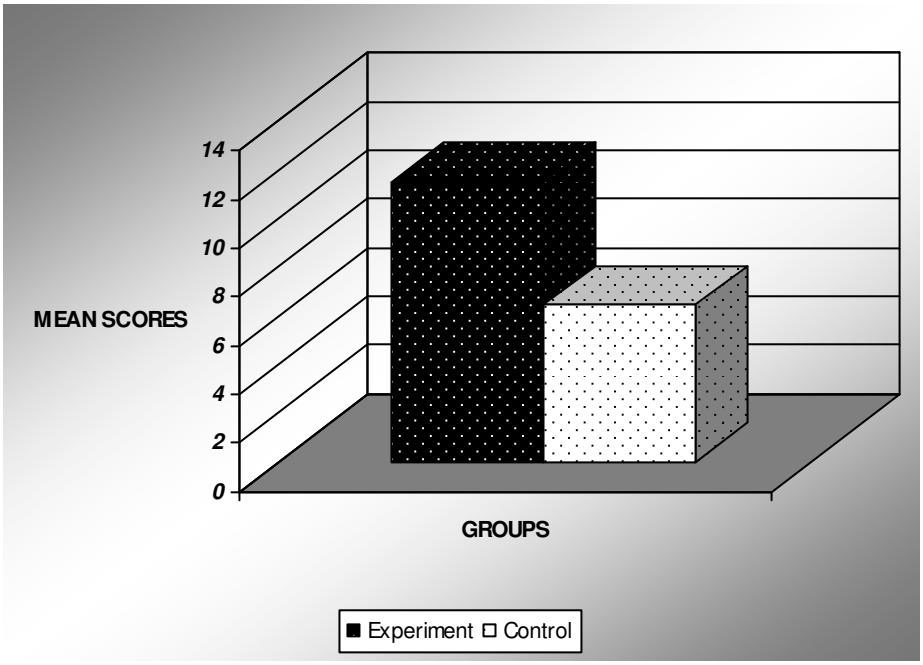
Table 6 and 7 displayed that both the control group and the experiment group showed a significant improvement from the pre-test to the delayed post-test when compared within their groups. However, an Independent Samples T-test was used in order to determine whether both groups maintained their improvement on the post-test when contrasted with their retention test results. Table 8 shows the results.

Table 8. Comparison of the Experimental and the Control Group for the Retention Test Results

GROUPS	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	-t-	-p-
EXPERIMENTAL	17	11.52	4.73	3.450	0.003
CONTROL	17	6.47	4.25		

According to Table 8, the average post-test scores of the experimental group were calculated as 11.52 ± 4.73, the control group as 6.47 ± 4.25. Accordingly, a T- test conducted on the scores of the retention test revealed a significant difference between the two groups (t= 3.450). In other words, the experimental group scored higher than the control group. Figure 2 displays the delayed post-test scores of both groups as follows.

Figure 2. **Comparison of the Experimental and the Control Group for the Delayed Post Test Results**



This showed that the meaning-inferred group was more successful in retaining the target vocabulary items; while both groups practically maintained their scores, the average scores achieved by the experimental group from pre-test to post-test was virtually maintained at the time of retention testing two weeks later.

Accordingly, these results failed to reject *Hypothesis 2*: The students whose teachers use meaning-inferred method will score significantly higher on the retention test than the students whose teachers use meaning-given method. Therefore, the second hypothesis of the study was verified.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

5.1. Introduction

This study compared the effects of using meaning-inferred method and meaning-given method on improving preparatory class young adult students' vocabulary recognition and retention. In this chapter, the findings of the study are summarized and discussed in the light of the research hypotheses presented in chapter I. This is followed by a brief description of the pedagogical implications and suggestions for further studies. Finally, concluding remarks on the findings of the study are presented.

5.2. Discussion

This study aimed at determining whether meaning-inferred or meaning-given method is effective in terms of improving students' vocabulary recognition. Therefore, it examined the difference between a group of students taught vocabulary through guessing from context and another group taught vocabulary through using a gloss and looking up in a dictionary. In addition, a second purpose was to investigate the effectiveness of these two methods on vocabulary retention.

Accordingly, this research tested the following two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: The students whose teachers use meaning-inferred method will score significantly higher on the post-test than the students whose teachers use meaning-given method.

Hypothesis 2: The students whose teachers use meaning-inferred method will score significantly higher on the retention test than the students whose teachers do not use meaning-given method.

According to Table 2, an analysis of the participants' pre-test scores, which was conducted to compare the proficiency levels of both groups, revealed no significant difference between the two groups. Thus, prior to the experiment, both groups were considered equivalent in their command of English vocabulary.

Quantitative results in this study indicate that both groups performed better after instruction. However, the experimental group performed significantly better on the post- and the retention tests than the control group (see Figure 1 and Figure 2). The experimental group showed greater meaningful progress from pre-test (M = 4.47, SD = 3.64) to immediate post-test (M = 13.64, SD = 6.18) and maintained this considerable level of achievement at the time of retention testing two weeks later (M = 11.52, SD = 4.73). This progress signifies a substantial improvement in the experiment group's ability to learn and retain English vocabulary through meaning-inferred method.

To summarize, the performance of subjects in the experimental group was significantly better than that of the control group. Therefore, the findings of the study confirm both of the two hypotheses mentioned above.

This result supports the ideas discussed in review of literature in that inference of the vocabulary offer a great benefit in terms of vocabulary learning/teaching.

First of all, the post-test results clearly reveal that they are effective to expand passive (recognition) vocabulary knowledge. The role of passive vocabulary knowledge is significant in language learning.

In addition, retention test results show that teaching vocabulary in this way help the students remember the words easily. It seems that in vocabulary teaching, retention of words depends on the quality of teaching, the involvement of the learners, or the meaningfulness of the materials.

Finally, as was mentioned before, this research has shown support for the claim that "meaning inferred yields higher retention than "meaning given" (Hulstijn,1992; Mondria & Wit-de Boer ,1991; Watanabe,1992).

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the study showed that the use of inferencing from the context would help the vocabulary development of learners by significantly improving their ability to recognize and retain the target vocabulary items. Therefore, the successful performance of the experiment group warrants wider application of inferencing before looking up dictionaries for the target words during reading. In addition, prospective and experienced EFL teachers, teacher trainers, and curriculum designers can make use of the practical pedagogical implications presented below:

a) First, reading texts should be interesting and motivating. If the text does not attract learners curiosity, they will not be willing to devote the required mental effort to unfamiliar words.

b) In order to develop students' ability to derive word meanings, extensive reading should be encouraged. With extensive reading, students will not need to stop at every new word and look it up in the dictionary.

c) For the unknown word whose meaning can be inferred completely from the context, provide a symbol so that learners know that they should first try to infer the meaning before consulting the gloss or dictionary.

d) Vocabulary teaching should sometimes be a separate activity. In other words, planned vocabulary teaching (vocabulary lessons) should not be neglected.

e) EFL teachers should spend more class time to teaching students useful strategies for deriving unfamiliar word meanings. Instead of spending the whole class time on explaining the meaning and usage of vocabulary, the teachers let students actively interpret the reading material and then derive the meanings of the unfamiliar words from context clues.

d) It is vital to mention that the learners who don't know about 95-98% of the other words in the text will not able to guess successfully so that it is better not start teaching this strategy too early in the learning process.

e) The results suggest that reading_ with or without dictionary _ is a useful way of increasing vocabulary and should be encouraged.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Studies

This study was limited by several conditions; therefore, there are some suggestions for future researches according to these limitations mentioned in Chapter I.

2. This study was conducted on the participants who were attending English Preparatory School Program at university level. Therefore, the effects of meaning inferred methods on vocabulary learning can be explored at high school English classes.

3. The participants were at early pre-intermediate level. Thus, a similar study can be carried out among intermediate or advanced students.

4. The target vocabulary items were comprised of content words. However, further studies can rank the content words hierarchically according to the results of the experiment.

5. This study only focused on the vocabulary recognition. Thus, the effectiveness of meaning-inferred method on vocabulary production can be investigated by future researches.

6. The retention test was taken two weeks later following the treatment. In the future researches, the retention test can be three months or more.

5.5. Conclusion

As we have seen, reading is a critical skill to master while learning a language. However, reading authentic materials is a big challenge for EFL learners.With a limited class time, EFL teachers are not able to teach vocabulary contained in the authentic materials word by word. Then it is better for EFL teachers to teach students high-frequency words first, and then teach strategies to cope with low- frquency words. It should always be remembered that ‘teaching does not cause learning’ so teachers should expect learners to not understand sometimes and they should not expect learners to remember every word they

learn. Then the aim of vocabulary instruction should be to create atmosphere where the learner can learn independently of the teacher. This means that, it should be part of the teachers' agenda to train the learners to become independent. For low frequency words, a teacher should teach students strategies to cope with these words instead of spending class-time on teaching them seperately. These strategies are to guess the word meanings from context, teaching mnemonic techniques, and teaching students to analyze words through their component parts.

Researches show that learners learn best when they are made actively involved in word learning and at different levels of mental activity. Learners should be trained to work with words deeply, by working with collocates, looking at how the word is similar but different from other words, by forming networks of word relationships in their minds and not just keeping words in isolation.It might be useful to teach the strategies to guess word meanings from context begin by asking students to decide the words' part of speech. Then the teacher could ask students to look at the clause and sentence in which the word occurred to find out the relation between sentences. Next, students might guess the meaning of the word and check if the meaning makes sense in the reading passage. Finally, students could use the prefix, root, or suffix to review the guessing. It was also found that adjectives and adverbs are more difficult to guess than verbs and nouns.

The aim of these studies is to make the learner more and more an independent as a learner, not more and more dependent on the teacher's or dictionary's knowledge. Thus, deep processing may mean that these words become part of you as your native language is part of you.

In conclusion, it is hoped that this study has highlighted the importance of using meaning-inferred method in the EFL/ESL classroom to aid the teaching of vocabulary.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

PRE-TEST, POST-TEST AND RETENTION TEST VOCABULARY TEST

1. A good British breakfast always _____ sausages.

a) intends b)includes c) likes d) sees e) expects

2. I checked on the match in the _____ newspaper.

a) general b) government c) local d) tax e) edition

3. When the bus _____ the city center, Tony rang the bell and they got off together.

a) joined b) produced c) destroyed d) reached e) related

4. Jimmy recently _____ fitness center. Now he goes there to exercise.

a) joined b) served c) disappeared d) discussed e) argued

5. David watched her car until it _____ from view.

a) supposed b) accepted c) expected d) disappeared e) agreed

6. It is _____ to find such an interesting group of people in school.

a) stupid b) tier c) destroyed d)rare e) exactly

7. There was a bomb _____ in a mosque in Baghdat last night. Unfortunately many people died.

a) destroy b) fight c) attack d) sharp e) ahead

8. Cats and dogs have always been natural _____.

a) regions b) emotions c) connections d) serious e) enemies

9. Bad dreams are _____ among children.

a) fair b) famous c) common d) weak e) deep

10. Turkey is not yet a _____ of European Union.

a) upset b) connections c) signature d) member e) similar

11. It is not the job of the police to _____ justice. That is the courts job.

a) administer b) investigate c) call d) belong e) invade

12. Some people say she is too old to _____ the country.

a) admire b) adore c) lead d) violence e) tide

13. The director didn't let the officials to make phone calls _____ emergency.

a) instead b) agree c) spend d) among e) except

14. _____ of men and women is a great problem in Turkey.

a) animation b) danger c) segregation d) emergency e) familiarity

15. Violent TV programs _____ children to use guns.

a) encourage b) ambition c) reflect d) long e) mention

16. Many people are not _____ the danger of global warming.

a) understand b) searched c) transformed d) aware of e) complain

17. As a manager, Mr. Smith was _____ in the ways of company politics.

a) paradise b) wise c) arrogant d) messy e) scared

18. A group of businessmen spoke to the students about the _____ of education.

a) opportunity b) precious c) incredible d) nasty e) value

19. I_____ that her hands were shaking. She was very excited.

a) noticed b) belonged c) practised d) transferred e) depended

20. All animals have some capacity to learn from _____.

a) ingenious b) instrument c) experience d) promise e) split

21. Mandy was _____about what happened. She wanted to learn everything.

a) current b) creative c) curious d) illegal e) saviour

22. As a society we need to give more _____to the needs of older people.

a) remind b) attention c) mean d) search e) confess

23.I really _____ the way she does the project.It's fascinating.

a) admire b) dislike c) disappear d) destroy e) produce

24. Mary stared at her _____in the bedroom mirror and she admired herself.

a) meant b) ready c) revision d) reflection e) design

25. Teachers have to improve their knowledge in order to get professional _____.

a) passion b) competence c) ambition d) applicant e) description

26. A: I'm going to Adana tomorrow.

B: What a _____! I'm going up there too.

a) concealed b) passion c) aggressive d) coincidence e) excitement

27. She accused her husband of being a _____.

a) coward b) kind c) elegant d) brave e) active

28. She can _____ wonderful things out of anything. She is really talented.

a) fight b) turn c) create d) feed e) feel

29. We need to _____ on our performance against France. It is very important to stay in UEFA league.

a) invest b) everlasting c) worthwhile d) improve e) intend

30. There has been no _____ to his questions from the government. He's looking forward to hearing from soon.

a) response b) mean c) convince d) pretend e) stand

31. If I hear one more joke about my hair,I shall _____.

a) feel b) notice c) scream d) act e) use

32.Whale songs are _____similar to human songs.

a) remarkably b) imply c) endless d) depressed e) bond

33. The image has remained in my_____ ever since.

a) record b) match c) memory d) reflection e) play

34. Standard letters can be _____ on floppy discs.

a) stored b) compared c) concerned d) expected e) left

35. She was good at hiding her _____but at last she couldn't help crying.

a) firm b) exit c) aggressive d) emotions e) possessions

36. The report _____the drug traffic between borders of the two countries.

a) fights b) concerns c) fits d)tries e) sounds

37. The army _____ the weapons in different areas of the country so that they cannot be destroyed at once.

a) forgives b) apologizes c) acts d) holds e) uses

38. Flooding is in some coastal _____of the Mediterranean during the week.

a) regions b) regular c) sounds d) signs e) soldiers

39.He regularly gives _____on modern English drama.

a) lectures b) screams c) relations d) implies e) hesitates

40. My friend speaks English quite fluently but she's _____on grammar.

a) eager b) encouraged c) pretend d) weak e) stable

Appendix B

READING TEXT AND EXERCISES FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

A) Read the text and try to guess the meaning of the unknown words from the context they are used in. Do not use a dictionary while you are reading.

Slow Food

Italians know and love good food.It's at the heart of their culture.They don't like to rush through meals,either.So,many of them think that fast food is a terrible idea.

In 1986, something happened in Italy. An American fast food restaurant- a Mc Donald's- opened in Rome. Many Italians were surprised and angry. They thought, "This is an **attack** on Italian culture!'' One man, Carlo Petrini, decided to fight back. "Fast food is the **enemy,"** he said. In 1989,Petrini started a group called Slow

Food Today, about 70,000 people belong to the group. They **join** every day.

The **members** of Slow Food have many ideas in **common**. There are a lot of problems with food today, they say. Fast food is one of them. For one thing, it's not healthy food. Also, it's the same everywhere. "That's boring," they say. They want to keep traditional cooking with all its variety.

Slow Food members worry about a second problem, too. Some types of plants and animals are getting to be very **rare**. They **include,** for instance, a kind of tree in Morocco, a special type of Austrian cow, and wild rice in the United States. The world is in danger of losing them completely. Slow Food doesn't want to let them **disappear**, so they 're working with farmers to keep them alive.

Today, it's common to eat foods from far away. Food travels an average distance of 1,300 miles to **reach** dinner tables in the United States. In the past, people got their food from farms and factories in their **local** area. Slow Food members say ,"People should buy more local food. It's fresh, and it's part of our

culture." Fast food is reaching more and more parts of the world. But Slow Food is getting its message to more and more people, too.

B) Check the meaning of the words in the text to recognize the word form, then circle the correct answer:

1) "**attack"** is a/an:

a) adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

2) " **enemy**" is a/an:

a) adjective b)verb c) adverb d) noun

3) " **join"** is a/an:

a) adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

4) "**member**"is a/an:

a) adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

5) "**common**" is a/an:

a) adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

6) "**rare**"is a / an:

a) adjective b) verb c)adverb d) noun

7) "**include**" is a/ an :

a) adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

8) "**disappear**" is a/ an:

a) adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

9) "**reach**" is a/an:

a) adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

10) "**local**" is a/an:

a) adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

C) These sentences are about the reading. Complete them with the given words :

disappear reach include join local

rare common member enemy attack

1) Slow Food is growing. More people _____the group every day.

2) These endangered plants and animals _____ a kind of tree in Morocco and a type of Austrian cow.

3) Slow Food doesn't want these plants and animals to _____ .The group wants them to stay.

4) Food often travels far before it gets to our homes. It may travel many miles to _____your dinner table.

5) Some food doesn't travel far. It comes from the _____ area.

6) Many Italians were surprised and angry. They thought that it is an _____ on Italian culture.

7) Some types of plants and animals are getting to be very _____.They are uncommon.

8) The members of Slow Food have many ideas in _____.They share the same ideas.

9) Carlo Petrini decided to fight back." Fast food is the _____,"he said.

10) The _____ of Slow Food have many ideas in common.

D) Read the definition and look back at the reading to find the target word.

1) a use of force to try to hurt someone or something : _____

2) someone you are fighting in a war; the opposite of friends: _____

3) people who belong to a group, club, or organization: _____

4) uncommon and hard to find :_____

5) to become impossible to see any longer : _____

E) These sentences use target words in new contexts. Complete them with the given words.

reach including joined local disappeared

attack enemy members rare common

1) That store is open every day of the year, _____holidays

2) Daisies are very _____flowers in the nature.

3) Every morning, I listen to the news and the _____weather report on the radio.

4) Snakes will only _____if you disturb them.

5)The plane will be taking off immediately, so we should _____Tokyo on time.

6) He _____the army last month but he has already missed his family a lot.

7) We all went to the festival together, but then he _____and we didn't see him again.

8) Wolves and domestic dogs are _____of the same species.

9) He was sent to prison for being an _____of the country.

10) It's very _____ for her to miss a day at school.

Appendix C

READING TEXT AND EXERCISES FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

An Amazing Woman

A) Read the text and try to guess the meaning of the unknown words from the context they are used in. Do not use a dictionary while you are reading.

Ruth Simmons was born in a very poor family. Today, she's the president of a famous American university. How did she do it? It's an amazing story.

The story begins on a farm in Grapeland, Texas, in 1945.Ruth was born that year. Her parents were farmworkers, and she was the youngest of their twelve children. They weren't able to give the children many things, and Ruth never had any toys. For Christmas, she didn't receive any presents at all **except** a shoebox with an apple, an orange, and some nuts. However, in Grapeland, Ruth wasn't really **aware of** being poor. Then the family moved into the city, to Houston. In the city, being poor was much harder.

Ruth's mother kept the family together. She had no education, "but she was very **wise,**'' Ruth remembers. "She taught us about the real **value** of being a human being, what mattered and what didn't matter''.Ruth's mother didn't have big dreams. She just wanted to see her children grow up. This was not a simple wish. At that time, there was **segregation** in the United States. Life was dangerous for African Americans, especially in the South. Ruth remembers living in fear. " If you looked at someone the wrong way, you could be killed.''

At age five, Ruth fell in love with school. She was a **bright** child, and she was lucky to have some excellent teachers. No one in Ruth's family had much education, but her teachers **encouraged** her to go to collage, and Ruth was brave enough to try. They also gave her money and even a coat to wear.

At first, Ruth studied theater. But what kind of career could she have? She says, "Remember I grew up in the South; I couldn't even go to theaters.''So

she studied languages instead. Later, she married, had two children, and began a career as a collage teacher and **administrator.** Soon people began to **notice** her and respect her abilities In 1995, Ruth became president of Smith Collage, a famous American collage for women. Ruth was the first African American to **lead** a collage like this one. Suddenly, her story was on TV and newspapers all over the country. Six years later, she accepted another challenge.She became the president of Brown University.

Ruth believes in the power of education. "Learning can be the same for a poor farm kid like me as it is for the richest child in the country. It's all about cultivating one's mind, and anybody can do that. So it doesn't matter what colour your skin is, it doesn't matter how much money your father has, it doesn't matter what kind of house you live in. Every learner can **experience** the same thing." As President Simmons will tell you, education can change your life.

B. Check the meaning of the words in the text to recognize the word form, then circle the correct answer:

1) "except" is a/an:
a)adjective b)verb c)adverb d)preposition

2) "aware of" is a/an:
a)adjective b)verb c)adverb d)noun

3) "wise" is a/an:
a) adjective b)verb c)noun d)adverb

4) "value" is a/an:
a)adjective b)verb c)noun d)adverb

5) "segregation" is a/an:
a)adjective b)verb c)noun d)adverb

6) "encourage" is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c)noun d)adverb

7) "administrator" is a/an

a)adjective b) verb c)noun d) adverb

8) "notice" is a/an:

a)adjective b) verb c) noun d)adverb

9) "lead" is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c)noun d)adverb

10) "experience" is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c) noun d)adverb

C)These sentences are about the reading. Complete them with the given words:

Except administrator lead segregation encourage

Aware of wise value notice experience

1) For Christmas, she didn't receive any presents at all _____a shoebox with an apple, an orange, and some nuts.

2) Ruth's mother kept the family together. She had no education, but she was very _____

3) In Grapeland, being poor didn't matter. Ruth wasn't really _____being poor.

4) Her mother taught them about the real _____of things in life.

5)There was _____ in the United States Life was dangerous for black, especially in the South.

6) She studied languages. Later, she married, had two children, and began a career as a collage teacher and _____.

7)Her teachers _____ her to go to collage, and Ruth was brave enough to try.

8) Ruth became president of Smith Collage. She was the first African American to _____ a collage like this one.

9)She was very successful in her career Soon people began to _____ her and respected her work.

10) Every learner can _____the same success. As President Simmons will tell you, education can change your life.

C) These sentences use target words in new contexts. Complete them with the given words:

Aware of wise value notice experience

Except administer lead segregation encouraged

1) I wasn't _____the problem. Please explain it to me.

2)The boys _____the pretty girl and kept staring at her.

3) We all understand the _____ of good education.

4) People often g oto him for advice. He's a very _____ man.

5) You know the way, so you _____ and we'll follow.

6)The Office is open every day _____ Sundays.

7)As I know from my _____ ,being a parent isn't easy.

8) In the Arab Emirates _____ of men and women is vey common. Women can't do anything out of the house.

9) This group teaches students how to _____ First Aid.

10) I want to thank everyone who has _____and supported me.

Appendix D

READING TEXT AND EXERCISES FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

A) Read the text silently and try to guess the meaning of the unknown words from the context they are used in. Do not use a dictionary while you are reading.

THE MOUNTAIN STORY

A son and his father were walking on the mountains. Suddenly, his son falls,hurts himself and screams: "AAAhhhhhhhhhh!!!" to his surprise, he hears the voice repeating,somewhere in the mountain: "AAAhhhhhhhhh!!!!" **Curious**, he screams: "Who are you?" He receives the answer: "Who are you?

Angered at the **response**, he screams: "**Coward**!" He receives the answer: "Coward!" He looks at his father and asks: "What's going on?" The father smiles and says: "My son, pay **attention**." And then he **screams** to the mountain: "I **admire** you!" The voice answers: "I admire you!" Again the man screams: "You are a champion!" The voice answers: "You are a champion!" The boy is surprised, but does not understand. Then the father explains: "People call this ECHO, but really this is LIFE. It gives you back everything you say or do. Our life is a **reflection** of our actions. If you want more love in the world, **create** more love in your heart. If you want more **competenc**e in your team, **improve** your competence. This relationship is true for everything, in all parts of life; Life will give you back everything you have given to it. Your life is not a **coincidence**. It's a reflection of you!

B) Check the usage of the words in the text to recognize the word form, then circle the correct answer.

1) "curious" is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c)adverb d)noun

2) “response” is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c)adverb d)noun

3) “coward” is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c) adverb d)noun

4) “attention” is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c)adverb d)noun

5) “admire” is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c)adverb d)noun

6) “reflection” is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c)adverb d)noun

7) “create” is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c)adverb d)noun

8) “competence” is a/an :

a)adjective b)verb c)adverb d)noun

9) “improve” is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c)adverb d)noun

10) “create” is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c)adverb d)noun

11) “scream” is a/an:

a)adjective b)verb c)adverb d)noun

C) These sentences are about reading. Complete them with the given words.

Screams create improve curious

Coincidence reflection admire coward attention

1) “Your life is not a _____.”

2) He receives the answer: “_____”.

3) “ My son,pay _____!” said his father.

4) Our life is a _____of our actions.

5) If you want more _____ in your team, improve your _____.

6) And then his father screams to the mountain: “I _____you!”

7) Angered at the response, he _____: “Coward!”

8) If you want more love in the world, _____more love in your heart.

9) When he hears the the voice repeating,somewhere in the mountain he is _____.

D) Match the words with their definitions.

1) **coward** _____ a) an image you can see in a mirror, glass or water

2) **attention** _____ b) person who is not at all brave

3) **admire** _____ c) the ability to do sth well

4) **reflection** _____ d) respect, value

5) **competence** _____ e) to happen at the same time as sth else by chance

6) **coincidence** _____ f) listen/ look / think carefully

7) **curious** _____ g) to make a loud noise with your voice

8) **create** _____ h) sth. that is said or written as a reply

9) **scream** _____ ı) want to know about sth.

10) **response** _____ j) invent or design

E) These sentences use target words in new contexts. Complete them with the given words:

Attention coward competence admire scream

Reflection coincidence curious response created improve

1) I am a _____ about going to the dentist.

2) We can say that in the business world using a computer effectively is a basic _____.

3) It was just a _____that we were in Paris at the same time.

4) The _____ of the moon on the surface of the lake was wonderful!

5) If you pay more _____ in class, you can actually learn the subject!

6) You have the best garden in this city.People _____ your garden.

7) Children are naturally _____ about the world around them.

8) Some people believe that the universe was _____by a big explosion.

9) If you want to _____ your speaking English ,try to speak to tourists.

10) Carl made no _____ and carried on with his meal.

11) The police car approached, its siren was _____.

Appendix E

READING TEXT AND EXERCISES FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

A) Read the text silently and try to guess the meaning of the unknown words from the context they are used in. Do not use a dictionary while you are reading.

YOUR MEMORY AT WORK

You have two types of **memory**: short-term memory and long- term memory. Things you see or hear first enter your short-term memory. Very little of this information passes on into your long-term memory. Does this mean you have a bad memory? Not at all.

Your short-term memory has a certain job. Its job is to **store** information for a few seconds only. Your short-term memory is at work when you look up a phone number, call the number, and then forget it. You remembered the number just long enough to use it. Then it disappeared from your memory. That's really a good thing. Imagine if your memory **held** every number, every face, and every word you ever knew!

However, some information is important to remember for a longer time. Then it must pass from short-term to longer memory. Sometimes we tell ourselves to remember something. We might also practice it: "OK, don't forget: 555–1212,555–1212." Usually, we don't even think about it. Our brain makes the decision for us. It decides to store the information or let it go.

The brain seems to make the decision by asking two questions:

1) Does the information affect our **emotions**? That is, does it make us happy, sad, excited, or upset?

2) Does the information **concern** something we already know, so our brain can store it with something already there?

An answer of “Yes” means that the new information enters long-term memory. That means the brain creates new connections among brain cells. These connections form in a **region** of the brain called the cerebral cortex. It is the largest part of the brain.

After a piece of information enters your long-term memory, how do you get it back? Sometimes your brain may seem like a deep, dark closet. You open the door to look for something- you are sure it is in there somewhere- but you cannot find it. Maybe the information really is not there anymore. Information disappears when connections among brain cells become **weak**. They get weak if time passes and the connections are not used. That is why it is good to read your **lecture** notes soon after the class. Don’t wait too long to “ look in the closet.”

To keep the memory of something strong, think of it often. For example, look at those lecture notes the next day. Look at them the day after that, too. Every time you think about something, the connections in the brain get stronger. Then it is easier to remember the information when you need it.

B) Check the usage of the words in the text to recognize the word form, then circle the correct answer.

1) “ memory” is a/an:

a)adjective b) verb c)adverb d) noun

2) “store” is a/an :

a)adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

3) “ hold” is a/an:

a)adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

4) “ emotion” is a/an:

a) adjective b) verb c)adverb d) noun

5) “concern” is a/an:

a) adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

6) “region” is a/an:

a)adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

7) “ weak” is a/an:

a)adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

8) “lecture” is a/an:

a) adjective b) verb c) adverb d) noun

C) These sentences are about the reading. What is the meaning of each boldfaced word? Circle a,b,or c.

1) Information first enters your short-term **memory. Memory** means:

a)training b) relative c) ability to remember

2) Your short-term memory can **store** information for a short time only. **Store** means:

a)cause b) keep c) sell

3) If your memory **held** everything you ever knew, what would happen? **hold** means:

a) store b) leave c) create

4) Does the information affect our **emotions**? **Emotion** means:

a) life b) feeling c) success

5) It is easier to remember new facts or ideas when they **concern** something we already know. **Concern** means:

a) be about b) destroy c) end up

6) The cerebral cortex is a **region** of the brain. **Region** means:

a) a tool b) a season c) an area

7) We forget things when connections among brain cells get **weak. Weak** means:

a) sharp b) not strong c) important

8) It's important to read your **lecture** notes soon after the class. **Lecture** means:

a) long speech b) hobby c) dialogue

D) These sentences use the target words in new contexts. Complete them with these words in the box.

Memory store held emotion

Concerns region weak lecture

1) He lives in a _____where they get a lot of snow

2) Where do you _____ your summer clothes during the winter?

3) I just received this letter from the bank. It _____ my credit card.

4) Being sick for so long made him lose weight and feel_____.

5) The pianist played the whole piece from _____.

6) Further copies of the book are _____ in the library.

7) Kim received the news without showing any visible sign of _____.

8) My father caught me and gave me a long _____ about the dangers of drink.

E) Look back at the reading to find the target word for each definition.

Definition	Target Word
1) strong feelings such as love or hate	_____
2) to become involved	_____
3) area	_____

4) not physically strong _____

5) a long talk on a particular subject _____

6) to keep information in your brain _____

7) ability to remember _____

Appendix F

READING TEXT AND GLOSS FOR CONTROL GROUP

Slow Food

Italians know and love good food. It's at the heart of their culture. They don't like to rush through meals, either. So, many of them think that fast food is a terrible idea.

In 1986, something happened in Italy. An American fast food restaurant-a Mc Donald's- opened in Rome. Many Italians were surprised and angry. They thought, "This is an **attack** on Italian culture!'' One man, Carlo Petrini, decided to fight back. "Fast food is the **enemy,"** he said. In 1989, Petrini started a group called Slow

Food. Today, about 70,000 people belong to the group. They **join** every day.

The **members** of Slow Food have many ideas in **common**. There are a lot of problems with food today, they say. Fast food is one of them. For one thing, it's not healthy food. Also, it's the same everywhere. "That's boring," they say. They want to keep traditional cooking with all its variety.

Slow Food members worry about a second problem, too. Some types of plants and animals are getting to be very **rare**. They **include,** for instance, a kind of tree in Morocco, a special type of Austrian cow, and wild rice in the United States. The world is in danger of losing them completely. Slow Food doesn't want to let them **disappear**, so they 're working with farmers to keep them alive.

attack=violence against sb/sth

enemy= someone who hates you

join =do sth together in a group

member =belong to a group or organisation

common = shared by several groups or people

rare = uncommon and hard to find

include = to make someone or something part of a larger group

disappear = to be lost cannot be seen any longer

reach =to arrive

local = near where you live

Today, it's common to eat foods from far away. Food travels an average distance of 1,300 miles to **reach** dinner tables in the United States. In the past, people got their food from farms and factories in their **local** area. Slow Food members say ,"People should buy more local food. It's fresh, and it's part of our culture." Fast food is reaching more and more parts of the world. But Slow Food is getting its message to more and more people, too

Appendix G

READING TEXT AND GLOSS FOR CONTROL GROUP

An Amazing Woman

Ruth Simmons was born in a very poor family. Today, she's the president of a famous American university. How did she do it? It's an amazing story.

The story begins on a farm in Grapeland, Texas, in 1945.Ruth was born that year. Her parents were farmworkers, and she was the youngest of their twelve children. They weren't able to give the children many things, and Ruth never had any toys. For Christmas, she didn't receive any presents at all **except** a shoebox with an apple, an orange, and some nuts. However, in Grapeland, Ruth wasn't really **aware of** being poor. Then the family moved into the city, to Houston. In the city, being poor was much harder.

Ruth's mother kept the family together. She had no education, "but she was very **wise,**'' Ruth remembers. "She taught us about the real **value** of being a human being, what mattered and what didn't matter''.Ruth's mother didn't have big dreams. She just wanted to see her children grow up. This was not a simple wish. At that time, there was **segregation** in the United States. Life was dangerous for African Americans, especially in the South. Ruth remembers living in fear. " If you looked at someone the wrong way, you could be killed.''

At age five, Ruth fell in love with school. She was a **bright** child, and she was lucky to have some excellent teachers. No one in Ruth's family had much education, but her teachers **encouraged** her to go to collage, and Ruth was brave

Except: not including sb/sth

Aware of: knowing about or realizing sth.

Wise: having or showing the knowledge or experience to make good or sensible decisions or judgements

Value: the usefulness or importance of sth.

Segregation: laws that kept black people from the same schools, hotels restaurants, etc as white people

Encourage: to give the support or confidence to sb

Administrator: a manager in the government, a school,a business,etc.

Notice: to see and be aware of something

Lead: to be in control or the leader of sth.
Experience: the knowledge or skill that you get from seeing or doing sth

enough to try. They also gave her money and even a coat to wear.

At first, Ruth studied theater. But what kind of career could she have? She says, “Remember I grew up in the South; I couldn’t even go to theaters.’’So she studied languages instead. Later, she married, had two children, and began a career as a collage teacher and **administrator.** Soon people began to **notice** her and respect her abilities

In 1995,Ruth became president of Smith Collage, a famous American collage for women. Ruth was the first African American to **lead** a collage like this one. Suddenly, her story was on TV and newspapers all over the country. Six years later she accepted another challenge. She became the president of Brown University.

Ruth believes in the power of education. “Learning can be the same for a poor farm kid like me as it is for the richest child in the country. It’s all about cultivating one’s mind, and anybody can do that. So it doesn’t matter what colour your skin is, it doesn’t matter how much money your father has, it doesn’t matter what kind of house you live in. Every learner can **experience** the same thing.” As President Simmons will tell you, education can change your life.

Appendix H

READING TEXT AND GLOSS FOR CONTROL GROUP

THE MOUNTAIN STORY

A son and his father were walking on the mountains. Suddenly, his son falls,hurts himself and screams: "AAAhhhhhhhhhh!!!" to his surprise, he hears the voice repeating,somewhere in the mountain: "AAAhhhhhhhhh!!!!" **Curious**, he screams: "Who are you?" He receives the answer: "Who are you?

Angered at the **response**, he screams: "**Coward**!" He receives the answer: "Coward!" He looks at his father and asks: "What's going on?" The father smiles and says: "My son, pay **attention**." And then he **screams** to the mountain: "I **admire** you!" The voice answers: "I admire you!" Again the man screams: "You are a champion!" The voice answers: "You are a champion!" The boy is surprised, but does not understand. Then the father explains: "People call this ECHO, but really this is LIFE. It gives you back everything you say or do. Our life is a **reflection** of our actions. If you want more love in the world, **create** more love in your heart. If you want more **competenc**e in your team, **improve** your competence. This relationship is true for everything, in all parts of lifE; Life will give you back everything you have given to it. Your life is not a **coincidence**. It's a reflection of you!

curious = want to know about sth.

response = sth that is said or written as a reply

coward = someone who is not at all brave

attention = listen/ look /think carefully

scream = to make a loud high noise with your voice

admire = respect, value

reflection = an image you can see in a mirror, glass or water

create = to invent or design something

competence = the ability to do sth well

improve = to make sth better or to become beter

coincidence = to happen at the same time as sth else by chance

Appendix I

READING TEXT AND GLOSS FOR CONTROL GROUP

YOUR MEMORY AT WORK

You have two types of **memory**: short-term memory and long- term memory. Things you see or hear first enter your short-term memory. Very little of this information passes on into your long-term memory. Does this mean you have a bad memory? Not at all.

Your short-term memory has a certain job. Its job is to **store** information for a few seconds only. Your short-term memory is at work when you look up a phone number, call the number, and then forget it. You remembered the number just long enough to use it. Then it disappeared from your memory. That's really a good thing. Imagine if your memory **held** every number, every face, and every word you ever knew!

However, some information is important to remember for a longer time. Then it must pass from short-term to longer memory. Sometimes we tell ourselves to remember something. We might also practice it: "OK, don't forget: 555-1212,555-1212." Usually, we don't even think about it. Our brain makes the decision for us. It decides to store the information or let it go.

Memory = ability to remember

Store = to keep information in your brain or computer

Hold = to keep sth.to be used when it is needed

Emotion = strong feelings such as love or hate

Concern = to become involved, be about

Region = area

Weak = not physically strong

Lecture = a long talk on a particular subject

The brain seems to make the decision by asking two questions:

1) Does the information affect our **emotions**? That is, does it make us happy, sad, excited, or upset?

2) Does the information **concern** something we already know, so our brain can store it with something already there?

An answer of “Yes” means that the new information enters long-term memory. That means the brain creates new connections among brain cells. These connections form in a **region** of the brain called the cerebral cortex. It is the largest part of the brain.

After a piece of information enters your long-term memory, how do you get it back? Sometimes your brain may seem like a deep, dark closet. You open the door to look for something- you are sure it is in there somewhere- but you cannot find it. Maybe the information really is not there anymore. Information disappears when connections among brain cells become **weak**. They get weak if time passes and the connections are not used. That is why it is good to read your **lecture** notes soon after the class. Don’t wait too long to “ look in the closet.”

To keep the memory of something strong, think of it often. For example, look at those lecture notes the next day. Look at them the day after that, too. Every time you think about something, the connections in the brain get stronger. Then it is easier to remember the information when you need it.

Appendix J

Target Vocabularies

1) include *(v)*

2) local (adj)

3) reach (v)

4) join (v)

5) disappear (v)

6) rare (adj)

7) attack (n)

8) enemy (n)

9) common (adj)

10) member (n)

11) administer (v)

12) lead (v)

13) except (prep)

14) segregation (n)

15) encourage (v)

16) aware of (adj)

17) wise (adj)

18) value (n)

19) notice (v)

20) experience (n)

21) curious (adj)

22) attention (n)

23) admire (v)

24) reflection (n)

25) competence (n)

26) coincidence (n)

27) coward (adj)

28) create (v)

29) improve (v)

30) response (n)

31) scream (n)

32) remarkably (adj)

33) memory (n)

34) store (v)

35) emotion (n)

36) concern (v)

37) hold (v)

38) region (n)

39) lecture (n)

40) weak (adj)