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**TEACHING VOCABULARY  
AT INTERMEDIATE LEVEL  
IN EFL CLASSES**

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Sonuç bölümündeysen, Orta Düzey dil bilgisine sahip öğrencilere kelime öğretiminde uygulanan tekniklerin diğer düzeylerde kullanılan tekniklerden farklı olduğu sonucuna varılmakta ve İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği sınıflardaki Orta Düzey öğrencilere kelime öğretiminin önemi ve avantajları vurgulanmaktadır.

## **ABSTRACT**

**In chapter one, the meaning of ‘Intermediate Level in EFL classes’ is elaborated on, with some definitions of major terms that constitute the background of the thesis, its purpose and scope of study.**

**In chapter two, in addition to the importance of learning and language strategies, word learning strategies are also explained. In this context, the meaning of knowing and being able to recall a word is studied.**

**In chapter three, the methods and approaches in EFL classes in vocabulary teaching are studied from the past to today together with their applications, and how they can best be used functionally in classes.**

**The fourth chapter summarises the main criteria for selecting vocabulary. In this part of the study, factors which influence teachers’ selection of vocabulary during teaching are examined, and also how learners influence some of those decisions.**

**In chapter five, techniques for vocabulary teaching are introduced, examining the most common and useful methods. In addition, the traditional techniques that help to convey the meanings of new lexical items are studied.**

**In chapter six, some teaching and practice activities based on the previously mentioned factors are suggested, along with other games that would be beneficial in practising the known vocabulary.**

**In the Conclusion section, it is deduced that the expansion of vocabulary at Intermediate Level should not be ignored, or else, there will not be ongoing development in the following stages. Furthermore, the techniques used in vocabulary teaching for Intermediate Level EFL classes should be different from the ones used at other levels.**

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## PREFACE

Although a certain amount of time is allotted to teaching learners who are at Intermediate Level, the process of vocabulary teaching is usually carried out without an awareness of how the students at this level actually learn. Not being able to find the words students need to express themselves is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language. Communication can be handicapped when learners lack the necessary words, so for most EFL learners, vocabulary is one of their major problems.

Teachers are beginning to recognize the importance of vocabulary in foreign language learning, which has been much neglected until recently. Students feel that many of their difficulties in both receptive and productive language use result from inadequate vocabulary.

If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then vocabulary provides the vital organs and the flesh. Taking this theory as the point of departure, it is important to decide to what extent students make use of vocabulary learning strategies in constructing the meaning and enhancing vocabulary. To overcome the misconception that vocabulary teaching is a dull task and a waste of time, teachers of English can assign more importance to the application of certain language strategies in vocabulary development for more effective vocabulary teaching.

With these points in mind, English language teachers should consider not only what type of students are suitable for certain types of materials and teaching techniques, but also how learning strategies contribute to vocabulary development, and how to enable students to achieve a degree of independence in handling unfamiliar vocabulary. Based on all these ideas, and considering the problems that English teachers encounter in class, a comprehensive study has been formed which will be beneficial to other colleagues and teachers in their professional development.



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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Vocabulary teaching and learning are fascinating topics, compared with other language areas. A survey of vocabulary teaching books shows how bizarre it is that vocabulary teaching has been neglected though there is a belief that learning a foreign language is basically learning the vocabulary of that language. All vocabulary teaching books point out how their contents are important though very little has been written on vocabulary teaching. Wilkins (1974:111) states that “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.” Wallace (1982:9) states that:

To communicate with other people we should use appropriate vocabulary; or else, our communication will stop. What English language teachers are supposed to do is to be able to balance vocabulary teaching and the other skills because language is not solely composed of vocabulary.

Wallace (1982:9) also states that “vocabulary is not the whole story: The system of language (its grammar, structure, etc...) is also important: how the plural is formed, how past tense is signified, and so on.”

Almost everyone learning a foreign language has undergone one of the most frustrating experiences in speaking that language. That is, they cannot find the appropriate words to express themselves. Sometimes we cannot retrieve just one word to describe a situation or define an event. When we are unable to recall a certain word, we start to fight with the known words to express ourselves. Mostly the result is disappointment since it is very difficult to describe a situation with a lot of words when we are able to define it with just one.

Though it has been pointed out that vocabulary has not got the recognition it should have in the theoretical plane, it cannot be denied that teachers spend a lot of time teaching new words (Gairns & Redman, 1985:5). They claim that vocabulary has received the recognition in terms of time it deserves in the classroom:

A vast amount of teaching time is consumed by explanation and definition, classroom blackboards are often littered with masses of new lexical items, and students compile page upon page of vocabulary word lists that they rarely have the opportunity to practice. The simple fact is that vocabulary seems to arise in the classroom regardless of a chosen activity and in spite of any conscious design on the teacher's part. Perhaps this is the root of the problem (Gairns and Redman, 1985:5).

Teachers expect students to master the vocabulary of the language as well as its grammatical features. Celce-Murcia (1979:242) states that "both grammar and vocabulary are important and both can and should be taught in the ESL classroom without sacrificing one for the other." While teachers try to design new activities and invent new exercises in certain language domains like grammar, they may just deal with new words arising incidentally in classroom materials. They may explain, define, or write new words on the blackboard and go on with their tasks. However, the classroom is the only place where students learning a foreign language acquire useful words, and the teacher is an important source person from whom they can learn new words effectively. There is no doubt that vocabulary teaching may have been of secondary importance, but nowadays it is receiving an increasing emphasis.

In the ensuing study, there is an attempt to define what 'Intermediate Level' means in learning in EFL classes. It will also show how to select lexical items, rather than relying on natural selection inherent in classroom materials. The study will demonstrate how these selected vocabulary items can be taught to Intermediate Level students who are expected to be interested and motivated. Some practice activities and ideas are presented for teachers to encourage immediate and effective learning.

## **1.1 Purpose and Scope**

Vocabulary development is at the heart of all foreign language learning. It is one of the most complex and time-consuming aspects of language learning. Teachers use different methods at different times and in different circumstances.

In a foreign language class, learning vocabulary is likely to be the most difficult task of the learner. As Judd states, “while the number of syntactic and phonological rules in any language is finite, the number of words in a language is nearly infinite in terms of the human potential of the average native speaker” (Judd,1978). Richards (1980) draws our attention to the point that while the native speakers of a language acquire the rules of syntax and phonology at a very early age, they continue to increase the number of words in their vocabulary throughout their lifetime and still cannot master all the lexical items in their native language.

Unfortunately, there is a belief among EFL teachers that vocabulary must be learnt rather than taught. In particular, when there is a time constraint, the teacher usually gives priority to the teaching of grammar structures or to the practice of certain skills and expects students to handle the new vocabulary items themselves.

Teachers often do not know what type of learners they have and what their learning styles are. It should not be assumed that all students learn in the same way or through the same technique, even if that particular one seems to be or is said to be the best method.

Taking into consideration the needs of our students, the time constraints and the problems of the teachers, the purpose of this study is to make a general survey and follow a systematized technique. This study does not deal with the psychological factors such as the age of learning or motivation. Idioms and informal language were also omitted from the research because of the need to restrict the subject area.

The survey in the field of language teaching shows that those students who have had a few years of foreign language instruction are considered Intermediate Level learners. Nevertheless, this term is used for the second-semester students of preparatory classes at universities in Turkey or those beginning the second or third years at Secondary schools or Lycees.

## 1.2 Background to the Study

Before beginning the project, the following terms forming the core of the study should be defined, as they shape the content and scope of the study.

According to the 'Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English' (OALDCE), **vocabulary** means:

- 1- The total number of words combining from rules to make up a language.
- 2- Range of words known to, or used by, a person in a trade, profession, etc.: a writer with a large...
- 3- (C) book containing a list of words, list of words used in a book ,etc.(1987: 939).

The same word is defined in Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary (CCELD) as follows:

- 1- Someone's vocabulary is the total number of words in a language that he or she knows. e.g . By the age of five, the child has a working vocabulary of more than 2000 words.
- 2- *The vocabulary of a language is the total number of the words in it. e.g. New words are coming into use and dropping out of the vocabulary at heightened speeds.*
- 3- The vocabulary of a subject is the group of words that are typically used when discussing it.

The second term is **technique**. Oxford Dictionary defines it as follows:

- 1- Practical skill in art, music, ... He played the right notes but had poor technique.
- 2- A practical method applied to a particular task: The technique of painting water... (Hornby and Ruse, 1958: 64).

Collins Cobuild Dictionary defines the same term in a more detailed way:

- 1- A technique is a particular method of doing an activity, usually a method that involves practical skills. e.g. ...the techniques of film-making, modern management techniques...
- 2- Technique is the skill and ability in an artistic, sporting, or other practical activities that one develops through training and practice. e.g. She owed her technique entirely to his teaching... They do not have the technique to express all that in written form (1993: 1501).

The third term is **teaching**. Oxford Dictionary defines it as: To give (a person) instruction or training (in an area of knowledge, skill, ...): Teach a child how to swim.

In Collins Cobuild Dictionary, the same term is described as the following:

- 1- Teaching is the work that a teacher does in helping students to learn. e.g. :Have you done any teaching lately?
- 2- The teachings of a particular person, school of thought, or religion are all the ideas and principles that they teach. e.g. Reverence for life is one of the main principles of Christian teaching... His teachings still exert a strong influence... ...the teachings of the Catholic Church (1993:1499).

Teaching can be referred to as well-planned instruction implemented to facilitate learning. Brown (1980:7) defines language teaching as showing or helping someone to learn how to do something, giving instructions, guiding in the study of something, providing with knowledge, causing to know or understand. Stern (1983:21) also defines language teaching as “the activities which are intended to bring about language learning.”

## Chapter 2



## 2.1 LEARNING AND LANGUAGE STRATEGIES

Defining learning is essential because a concept of language learning is fundamental for language teaching. Littlewood (1984:1) defines learning from a language learning point of view. He says learning is “above all, to react to stimuli and instructions provided by the main actor in the classroom: The teacher.”

The teacher has an important role in students’ learning a foreign/ second language. The more the students receive stimuli the more chance they will have to learn. Brown (1980:7) divides learning into seven components:

- Learning is a change of behaviour.
- Learning involves active, conscious focus on and acting upon events outside or inside the organism.
- Learning is relatively permanent, but subject to forgetting.
- Learning is retention of information or skill.
- Retention implies storage systems, memory, and cognitive organization.
- Learning is acquisition or getting.
- Learning involves some form of reinforced practice.

However, Krashen separates learning from acquisition. He states “there is a distinction between learning and acquisition” and defines language acquisition as a “*subconscious process*”. Krashen (1982:10) claims that language acquirers are not usually aware of the fact that they are acquiring the language for communication. He also defines learning as conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being

aware of them, and being able to talk about them. What Krashen (1982:10) asserts is that both ‘acquisition’ and ‘learning’ promote each other.

Littlewood (1984:90), however, states that:

According to second language research, progress does not only occur when people make conscious efforts to learn. Progress also occurs as a result of spontaneous, subconscious mechanisms which are activated when learners are involved in communication with the second language.

The Language methods and approaches have been created in order to facilitate learning and help the students learn the language in a systematic way. Hutchinson and Waters (1987:39) state that “the key to successful language learning and teaching lies not in the analysis of the nature of language but in understanding the structure and processes of the mind”. Stern (1983:473) states that:

Methods are considered as language teaching theories. They are divided partly from practical experience, intuition, and inventiveness, partly from social, political, and educational needs, and partly from theoretical considerations. Therefore, the theory of teaching changes from one method to another. Each method has its own teaching theory.

## **2.2 KNOWING A WORD**

The move away from seeing vocabulary as lists of items to be learned, raises the question of precisely what it means to ‘learn’ vocabulary. Richards (1985:176) tries to tackle this issue, and considers some of the knowledge that is assumed by lexical competence. It is necessary to examine this as a basis for formulating objectives in vocabulary teaching. Richards (1985:176) brings the characterisation of lexical competence down to eight broad assumptions:

- Native speakers continue to expand their vocabulary in adulthood. Little is known about the average language user's vocabulary but anything from 20.000 to 100.000 words could be within a person's receptive vocabulary.
- Knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering it and the sorts of words most likely to be found associated with it (frequency and collocatability).
- Knowing a word means knowing its limitations of use according to function and situation (temporal, social, geographical; field, mode etc.).
- Knowing a word means knowing its syntactic behaviour (e.g. transitivity patterns, cases).
- Knowing a word means knowing its underlying forms and derivations.
- Knowing a word means knowing its place in a network of associations with other words in the language.
- Knowing a word means knowing its semantic value (its composition).
- Knowing a word means knowing its different meanings (polysemy).

### **2.3 Word Learning Strategy**

An effective strategy for learning words from independent reading pulls together students' developing morphological and contextual knowledge as well as their knowledge of words in general. It includes determining which new words should be analysed in the light of the students' reading purposes, the nature of the selection they are reading and how important a particular unknown word is. Students are encouraged first to ask

themselves the following question when they encounter an unfamiliar word in print: “Is this word important to my understanding of what I am reading?” If the answer is no, then they can continue reading provided that their comprehension remains intact. If the answer is yes, they should follow these steps:

- Try to pronounce the word.
- Think of other words that remind them of this one.
- Look for familiar prefixes, base words, roots, or suffixes.
- Look for contextual clues.
- Use a dictionary.

Often, when students pronounce a word, they realise that in fact, they know it is in their speaking / listening vocabulary but not yet in their reading vocabulary. A good step is to think of words that might be structurally related to the unknown word or that contain some of the same structural elements. Looking for morphemic or structural clues is important. The meaning of prefixes, suffixes, and base or root can be combined to suggest a possible meaning. Thinking of contextual clues can provide a general idea of the word’s meaning, but is much more effective when combined with morphemic analysis. If the word is still unknown, however, then the dictionary will be the final guide.

Each of these steps needs to be modelled and taught. Eventually, students can internalise the steps in this strategy. Applications of these steps then become much smoother. In fact good readers usually blend these steps. They are sounding out, analysing structure, and looking for context almost simultaneously (Rayner & Pollatsek, 1995:110).

Nation (1986:40) states that there are many strategies to learn vocabulary, defining ‘strategy’ as a procedure through which learners can make use of the available context clues. He also assumes that these strategies help the learners to follow the ideas in the text

and bring some background knowledge to the text. Nation (1986:42) suggests the following five-step strategy for guessing unknown words in texts in five steps:

- 1- Finding the part of speech of the unknown word.
- 2- Looking at the immediate context of the unknown word and simplifying this context if necessary.
- 3- Looking at the wider context of the unknown word between the clause, surrounding clauses and sentences.
- 4- Guessing the meaning from the context.
- 5- Checking that the guess is correct.

Nation also states that (1986:44) guessing from the context is the most important one of these strategies. Researchers, like Nation & Richards (1986:60), claim that this is the way native speakers often expand their vocabulary. Twadell (1973:71) agrees on expanding vocabulary through guessing, and also suggests that when a learner meets an unfamiliar word, he should not give up, panic, or infer. What the learner usually does in this case is to rush to a dictionary. This takes time, and is not a permanent solution for vocabulary learning. What a learner should do is to ignore the word and proceed to the end of the sentence. Then the learner should come back, make meaningful guesses, and soon he will find that he no longer needs to use a dictionary so often. Twadell (1973:77) offers further suggestions for vocabulary expansion suggesting that learners should be aware of some ways of overcoming their problems, such as planning extensive reading, and vocabulary reinforcement by teachers. Carter and McCarthy (1988:62) believe that the learners do not have to know all the words in a passage, and suggest that the dictionary should be used as a last resort. Twadell (1973:77) agrees on not resorting to a dictionary as a primary attempt and suggests that teachers must help students to meet these problems as follows:

- They must learn to guess at the meanings of unfamiliar words and phrases rather than spend too much time on learning the meaning in a dictionary.
- They have to be able to tolerate an incomplete comprehension to some extent.

Twadell (1973:78) also states that students who read different items have a high rate of guessing words. Since they also read outside the classroom, a great majority of vocabulary occurs naturally and frequently.

## 2.4 RECALLING A WORD

We seldom remember a new word simply by hearing it once. There has to be a certain amount of repetition until there is evidence that the student has learned the target word. The simplest way of checking learning has been acquired is by seeing whether the student can recognise the target word and identify its meaning. If the word has to be a part of the learner's productive vocabulary, he must be given the opportunity to use it as often as possible in order to recall it at will, with the correct stress and pronunciation. It is not enough, however, this should happen only in one lesson. Since the learner is exposed to a large number of words, the words to be remembered should appear at regular intervals in later lessons. Because of this fact, we must not require students to use all the vocabulary they encounter correctly, but with several techniques make them first recognise the words and then use them actively.

**2. 5 Memory:** Wardaugh (1976:170) defines memory as “active learning and remembering” and explains the kinds of memory as follows: Memory consists of the sensory information store, the short-term memory and the long-term memory. The sensory information store allows information which is gathered by the senses to be retained very briefly. The short-term memory is a store of limited capacity. Information is retained in the short-term memory for about 20 seconds, a period during which messages are processed. The capacity of short-term memory is limited to about seven unrelated items called *chunks*. These items drop out of short-term memory unless they

are recycled. Long-term memory is fairly permanent. Its storage capacity seems unlimited, and input that is processed in the short-term memory is stored here. Converting short-term memory into long-term memory may be one of the problems of learning.

Stewick (1976:213), after referring to various memory experiments, concludes that any verbal input to the learner's eyes or ears may remain in short-term memory for some time and be available for re-examination and manipulation. For this reason, learners will have a few seconds to recall the new input, that is the new vocabulary item if it is not disturbed or replaced by further new input during that time. The learner examines this material in his long-term memory, and combines the two sets of information. This kind of organization enables him to retrieve and recognize the material in the future.



## Chapter 3

### 3.1 REVIEW OF LITERATURE: EMPHASIS GIVEN TO VOCABULARY TEACHING BY DIFFERENT APPROACHES AND METHODS

Although all the methods and approaches provide language learners with useful strategies about vocabulary learning, they are different in the various ways that English language teachers make use of during teaching and learning vocabulary.

#### 3.1.1 GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD

Krashen (1982:127) states that:

This method emphasized the study of grammar by the use of long explanations given in the mother tongue. In this approach translation was the major objective and vocabulary was taught at great length. Thus, textbooks included long lists of vocabulary and learners had to memorize these lists along with their counter parts in their native language. Aside from memorization, they had to spend a long time looking up words in the dictionary. Learners were assumed to have learned the language if they succeeded in translation. In the application of the translation method, spontaneous oral work was de-emphasized. Vocabulary is presented in the form of a bilingual list (Krashen 1982:127).

Larsen-Freeman (1986:13) advocates that “Students are given one set of words and are asked to find antonyms in the reading passage, and they are also required to memorise grammatical rules and grammatical paradigms such as verb conjugations.” Larsen-Freeman (1986:15) also maintains that “students use words in sentences in order to show that they understand the meaning and use of a new vocabulary item.”



### 3.1.2 DIRECT METHOD

As there seemed to have been a shortage of communicative language use in the Grammar-Translation Method, some reformers would like to replace it with more efficient approaches. Several reforms can be pointed out under the names of ‘reform method’, ‘natural method’, ‘psychological method’, ‘phonetic method’ and so on, but today ‘the direct method’ remains as the most commonly used term to cover all of the above. The basis of this method gives no allowance for translation, and its name comes from the fact that meaning is to be connected directly with the target language, without going through the process of translation. Some of the prominent features of this method can be revealed as (Krashen, 1982:125):

In the Direct Method, foreign/second language is learned by active and meaningful use of the target language. Students have full control of recent learned structures in oral production from the very beginning. The native language of the learners is strictly inhibited. The Direct Method presumes that students will acquire new vocabulary in context as an integral part of each lesson. Vocabulary is taught before presenting the subject matter, and vocabulary is presented in context by using realia, pictures, or pantomime.

Vocabulary and sentences used in daily life are taught. This is advantageous because a language learner should have the chance to learn the vocabulary which he will make use of outside the classroom, maybe in the target community. As the active vocabulary which he meets in the foreign community increases, the basic needs of the language learner are supplied and learning new words is not restricted to the ones presented in library texts. Vocabulary selection is performed in the light of what a text offers in the Grammar-Translation Method.

Larsen-Freeman suggests that:

Vocabulary can be developed through speaking and listening with the help of questions and answers between the teacher and the students. This can be viewed as a good sign since the more a word is used in various contexts, the more easily it is retained in the long term memory. New words and grammar points are introduced orally; thus, the pronunciation of vocabulary items is taught along with their meanings, and accurate pronunciation is expected. Concrete vocabulary can be taught through demonstration, pictures, and objects; abstract vocabulary can be taught through the association of ideas. Demonstration is profitable for ideal vocabulary learning because students love dynamic lessons in which the teacher is active, creative and comforting all the time. Memorising individual, separated words have nothing to contribute to the development of vocabulary learning. Vocabulary is acquired more naturally if students use it in full sentences, rather than memorising word lists. (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:23).

### **3.1.3 AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD**

A new methodology developed and enjoyed widespread acceptance around the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century: It is known as the Audio-Lingual approach. It was introduced in the United States as a result of the need for people to learn foreign languages for military purposes.

Audio-Lingual teaching was firmly grounded in descriptive linguistics affected by the learning theories of behaviouristic psychology. Behaviourism maintains that the learner shows an active response to stimuli selected by external factors, and if the proper reinforcement is given, behaviour will change. Leonard Bloomfield (1942) and Charles Fries (1945) were among the advocates of the descriptive school. They explain learning in terms of operant conditioning, considering that learning is habit formation.

The goal of this method is to have the student over-learn a variety of patterns to be used directly in performance (Krashen, 1982:132).

Larsen-Freeman states that:

New vocabulary and structures are presented through dialogs and dialogs are learned through imitation and repetition (Larsen-Freeman,1986: 43).

Celce-Murcia and Rosenweig claim that:

The teaching of vocabulary is de-emphasized in the initial stages, keeping it to a minimum until the basic structures and the sound system of the language have been mastered (Celce-Murcia and Rosenweig , 1979:241).

Fries (1945:2) claims that the main problem in language learning is not that of learning vocabulary items, but it is, primarily, the mastery of the sound system. He states that only after the sound system has been achieved should the learner concentrate on the features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language until they become automatic. Fries offers the following conclusion:

Of course these things can not be learned in a vacuum. There must be sufficient vocabulary to operate the structure and represent the sound system in actual use. A person has 'learned' a foreign language when he has thus first, within limited vocabulary mastered the sound system, and has, second, made the structural devices matters of automatic habit ... The extension of his control of content vocabulary will then occur with increasing ease (1945:3).

In this method, vocabulary can be learnt only in a linguistic and cultural context but not in isolation. Cultural aspects are taken into consideration. Memorisation of words

in dialogs is necessary. Dialogs are used to introduce new structures and new vocabulary. Vocabulary is strictly controlled in the elementary stages as more emphasis is given to learning the sounds and the intonation patterns. While students study the dialog by mimicking the model the teacher or the tape provides, they also learn the vocabulary and the new structures (1945:5). Therefore, vocabulary is learned in context as opposed to traditional approaches where the new words are presented in the form of lists. The same vocabulary items appear in the drills that follow the dialogs.

Larsen-Freeman (1986:39) offers some of the principles contained in the Audio-Lingual way of teaching, related to vocabulary teaching as follows:

- Language forms occur most naturally within a context.
- Instead of memorisation of word lists, dialogs are memorised, not individual words.
- Repetition is regarded as the backbone of vocabulary learning.
- Only the target vocabulary can be used in the classroom to stop the students from using their native language because it is believed that it interferes with the students' attempts to acquire the foreign language.
- An inductive way is applied while figuring out the form and meaning of new words from given examples.
- Language and culture are two mutually dependent values. However, culture should not be taken as only literature and arts as it is believed in the traditionalist view. Culture means the everyday behaviour of the people who use the target language. That's why vocabulary specific to the foreign culture should be presented to language learners and all the students should be made aware of the features of the target language (1986:39).

Some of the techniques used in this method are step by step repetition of long troublesome patterns, transformation drills, completing the dialog, chain drills, and dialog memorisation.

### **3.1.4 NATURAL APPROACH**

In this approach, the goal is to enable the students to talk about ideas, perform tasks, and solve problems.

The natural approach is for beginners and is intended to help them become intermediates (Richards, 1986:134).

The aim of the basic personal communication skills (oral and written) is everyday language situations, conversations, listening to the radio and so on. In such kind of a course, students are expected to be able to function adequately in the target language situation and to understand the speaker of the target language.

The aim in vocabulary teaching is to equip students with strategies to select the correct word for the given situation and be able to follow the speakers of the target community. Students are not expected to be accurate in all details of grammar as long as the meaning is clear and the messages are conveyed with appropriate vocabulary. The superiority of meaning is emphasized.

Krashen (1982:138) claims that:

Class time is devoted primarily to providing input for acquisition. The teacher speaks only the target language in the classroom, but students may use either the first or second language. If students choose to respond in the second language, their erratum are not corrected unless communication is seriously impaired (Krashen, 1982:138).

Vocabulary is seen as a basic factor in communication and for the acquisition process. Krashen and Terrell (1983:155) state that “acquisition will not take place without comprehension of vocabulary.” In the beginning stages vocabulary is taught by presentation and explanation of certain key words before presenting the subject matter, such as discussion or acquisition activity.

All in all, the Natural Approach is based on the observation and interpretation of how learners acquire both first and second languages in informal settings. The Natural Approach rejects the formal organisation of language as the prerequisite to teaching. Vocabulary is emphasized for the sake of comprehension and development of communication.

### **3.1.5 TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE**

According to this method defended by James Asher, basic speaking skills are the ultimate aim. The emphasis is on listening comprehension. Imperative drills are of first importance at the beginning level, with conversational dialogs emphasized later on. Students should be given as many instructions as possible, because meaning is achieved by those instructions. Vocabulary is taught by doing the action at the beginning when the teacher is acting as a model. Pictures, realia, slides and word charts are also used. The teacher gives commands and students perform them, so memory is activated in this way. Students’ understanding of the target language should be developed before their production of utterances, because listening outweighs the other language skills. Larsen-Freeman (1986:117) claims that grammatical structures and vocabulary are emphasized over other language areas, and these are embedded within imperatives. Thus, understanding the spoken word should precede its production.

Larsen-Freeman (1986:118) adds that:

Body movements are taken according to the given instructions as the measurement in the progress of this method. The feelings of success and low levels of anxiety facilitate language learning. Any

kind of memorisation of fixed routines is forbidden. After an error has been made, the teacher corrects it by acting out the command again. What teacher does is to create an atmosphere which is fun. Then, new commands may be written on the blackboard. Speaking is given more importance than writing, so a few weeks later, a student in a TPR class starts to use the L2 and begins to give commands in the target language. Therefore, vocabulary learning is for receiving and giving commands. Some games may be used, after students have become good speakers.

Vocabulary with grammar should be embedded with imperatives. These imperatives are single word chunks in the early stages and multiword chunks in the later stages. Larsen-Freeman (1986:119) exemplifies it in a TPR class as follows:

TEACHER: Ingrid, walk to the door. (Ingrid gets up and walks to the door).

TEACHER: Class, stand up. (The class stands up)

TEACHER: Ingrid, write your class number on the blackboard.  
(She writes her class number on the blackboard)

TEACHER: Class, sit down. (The class sits down)

TEACHER: Ingrid, sit down. (Ingrid sits down)

What appears to be missing in this method is the fact that vocabulary learning does not mean obeying some commands bodily, but producing meaningful utterances and using the target language. Comprehension is of paramount importance in vocabulary learning, so whilst a great number of vocabulary items can be taught through imperatives, communication is lacking in this respect.

### **3.1.6 COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH**

In the Communicative Approach, language functions are emphasized over forms. Generally, functional syllabus is used, and a variety of forms are assigned for each function. All four skills are used from the beginning. The aim of language teaching is regarded as the achievement of communicative competence, language use in real-life situations, and also the development of the procedures to teach the four language skills. Littlewood (1984) states that one of the most characteristic features of communicative

language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language.

Larsen-Freeman states that:

The student's native language has no particular role in the Communicative Approach. The target language should be used not only during communicative activities but also in explaining word meaning and in assigning homework. The students see the language as a vehicle for communication, not just an object to be studied (Larsen Freeman,1986:130).

Vocabulary is thus taught according to situations by using realia, maps, symbols, pictures, graphs, and charts. Students are expected to use appropriate vocabulary according to the situational context. Fluency and appropriacy have priority. The meaning and appropriacy of a word is judged in context, not in isolation.

Freeman adds that:

The Communicative Approach also has some other principles such as a comprehensible pronunciation of words that is insisted on and a specific amount of native language is welcomed where feasible. Communication, reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired. The target language is learnt best by struggling to communicate. The teacher does not control but helps. A functional use of words is favoured. Meaning is paramount. The desired goal in Communicative Approach is the communicative competence of the students, their ability to use the vocabulary items and grammatical patterns effectively and appropriately. The sequencing of the words to be taught is determined according to the interests of the learners or the functions to be practiced. Fluent and acceptable language is the target (1986:132).



The aim of language courses should be to equip students with the necessary tactics to use appropriate vocabulary in the given situation for a particular purpose, so they can convey the desired message with the target vocabulary.

### **3.1.7 COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING**

Community Language Learning is the name of a method developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates. His application of psychological counselling techniques to learning is known as Counseling-Learning. It is sometimes cited as an example of a “humanistic approach”. Although he wrote little about his theory of language, his student La Forge (1983:9) attempted to give a precise definition of the language theory included in this method by suggesting that: language is people, language is persons in contact, and language is persons in response.

The primary aim of CLL is to create a genuinely warm and supportive ‘community’ among the learners and gradually to move them from complete dependence on the teacher to complete the autonomy (La Forge; 1983:10).

Community Language Learning is most often used in the teaching of oral proficiency, but with some modifications it may be used in the teaching of writing, as Tranel (1968:157) has demonstrated. CLL does not use a conventional language syllabus, which sets out in advance the grammar, vocabulary, and other language items to be taught and the order in which they will be covered.

In Community Language Learning, learners become members of a community and learn through interacting with the members of the community. Learning is not viewed as an individual accomplishment but as something that is achieved collaboratively (1968:160).

Learners are grouped in a circle of six or twelve and directed to listen to the teacher so as to provide meanings they want to express. The learners are first seated in a closed circle with the teacher on the outside. When learners want to say something, they call the teacher across and whisper whatever it is they want to communicate to the teacher in the L1. The teacher whispers back a L2 translation, and the learner then repeats this to the group. The process continues for some time, the learners' utterances being recorded on the tape. At the end of the session, the group generally has a lengthy taped interaction, all in the target language. They repeat the target utterances without hesitating and then they try to report their inner feelings.

Richards and Rodgers (1986:120) claim that:

Learners are expected to listen to the knower attentively, to freely provide meanings they wish to express, to repeat target utterances without hesitation, to support fellow members of the community, to report deep inner feelings and frustrations as well as joy and pleasure, and to become counsellors to other learners.

CLL derives its rationale from counselling, so the role of the teacher is determined as counsellor, and the role of the learner as the client. The procedures of CLL are given by Richards and Rodgers (1986:114) as follows:

- Learner and knower agree to language learning.
- Learner presents to the knower (in L1) a message she wishes to deliver to another.
- Knower listens and other learners overhear.
- Knower restates learner's message in L2.
- Learner repeats the L2 message form to its addressee.

- Learner plays (from tape or memory) and reflects upon the messages exchanged during the language class.

The use of tape-recordings, translation, reflection, transcription, observation, reflective listening and group work are the techniques used in this method. Larsen-Freeman (1986:102) claims in this method that:

Particular grammar points, pronunciation patterns, and vocabulary are worked with, based on the language the students have generated. The most important skills are understanding and speaking the language. Vocabulary is gained by way of translation from the native language.

### **3.1.8 THE SILENT WAY**

The Silent Way is based on the premise that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom and the learner should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible. The main elements used in the lessons are color charts and the coloured cuisenaire rods. The learning hypotheses devised by Gattegno can be stated as follows (Richards&Rodgers, 1986: 99):

- Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learnt.
- Learning is facilitated by accompanying physical objects.
- Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned.

Students begin to learn language through its basic building blocks, and its sounds. Larsen-Freeman states that:

The teacher sets up situations that get the students' attention focused on the structures of language. The situations provide a vehicle for students to perceive meaning. The students receive a great deal of practice with a given target language structure without repetition for its own sake (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:63).

It is also claimed by Larsen-Freeman that:

Students gain autonomy in the language by exploring it and making choices. Vocabulary is restricted at first. Meaning is made clear by focusing the students' perceptions, not by translation. The students' native language can, however, be used to give instructions when necessary (1986:64).

Richard and Rodgers state that:

The general objective of the Silent Way is to give beginning level students oral and aural facility in basic elements of the target language. Near-native fluency and correct pronunciation is emphasized. Gattegno considers grammar as a central dimension of language learning and the choice of vocabulary as crucial. Therefore; he makes some distinguishes between several classes of vocabulary items, one of which is "semi-luxury vocabulary". This kind of vocabulary consists of expressions common in the daily life of the target language culture; this refers to food, clothing, travel, family life, and so on. On the other hand *luxury vocabulary* is used in communicating more specialized ideas, such as political or philosophical opinions. The *functional vocabulary* which Gattegno thinks as the most important one for the learner is full of the most functional and versatile words. Words are seen as groups of sounds arbitrarily associated with specific meanings and organized into sentences or strings of meaningful units by grammar rules. The vocabulary of a foreign language is separated from its social context and taught through artificial situations, usually represented by rods (Richard&Rodgers, 1986:101).

Richard and Rodgers also claim that:

Vocabulary is selected according to the degree to which it can be manipulated within a given structure and according to its productivity within the classroom setting. In addition to prepositions and numbers, pronouns, quantifiers, words dealing with temporal relations, and words of comparison are introduced early in the course. In *The Silent Way*, the teacher is responsible for creating an environment that encourages student to take risks and that facilitates learning. Students are expected to see the teacher as a disinterested judge, supportive but emotionally uninvolved. In the class, the teacher uses gestures, charts, and manipulatives in order to shape student responses so he must be facile and creative as a pantomimist and puppeteer. In sum, the *Silent Way* teacher, like the complete dramatist, writes the script, chooses the props, sets the mood, models the action, designates the players, and is critic for the performance (Richards&Rodgers, 1986:107).

## Chapter 4

### 4.1 Criteria for Vocabulary Selection

In this part of the study, the factors that influence the teacher's vocabulary selection are examined and also how a learner plays a role in making some of those decisions. Before examining the criteria deciding which lexical items the teacher is supposed to teach, it is necessary first to consider the main vocabulary sources of a teacher. Gairns and Redman (1986:56) identify four main sources:

- Through the course book. This will include the written and spoken texts, activities for the presentation and practice of grammatical structures, testing exercises, and so on. Even the instructions for classroom activities can form a source at new vocabulary.
- Through supplementary materials (not designed specifically for vocabulary development) provided by the educational institution or selected by the teacher himself. This may include texts, drills, narratives, role-plays, exercises, video, etc.
- Through the students. A wide range of unanticipated and unpredictable items inevitably surface from student inquiries, queries, and errors.
- Through specific vocabulary activities designed by the teacher for his particular group of students.

After stating the four main sources, the criteria governing in how vocabulary is selected can be considered. Methodologists agree that the selected vocabulary items should be useful for students, but how does one determine the usefulness of vocabulary items? One lexical item may be essential in a teaching situation, and in another context it may not be essential. That is why teachers should be aware of the relativity of the criteria

because the dispensable principle in vocabulary selection is that the use of a lexical item depends on the teaching situation.

#### **4.1.1 Word Lists**

Word lists tell us how often each word occurs and give us some indication of its range. Nation defines 'range' as follows:

The range of a word is a measure of the number of different types of texts in which a word occurs (Nation, 1990:20).

Therefore, the most useful words for learners are high frequency words because they have a wide range. Nation considers them very useful since word lists are based on the criteria of frequency and range. However, frequency and range are not satisfactory enough by themselves to determine the usefulness of a lexical item. Nation suggests a list of possible criteria like this:

1. Frequency
2. Range
3. Language Needs
4. Availability and Familiarity
5. Coverage.

According to Nation, there are some word lists giving importance to some of these criteria. He sees West's General Service List of English Words as the most famous and most useful list of high frequency words. The list contains 2000 headwords. It gives the frequency of the main headword together with the relative frequency of its meanings.

Unlike frequency counts, the General Service List has forms under the headword and each meaning is also accompanied by examples.

Wilkins (1974:25) summarizes the criteria that are used in establishing the relative usefulness of words as following:

**4. 1.1.1 Frequency:** It is possible to get information about which words will be most useful for learners of English by looking at frequency counts of vocabulary. It can shortly be described as the number of times a word occurs in various kinds of texts. Usually a vocabulary count is prepared by listing the words in a particular text and counting how often they occur. Frequency counts are regarded very highly. Nation points out their uses as follows:

Frequency counts help the teachers in many ways. They are helpful in developing an idea about which words are useful and should be given attention and which are infrequent. They can provide a principled basis for developing word lists for teaching, designing graded courses and reading texts, and preparing vocabulary tests (Nation, 1990:20).

The most frequently well-known frequency-count is the Teacher's Word Book of Thirty Thousand Words by Thorndike and Lorge. As Nation states, it has been used as the basis for vocabulary selection for many English courses (1990:20). Frequency counts should be considered when vocabulary is selected to be taught, but they should not be accepted uncritically. Their value must be judged against the source since there will be occasions when usefulness is not described by frequency. Gairns and Redman claim that:

The high frequency of an item is no guarantee of usefulness but there is obviously a significant correlation between two. So, it is worth examining some of the work on frequency word-counts that have been carried over recent decades (Redman and Gairns, 1986:58).

However, an item of low frequency may be vital in some cases. Therefore, the teacher should be aware that frequency counts have some drawbacks, and they cannot be used dogmatically.

**4.1.1.2 Range:** The distribution of a lexical item over a number of different types of text. A very frequent item might be discounted if its range is small.



**4.1.1.3 Availability:** The items, which are the most available for various kinds of interests. This applies to lexical items, which may not be particularly frequent but may be of great use in a certain learning situation. The word *chalk* for example, has a low frequency in the General Service List, but it is undoubtedly very useful in a classroom learning situation (Wallace,1982:16). To establish availability, native speakers are asked to write down a list of those words they would find most useful in certain defined areas of interest.

**4.1.1.4 Familiarity:** The relative usefulness of words is established by giving a word list to a group of native speakers and asking them to rank these words on a familiarity scale. Thus, if the native speaker uses or comes across a word frequently, he would rank it as “very often”. Conversely, if he is totally unfamiliar with the word, he would mark it as “never”. Thus, a word which has a low frequency in the statistical frequency count of a text might prove to be useful when it is ranked highly on a familiarity scale by native speakers.

**4.1.1.5 Coverage:** A lexical item is considered to have a wide coverage if it expresses a range of meaning or is capable of replacing other items of more specific meaning in particular contexts.

## **4.2 Receptive and Productive Vocabulary**

Gairns and Redman use *receptive vocabulary* to denote language items which can only be recognised and comprehended in the context of reading and listening material. They define *productive vocabulary* as language items that the learner can recall and use appropriately in speech and writing. These terms can also be called active and passive vocabulary in different ELT books (Redman and Gairns, 1986:65).

Clearly, the teacher has a great responsibility in deciding which lexical items are the most useful ones because he has got much more knowledge of the language. As a result, the teacher plays a key role in deciding which lexical item is receptive and which lexical item is productive. To classify vocabulary into active and passive categories in this way seems unreasonable since in some learning situations there are no clear-cut

borders between passive and active vocabulary. However, considering the Turkish language, it can be seen that there are lexical items that are never used productively but can be recognised and understood when seen. Moreover, some passive words at the moment may be active words in future, since there is a transition from *receptive vocabulary* to *productive vocabulary* through repeated hearing and reading. In short, teacher needs to select items that will be most relevant for students in productive and classifying vocabulary.

### **4.3 Need and Level**

Frequency, word lists, and active and passive vocabulary are not always good criteria for making accurate selection in vocabulary teaching since the learners' needs and levels also play an important role in making decisions. Redman and Gairns (1986:82) assert that common sense dictates that students who are required to write technical reports in English in their native country will have different lexical needs from those learners who require survival English for travel purposes in English speaking countries. Need is very important since learners will acquire vocabulary very quickly if they see how useful it is in expressing certain feelings and ideas. Lexical needs of Intermediate Level students should be identified in relation to their general language levels, so in this way the teacher can satisfy learners' needs and does not try to give more than the learners get effectively.

## Chapter 5

### 5.1 Techniques for Vocabulary Teaching

In this section, the most common and useful techniques will be examined, together with traditional techniques and methods that help to convey the meanings of new lexical items. Traditional techniques may seem old-fashioned but can be very useful if effectively employed by the teacher.

#### 5.1.1 Visuals

Visuals include flashcards, photographs, blackboard drawings, wall charts, and realia (e.g. objects themselves). These techniques are extensively used for conveying meaning, and they are regarded as very useful for teaching concrete items of vocabulary such as places, parts of human body, actions, food, furniture, activities such as party and sports.

However, problems do arise since pictures, flashcards, photographs, and wall charts are not at all useful for abstract concepts. These techniques are used very extensively in elementary lessons. V. F. Allen asserts that:

Unlike most of the basic vocabulary that is taught in elementary lessons, much of the Intermediate vocabulary cannot be demonstrated through actions or shown through pictures (Allen, 1983:46).

On the other hand, there may be other situations at Intermediate Level to teach vocabulary through demonstration by using pictures, wall charts, and drawings.

#### 5.1.2 Mime and Gesture

Mime and gesture are used to teach by demonstration. These techniques are two different ways of conveying meaning to learners. For example, while teaching an item such as *sad*, a teacher might present or convey the meaning of *sad* through mime and gestures. He can show how unhappy he is through certain movements, such as pretending to cry or shaking his head sorrowfully. He can also sit on a chair and start to contemplate by looking at a certain point on the wall, taking his head between his hands. If he is a skilful actor, the students will get the meaning when they see the face of the teacher since mime and gesture will make them get the meaning quickly. The word *shiver* which is usually taught at Intermediate Level can also be illustrated by miming.

### **5.1.3 Verbal Explanation**

Verbal explanation is a crucial issue in Intermediate classes since almost all learners can understand explanations and definitions. The learners in Intermediate classes have enough knowledge to comprehend simple explanations and definitions. Therefore, as Allen (1983:46) states in his techniques in teaching vocabulary, teachers of the Intermediate classes should use such techniques extensively and can usually show the meanings of the Intermediate Level words by putting them into English explanations where the other words in the sentences are known by students.

### **5.1.4 Making Use of Simple English to Show the Meanings of Words**

V. F. Allen gives the following example to show how to use simple English to illustrate meanings of words:

Let's take the word 'parent', for example. The meaning of 'parent' can be made clear to students who already know the words 'person', 'mother' and 'father'. We can put parent into a defining sentence like this: " A parent is a person's mother and father" (Allen, 1983:46).

In this example, it is possible to see how a teacher can make use of the words that students already know and use simple English to illustrate the meaning of a new word. Defining English words by means of simpler English may be seen easy, but it is

sometimes very difficult to find appropriate simple words to convey the precise meaning of the word, and this skill cannot be acquired easily. Allen in her book, Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary, states that skill in the use of the technique requires considerable experience in teaching English to speakers of other languages. It is added that through repeated contact with learners at various levels that one discovers which words an Intermediate Level student may be expected to know (Allen, 1983:46). However, those who do not have enough teaching experience are lucky as Allen claims that fortunately, there is an excellent source of help: A book which is known as a learner's dictionary. She recommends two learner dictionaries: The Oxford Student's Dictionary of American English and the Longman's Dictionary of Contemporary English. To show how these learner dictionaries are helpful, she compares definitions of an English verb *drown*, which is taught at Intermediate Level:

- From a learner's dictionary to *drown*: to die by being under water for a long time.
- From a standard dictionary, edited for English speaking people to *drown*: to be suffocated by immersion in water or other liquid, to sink or perish in water (Allen, 1983:47).

After seeing the big difference between two definitions of the verb to *drown*, one can readily appreciate the value of a learner's dictionary, but the other words could also be defined, such as *to be suffocated*, *perish* and *immersion*. Since these words are more abstract than the verb to *drown*, the teachers should make use of simple English explanations to show their meanings.

## **5.2 Illustrative Situations and Sentences**

Because lexical items are more abstract in Intermediate classes, teachers cannot use visual techniques extensively. So, some other techniques to illustrate the meanings of words are needed. Allen (1983:48) gives the following example to show how to use the technique of illustrative sentences and situations:

The dead boy's mother was very sad after her son drowned in the river.

In the previous sentence the students guess the meaning of the verb *drown*. This is a self-illustrative sentence since there is no need to define it, as learners can get the meaning easily from the clues in the sentence. V. F. Allen sees illustrative sentences as being more useful than a definition and gives another example:

Those boxes contain chalk.

That bottle contains water.

Handbags often contain money and other things (Allen, 1983:48).

Gairns and Redman (1986:74) give the following example to show how helpful illustrative situations and sentences are.

To illustrate the meaning of *I don't mind* the following context may be useful:

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

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

Billy: *I don't mind*.

After dealing with this situation, the teacher may want learners to suggest other situations in which they can have a chance to practice this phrase. For example, the teacher may encourage learners to offer something like this:

Do you want a glass of cold water or a glass of orange juice?

Then, learners can say *I don't mind*. Or 'a glass of cold water, please'

(Gairns and Redman, 1986:22).

### 5.3 Use of Synonyms

Teachers can use synonyms with Intermediate Level students extensively since the definition of a word may not be enough to convey the exact meaning. For example, it can be explained that *miserable* means *very sad* since learners in Intermediate classes will be familiar with the word *sad*. If they are not familiar with *very sad*, it would be justifiable to tell them that *miserable* means *very unhappy*. However, as Gairns and Redman assert,

It is rarely the case that two words will be synonymous on every occasion, if they were, there would be little need to have both words in the language (Gairns and Redman, 1986:23).

In other words, a word doesn't convey completely the meaning of another word, so when the term *synonym* is used, *partial synonym* arouses from this term. However, this technique can be used without having much difficulty because the synonym of a lexical item that is taught at Intermediate Level can be found. Learners who have a good knowledge of elementary level vocabulary will not have any difficulty in comprehending the meanings of synonymous words. For example, *kid*, generally taught at Intermediate Level, meaning *child*, is usually taught at elementary level.

#### **5.4 Use of Antonyms**

Like synonyms, antonyms are also an important means of presentation since they help us to make deductions about unknown lexical items. Gairns and Redman give the following sentence to show how vital antonyms are in contextual guesswork:

I expected him to be very hard- working but in fact he was very idle  
(Redman and Gairns, 1983:22).

In this sentence the word *idle* is an antonym of the word *hard-working*. Learners can easily get the meaning of 'idle' through its opposite 'hard-working' in this context.

Not all antonyms have the same form of opposites. They can be divided into four: Complementaries, converses, multiple taxonomics, and gradable antonyms.

### 5.4.1 Complementaries

These are forms of antonyms that definitely represent oppositeness of meaning. They cannot be graded, and if one of the pair is applicable, then the other is not. They are said to be mutually exclusive.

e.g. : A is male. B is female.

If a human being or animal is male, then clearly it cannot be female.

### 5.4.2 Converses

There is another form of opposite which consists of certain pairs of lexical items. We can say that two words paraphrase each other, and we can see the relationship between the pairs as being reciprocal. Social and family relationships provide many examples of converses as space and time relations do.

- e.g. 1- a. Debbie is Jack's wife.  
b. Jack is Debbie's husband.
- 2- a. The picture is above the fireplace.  
b. The fireplace is below the picture.

### 5.4.3 Gradable Antonyms

These are relative in meaning and always imply comparison with a socially determined norm. This category generally includes adjectives like big/small, short/long, young/old, etc. We should bear in mind that with many gradable antonyms, especially those with size and age, only one of the pair is commonly used as the unmarked term.

e. g. : How long is the room? (not how short).

It is ten metres long (not ten metres short).

### 5.4.4 Multiple Taxonomy



Multiple taxonomies are sets of semantic systems which are of interest to teachers and students as they can be easily memorised, and many exist in other languages. Some of these are closed systems while others are open. Here are some examples of closed systems:

- Monday/Tuesday/Wednesday/Thursday/Friday/Saturday/Sunday
- Spring/Summer/Autumn/Winter

Open-ended systems include further examples of hyponyms and superordinates:

- Tools: screwdriver, hammer, saw, etc.
- Vehicles: bus, van, lorry, car, etc.

## **5.5 Cognates and ‘False Friends’**

There is always a similarity in form between the target language vocabulary and the learner’s own vocabulary. However, the degree of similarity in form and meaning of words may change from one language to another. Words that are similar in form and meaning are called ‘cognates’.

As Redman and Gairns claim, cognates give learners a sense of satisfaction as well as allowing them to focus on a new phonological system (1986:67). Rivers and Temperley talk about the use of cognates as a technique, as follows:

There may be cognates that descend from a common ancestor. e .g. German *apfel*, English *apple*; borrowed words from other languages which have been completely assimilated in pronunciation and applied to similar but not necessarily identical phenomena, such as French *le sandwich*, English *sandwich*, or English words more recently adapted in their original form in the student’s native language as designations for distinctively American or British

phenomena. e.g. the words *test*, *baseball*, and *jazz* are used freely in a number of languages (1978:191).

*Taxi*, *hotel*, and *bar* are the most well-known cognates since they have some sort of universality. However, cognates such as *television*, *train*, and *radio* are low level lexical items since learners at the Intermediate Level already know such words. However, there are still Intermediate level words that can be taught by using cognates. Words like *politics*, *parallel*, and *category*, which mean in Turkish respectively *politika*, *paralel*, and *kategori*, can be taught by making use of cognates. On the other hand, items which appear to be cognates require attention to spelling, pronunciation and syntax.

To define the term *cognate* with its all aspects, the term *false friends* should be known. Wallace asserts that speaking a language which has this kind of close relationship in certain areas with English is certainly an advantage, but it is not an unmixed blessing. He also defines *false friends* as follows:

Words might often seem similar in related languages but they may have totally different meanings; these are the words known to language learners as *false friends* (Wallace, 1982:26).

## **5.6 Mnemonic Techniques**

A mnemonic device connects the new item to be remembered with an item which already exists in memory. The goal of all mnemonic devices is to implant an unfamiliar object, idea or word form into memory through an association with a familiar object. This is done by logical connection, similarity, contrast or simultaneous occurrence (Keller 1978:7). The learner might make use of such mnemonic learning strategies to make the task of learning new words easy for him. Mnemonic strategies have received considerable attention in cognitive psychology and are believed to have implications for verbal learning.

Learners might make use of mnemonic devices especially at the early stages of development. A phonetic association between the foreign language word and a word in

the native language can be formed and the native language word can form a visual image in the learner's mind which would facilitate recalling the foreign language word. For example, a Turkish speaker learning English might make an association between the English word *dish* and the Turkish word *diş* due to their phonetic similarity and form a striking image such as picturing himself eating an exotic dish in a restaurant with his teeth.

Direct borrowings and cognates are two types of mnemonic correspondences suggested by Keller (1978:70). Etymological similarities between the native language and the foreign language can facilitate the learning of vocabulary items especially at the elementary stage.

Cognates, whatever the cause of the similarity, constitute the least difficult words for the learner (Lado,1972:44). Although Turkish and English belong to different language families, they have cognates mostly due to the fact that Turkish has borrowed a lot of words from French, and these words have English cognates. These words are similar with only one or two different sounds.

e. g. : Piano- piyano

Radio - radyo

Telephone – telefon

The task of students who learn English for academic purposes is especially easy as far as technical terms are concerned since a lot of these words in Turkish are direct borrowings:

e. g. : Machine - makine

Fax - faks

Electricity -elektrik

Keller states that:

The main advantage of using cognates and direct borrowings is that as students acquire an appreciation of sound changes and phonetic correspondences, they begin to recognize the relationships on their own (Keller 1978: 9).

In her article titled “Memory In Language Learning”, Irene Thompson (1987:11) mentions mnemonic techniques by giving ‘the Peg’ and ‘the Keyword’ methods. These two methods involve a wide range of creative activity. The Peg Method states that:

...unrelated items, such as words in a word list, are recalled by linking these items with a set of memorized ‘pegs’ or ‘hooks’ which can vary from rhyming words to digits.

According to Wenden, the well-known Keyword Method:

...calls for establishment of an acoustic and imaginable link between a L2 word to be learned and a word in L1 which 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 (Wenden, 1987:44).

According to Thompson (1987:12), Spatial mnemonics have three methods: The Loci Method, Spatial Grouping, and The Finger Method. The Loci Method is the oldest technique dating back to the Romans who used it to memorize speeches. In this technique, one imagines a familiar location such as a room and then mentally places the first item to be remembered in the first location, the second item in the second location and so forth.

Spatial Grouping means rearranging words on a page to form patterns such as a triangle appealing to improve recall.

The Finger Method is another variation of the spatial method. The lexical items are associated with a finger in accordance with its importance.

## **5.7 Translation**

Translation technique has not been regarded very highly, and it has sometimes been seen as an inadequate technique. On the other hand, Nation discusses translation as a technique in the following way:

It is true that the use of translation as a way of teaching meaning has its drawbacks. It is usually too quick, it takes away time that could have been used to expose the learners to English, and often there are not exact equivalents of English words in the mother tongue. However, translation shares these drawbacks with other ways of conveying meaning, too. It is necessary to look at translation as just one of many similar ways of presenting meaning. By careful use of translation in suitable teaching techniques, many of these drawbacks can be avoided (Nation,1990:62).

Like Nation, Redman and Gairns (1986:75) regard very highly of translation as a technique and defend its usefulness:

We have spoken to teachers who have admitted feeling guilty about the use of translation in the classroom; almost as if they were cheating. This is quite ridiculous for translation can be a very effective way of conveying meaning. It can save valuable time that might otherwise be spent on tortuous and largely unsuccessful explanations in English, and it can be a very quick way to dispose of the frequency items that may worry the students but do not warrant significant attention (1986:75).

However, both Nation and Redman believe that teachers should not rely on the use of translation too heavily since their students will lose some of the essential spirit and atmosphere of being in a language learning classroom.

## **5.8 Student-Centered Techniques**

At Intermediate Level, students have some knowledge of the target language. They can make some efforts to solve some problems with that knowledge since it becomes increasingly difficult for the teacher to satisfy the different needs of students and to select vocabulary that will be equally useful to each one. To show the importance of student-centered techniques Redman and Gairns argue about it as follows:

There has been a trend in recent years to develop more self access materials, and in the classroom a desire to shift the focus away from the teacher and concentrate on more student-centered activities. This not only makes the student more responsible for his own learning but also permits greater attention to individual needs (1986:82).

Consequently, the teacher in Intermediate classes should try to encourage students to gain autonomy and direct them to be concerned with learning vocabulary as a very serious task. When an unexpected lexical item surfaces during the course of a lesson, learners should try to acquire that word by their own skills.

### **5.8.1 Using a Dictionary**

Vocabulary plays an important role in the process of first and second language learning, and vocabulary teaching is an important part of school learning (Fisher, 1990:127). Although new vocabulary is usually taught in school environments, some words are learned independently by students. According to Fisher et al., there are two ways of independent vocabulary learning. One is through guessing strategies while listening and reading, and the other is through making use of a dictionary. Nation (1993) considers using dictionaries essential to enhance vocabulary size both inside or outside the classroom but believes that they are rarely used as a technique.

On the other hand, the use of dictionaries in vocabulary learning is controversial. Carr and Wilson (1986:588) regard dictionary use as one of the weakest ways of learning new vocabulary. Dufflemeyer (1980:35) also claims that students learn more vocabulary when they are taught new vocabulary strategies, rather than in traditional ways, such as using the dictionary. Moreover, Graves and Penn (cited in Fisher et al., 1990) assert that

dictionary use in teaching vocabulary can only contribute superficially to the understanding of meanings. However, Fisher et al. (1990:135) claims that using a dictionary effectively may bring about word learning or acquisition, and draw our attention to the fact that there is not enough research into vocabulary learning through dictionary use.

Redman and Gairns (1986:79) present some arguments about the advantages and disadvantages of using a dictionary as a learning technique:

If the student has no teacher or peer to ask, he can still have a number of problems by using a dictionary. This could be a dictionary especially written for foreign students or a bilingual dictionary. In the late 1970s, many teachers were suspicious of the use of dictionaries, feeling that this was synonymous with on the part of student who was unwilling to use his own resources and guess the meaning for himself.

Redman and Gairns also claim that:

The criticism above all have some validity but it is important at the same time to consider certain advantages in the use of dictionaries. A learner who makes good use of a dictionary, will be able to continue learning outside the classroom and this will give him considerable autonomy about the decisions he makes about his own learning (Gairns and Redman, 1986:79).

Agatha Christie (1851-1976) is one of the world's best-known and best-loved authors. Her famous detectives, Hercule Poirot and Miss Marple, and her brilliantly constructed plots have caught the imagination of generations of readers. Although she lived to an old age and wrote many books, she didn't *reveal* much about her personal life.

In the example, the underlined word reveal might mean *to uncover* or *to show* if looked at from the learner's point of view. If the learner looks it up in the dictionary, he will solve the ambiguity.

### **5.8.2 Effect of Dictionary Use on Vocabulary Learning**

Lupescu and Day (1993:266) investigated the role that bilingual dictionaries play in the learning of second language vocabulary. One of their hypotheses was as follows: "There will be no significant difference in the measure of vocabulary learned by participants using bilingual dictionaries and those not using dictionaries." In their study, 293 first and second year university EFL students answered multiple-choice questions on a reading passage entitled "The Mystery of an African Mask". One hundred and forty-eight of the students, who were in the treatment group, used their bilingual dictionaries, while reading, whereas the others were not allowed to.

The results, however, did not confirm the hypothesis that there would be no difference between the two groups, but rather provided evidence that the use of a bilingual dictionary by EFL students while reading can significantly improve vocabulary learning. However, the extent to which a bilingual dictionary would help learners' reading comprehension was not part of their study. This study was also limited to the use of a bilingual dictionary.

## **5.9 Guessing From the Context**

This technique simply means to use the context in which the new lexical item occurs to get an idea of the item's meaning. Intermediate Level students have a great advantage with this technique because they can make use of their previous knowledge of English to guess the meaning of new words. The following example illustrates this point:

If I hadn't overslept, I wouldn't have been late for work.

In this example the word *overslept* is a new word for the learners. However, they already know parts of the new word. They know *over* and *sleep*. So, they can easily guess



the meaning of the word. In fact, guessing from the context is a reading skill. Redman and Gairns talk about the value of this skill in *Vocabulary Learning* in the following way:

...the ability to guess from the context is clearly a valuable skill and should play a part in textual exploitation in class. It should be remembered, though that are students for whom contextual guesswork is an obvious strategy that does not require a lot of time spent on it. Other students may have considerable difficulty with this type of task and would need to have the skill developed more gradually (1986:83).

Guessing from the context can be easier if learners know how to identify contextual clues. Nation counts various types of clues like this:

Several writers describe various types of clues that can provide information to help in guessing. Brown (1980:27) lists definition, learner's experience of the world, contrast, inference, and analysis. Sternberg lists grammar, punctuation, definition, contrast, connectives, reference words, word analysis, and the learner's experience and common sense (1983:878).

Guessing words from the context is essentially used as a strategy to comprehend the overall meaning in a reading text. It is suggested that EFL or ESL students do not need to understand each and every word when they read a text because it is not possible to know every single word (Oxford, 1990:110). However, both EFL and ESL students sometimes see some unknown words in a text that they in fact need to know in order to figure out the overall meaning of the text or even a specific idea in the text. In such situations, teachers should either teach the unknown words, or the students themselves should find the meanings by looking them up in a dictionary or guessing. As Twadell (1973:61) states, even though students are taught word meanings out of context, there are polysemic words whose meanings can change from one context to another. At these times, guessing words from context rather than looking them up in dictionaries is recommended to improve students' comprehension.

Guessing from context is also helpful to increase reading speed as well as to improve comprehension. It is also related to fast reading, because of the argument that using a dictionary results in a slowing of the learners' reading pace, which consequently, weakens their comprehension of the passage. Although guessing from context may increase reading speed, it may not necessarily lead to recall (Haynes, 1984:163; Mondria&Boer ,1991:249).

For guessing strategies, the students use word-analysis, cognates, and mismatches. This means remembering the word or its forms in English or their native language. *Uncertainty of familiarity* means that the student was familiar with this word, but not able to remember. The kind of misunderstandings that may occur when guessing from context, can be explained as: The wrong choice of meaning of a polysemy, mistranslating a morphological trouble maker, mistranslating an idiom, and confusion of a false cognate (Bensoussan& Laufer, 1984:22). The word's 'guessability' thus depends on the student's using preconceived notions which students have about the meaning of a word or phrase rather than using the context.

## **5.10 VOCABULARY CARDS**

Dale (1971:151) claims that there are several levels of comprehension involved in word knowledge:

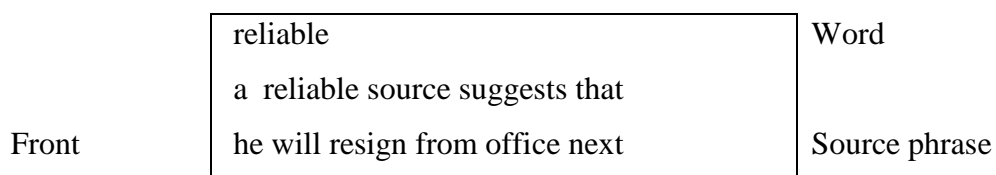
- I never saw it before.
- I've heard of it, but I don't know what it means.
- I recognize it in context, but I don't know what it means.
- I know it.

Dale suggests that teachers and students should concentrate on stages two and three in an attempt to move as many “almost known” words into stage four. Consequently, they should work systematically and follow certain methods for recording and practicing new vocabulary (Chaplin 1981:37).

Martin (1977:91) recommends the use of vocabulary cards ( 8 cm.x 6 cm. ) for recording vocabulary. This process can be summarized as follows:

- The student writes the vocabulary item on one side of the card. Because the shape of the word can be used as a mnemonic device for remembering meaning, it is recommended that the item should not be written in capital letters.
- The sentence which contains the words and the situations in which it is seen or heard should be recorded.
- The spelling, the stressed syllables and the related forms of the word should also appear on the card.
- On the back of the card, the student should write down the definition of the word with the help of a dictionary if necessary. Chaplen (1981:42) suggests that the translation of the item and/or a picture of it should be put on this side.

It is believed that it would be useful to include the part of speech of the word on the back of the card as shown below:



week.	Or sentence
The New York Times	Source
Article on politics	

Back	re li a ble (adj)	Syllables and stress
	dependable, worthy of trust	Definition
	reliance (n)	related forms
	reliant (adj)	
	a major textbook should be a reliable source.	student's own sentence

Sample vocabulary card (Martin et al. 1977: 91)

## 5.11 SOME POINTS ON VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES

In this section, there are some clues to help both students in vocabulary learning and foreign language teachers in vocabulary teaching. They can be summarised as following:

- Associate the word to the learning situation: This strategy involves creating a mental picture of the learning situation itself. Students think about what happened when they were trying to learn the word. Remembering the mental processes they went through when learning a word evokes the meaning of the word in their mind.
- Guess the meaning using context clues: Students, before looking the word up in the dictionary, try to guess the meaning of the word using the clues (grammar,

punctuation, definition, contrast, connectives, reference words, word analysis, learner's experience...) in the rest of the sentence or the text itself.

- Look up unknown words in a dictionary as little as possible: Students try to define or expand a definition of a word through use of a comprehensive English-Turkish or English-English dictionary.
- Notice the sample sentences when looking up a word in the dictionary: In order to understand and store the meaning of the word better, students should read and pay attention to the sample sentences which illustrate the use of the word.
- Pay more attention to the affixes that the word includes: Students should notice the prefixes/suffixes which words are made of. They can use the meanings of these affixes as clues to remember the meaning of the word.
- Associate word with a synonym or an antonym: Students seek to learn the target word as a synonym or antonym of another known word.
- Try to pronounce the word: When students look up a word in the dictionary, they try to pronounce it aloud to themselves focusing on the perception of the sounds.
- Notice the parts of speech: Students decide on the words' grammatical class (e.g. verb, noun, adjective, etc). They analyse the grammatical structure of the word (e.g. countable noun, regular verb, etc.).
- Use the word in a sentence: Students try to make meaningful sentences using new words in order to remember them.
- Associate the word to another word already known, to pictures, actions or personal experiences: Students try to find a relationship between the target word and some other word they already know ( e.g. sharing a similar origin with the target word), or

between the target word and a picture, or else, they try to associate it to their personal lives/experiences.

- Review well: In order not to forget, students review word lists at different intervals in a meaningful way.
- Physically act out the new word: Students physically act out a new word, finding that physical movement helps engrave the new word in memory.
- Have a special vocabulary notebook: Students have a special note-book for copying down interesting, useful or frequently-used new words they meet in their readings to fix them in their memory, or to review them later.
- Associate the word to its location: Students learn the word with its location in the text or the learning material (e.g. second word of the list, somewhere in the middle, the last one on the page, etc.).
- Associate word to a L1 cognate: Students try to compare and find a relationship between the target word and some other word in Turkish. They search for words in Turkish that are similar in English.



## Chapter 6

### From Theory to Practice

Games can be played in class with the aim of reinforcing and reviewing vocabulary items. Games are important for two reasons: They provide motivation, and they give students an opportunity to communicate in the target language. The element of fun in every game makes learning enjoyable, and this motivates the learners. Gasser and Waldman (1979: 53) claim that games appeal not only to children but also to adult learners, stating, "... adolescents and adults enjoy games as much as children and, if the purpose of a game is explained to them, they do not feel that it is childish or out of place to participate in a game in the language classroom." Some important points in organizing a game can be summarised as follows: First of all, explanations should be clear and easily understood. The scoring system should be fair and easy to work. Interruptions in order to correct students' errors should be infrequent.

Vocabulary lends itself easily to the *games* approach, and quite a few vocabulary games have been developed. Most games increase the motivation of students but lack the function of what usually are called 'communication games'. That is to say, they fail to give students an opportunity to use language in more realistic situations. Nevertheless, a vocabulary game is a useful means of reinforcement.

In this part of the study, some practice activities will be examined to exemplify the use of techniques that have been discussed above, and effort will be made to present some useful activities for teaching and recalling lexical items. Moreover, some games will be suggested which are very useful to practice vocabulary the Intermediate students know, and some passive lexical items will gradually be transformed into active vocabulary by means of these games. Before doing that, there are some guidelines to keep Intermediate students interested and encouraged.



## 6.1 Maintaining the Intermediate Students' Interest

To keep Intermediate students motivated, the teacher should know their main characteristics:

- They need to extend their knowledge of vocabulary related to common areas of experience (food, clothing, transportation, health and human relation...).
- They have already learned many basic words. So, the teacher can use simple English explanations for producing new vocabulary.
- Intermediate students have reached a point in their language study where many have become discouraged and lost interest.
- One reason for Intermediate students' possible discouragement is the increasing difficulty of the vocabulary which must be learned (Allen, 1983:72).

Teachers who have a little teaching experience know that beginners are usually quite keen on learning a second language since they are very pleased to be able to say and understand a few foreign words. However, students lose their interest and learning can become boring and undesirable experience when learners get to the Intermediate Level. As stated by Allen (1983:67), there are two reasons for this. Firstly, students have become aware of the difficulties. Secondly, their efforts may bring less satisfaction, and fewer rewards. She also suggests the following to keep the students' mind alert and to compensate for loss of motivation:

When students come to the Intermediate class in a discouraged state of mind, they need activities that offer immediate rewards to make an effort to learn. One of the best rewards is the satisfaction of being able to do something by means of English words that one knows. That is one of the principal reasons for using simplified readings at the Intermediate Level of instruction (Allen, 1983:72).

She also proposes giving simplified reading to create a helpful sense of achievement since students feel encouraged by being able to read a story or essay without having a great difficulty. There is another helpful way, she suggests, to give students experience in the use of words. Another technique is to ask the students to respond to commands given in English. At the Intermediate Level, commands can be useful in having the students use more complex grammatical structures as well as more advanced vocabulary, as in the following example the following example:

For instance, after easy commands like *stand up* and *sit down* have been reviewed, students may be asked to perform some actions in response to such commands as:

When I stop clapping my hands, turn your head to the right.

Put both hands on your shoulders without turning your head.

Raise your right hand if Europe is a country, but touch your shoulder if it is a continent (Allen, 1983:67).

With a bit of careful consideration, it is not hard to create new things to make Intermediate classes enjoyable and amusing.

## **6.2 Games for Vocabulary Learning at Intermediate Level**

In suggesting games for vocabulary learning, the aim is not to waste time in the class but to expand the vocabulary of learners. Games are helpful since they can make students feel that certain words are important and necessary to achieve the object of the game. Here, the place of games in teaching vocabulary will not be discussed since it goes beyond the limits of this study, so here just an example will be given:

### **Example 1: Jumbled Letters**

Teams are given letter cards. Each card contains one letter of the target word. For instance:

RECEIVE. The letter-cards are given out in random order, and the players have to rearrange them in the correct order. The first team to complete this correctly wins (Wallace, 1982:106).

### **Example 2: Crossword Puzzles**

Crossword puzzles may be prepared by teachers and learners, and then tried-out in the classroom. This provides practice in recalling erratum from their definitions or by association. Students can use the kind of definitions that they find in monolingual dictionaries (Wallace, 1982:106).

### **Example 3: What is it?**

The teacher prepares some simplified drawings of real-life situations. e.g. hammer, clothing like coat, jacket, overcoat, vest, etc. Each object is taken in turn and drawings of it are built up on the blackboard, one line at a time, pausing at the end of the each line. The players have to guess what is being drawn (Wallace, 1982:106).

### **Example 4: Tail to Head**

A student thinks of a word and says it aloud. B has to say a word that begins with the last letter of A's word, then C says a word beginning with the last letter of B's word, and so on, round the circle until someone makes a mistake, or can not find a word (Morgan ND Rinvaluceri, 1987:93).

## **6.3 Activities**

In this part, there are some activities to show how to use the techniques that have been discussed.

### **6.3.1 Activity 1**

## A General Approach, Applicable to Teaching Almost Any Word

Step 1. LEAD IN: The teacher establishes a context in which s/he will teach the word.

Step 2. CONVEY MEANING: The teacher can convey the meaning of a word through various devices such as definitions, active demonstration, visual aids, synonyms, antonyms, or translation.

Step 3. REPETITION: The students should repeat the word in isolation until they have no difficulty in pronouncing it.

Step 4. VERIFICATION: The teacher needs to verify that the students have understood the word for sure.

Step 5. USE: The teacher asks the students some open-ended questions which will allow for varied answers.

Step 6. MODEL SENTENCE: A model sentence should either be put on the blackboard or dictated to the students by using the new word.

An example will clarify the above approach:

Step 1. LEAD IN: Professor Smith never changes his mind.

Step 2. CONVEY MEANING: Once Professor Smith makes up his mind about something, he is adamant.

Step 3. REPETITION: adamant, adamant, ...

Step 4. VERIFICATION: Is your father adamant when he gives you orders?

Step 5. USE: Do you think it is good for teachers and parents to be adamant? Who is more adamant, a man or a woman?

Step 6. MODEL SENTENCE: Because of the nature of politics, it is not wise for a politician to be too adamant (Murcia and McIntosh, 1989:248).

### 6.3.2 Activity 2

Pre-text Activity

Predicting Words (Morgan and Rinvoluceri, 1986; 15).

**Time:** 20-25 minutes

**Preparation:** Choose a text with a fairly narrow and predictable set words by its content and style. Examples of suitable texts might be:

- Advertisements.
- Passages from course books (this is an excellent way of stimulating interest in a dull text).
- News items with a well-known theme (jokes, talks, earthquakes, sports reports).
- Fairy stories and folk tales that are known by the students (E.g. Cinderella, George Washington, the Cherry Tree, and Nasreddin Hodja stories).
- Instructions, recipes, and product descriptions.
- Popular songs.

#### In Class

1- Tell the students that later in the lesson, they will be reading a text listening to a tape about a story. Give them a rough idea of what the piece will be about. In the examples below, tell them they are going to read a short newspaper item about gang-land killings involving ice-cream salesmen in Glasgow.

2- Ask the students, in pairs, to predict some of the vocabulary they might encounter in the text. Get them to produce a list of 8-10 items. Allow dictionaries, and give them assistance when asked.

1- Ask the students to form larger groups (8-12) and explain their lists to one another.

2- Give out the texts / play the recording / tell the story.

**Variation:** A Polish colleague, Malgorzata Sz waj takes the first part of the title of the piece, and asks the class to suggest ways of completing it, and to explain what their suggested titles might refer to, we can present the following text to them.

### **Sample Texts: Great Glasgow Ice-cream War**

A vicious ice-cream vendetta, which has raged for almost two years, may have led to one of Scotland's worst mass-murder cases in many decades.

Six members of the Doyle family died after their Glasgow home was set alight almost two weeks ago. Of the nine people sleeping in the four-storey tenement, only three survived.

Last week it emerged that one of the dead, 18-year-old Andrew Doyle, had been working as a part-time ice-cream seller and been attacked and threatened twice.

A source within the huge West of Scotland ice-cream business said he believed the murders were a direct result of a final warning 'a frightener that backfired and went badly wrong'.

Ice-cream van sales in the Glasgow area are a highly lucrative business. Most ply their trade on the sprawling council estates where you can find only few shops. As well as selling ice-cream, most make a healthy living acting as travelling shops.

Rivalry between van drivers and companies is intense and, while respectable firms have generally carved out their own areas, ‘cowboys’ have moved in, threatening drivers in an attempt to take over their patch.

Andrew Doyle was attacked while he was in his van, and two shotgun blasts were fired through his windscreen. Shortly before the fire at his home in Bankhead Street, he was beaten up outside by four men. Mr. Archie McDougall, company secretary of Marchetti Bros, which employed Doyle, said he had been told by the police not to say anything.

But a senior member of one of the larger companies said: ‘Over the last two years we have had drivers literally chucking the job on the spot. They have been threatened, their windows have been smashed, they have been attacked and shotguns pointed at them. We are after gangsters with weapons who also deal in drugs and pirate video tapes. In this case, we reckon it was a frightener that backfired.’

The police investigating the murder are reluctant to discuss their inquiries except to say that the ice-cream vendetta is one of their important inquiries. Detective Chief Superintendent Charles Craig, who is leading the hunt, said: ‘There are several lines of inquiry. The ice-cream vendetta, so called, is one of them.’ (The Observer, 29 April, 1984).

### **6.3.3 Activity 3**

#### **Working With Texts**

#### **Hunt the Misfits (Morgan and Rinvoluceri, 1986; 38-9).**

**Time:** 20-35 minutes

**Preparation:** Choose a short passage that you think will be easy for your students. Change some of the words in it so that it no longer makes proper sense. In class you will need copies of both the original passage and the doctored one. (See sample material on the next page.)

**In Class:**

- 1- Give each of the students a copy of the doctored text and ask them to read it. Do not tell them what you have done to the text-let it down on them. Eventually, one or more students will point out that there is something wrong, and you can ask them to make corrections.
- 2- When they have corrected as much as they can, ask them to check each other's work.
- 3- Give out the undoctored passage.

**In A Later Class:** When the students have done two or three editing exercises like the one above, give them an undoctored text and invite them to change it: Students take even more pleasure in constructing the texts than in 'correcting' them. Choose a text for this purpose that presents few comprehension problems, and make sure that the students have dictionaries to hand. Above all, the students must know enough to feel that the text is within their grasp.

**Variation**

- 1 - Put up the following sentence on the blackboard and invite the class to correct it: Mario is not holy bad.
- 2- Now put up this sentence and invite them to introduce a similar, creative mistake: Peter is my best friend.



3- Ask them, in small groups, to deform other simple sentences, e.g. London is the capital city of England.

Elena asked me to feed the cats.

There is no money in the bank.

### **Sample Texts : Charlie Cairoli the Clown Dies Aged 70**

Charlie Cairoli, one of the best-known circus clowns in the country, died yesterday at the age of 70. Instantly recognisable with his visual hallmarks of bowler hat and shiny red nose he had delighted audiences at the Black Pool Tower circus for nearly forty years.

Cairoli was born in France, the son of a juggler, and began his performing career at the age of five. He came to Britain in 1938 and became the leading feature of the Black Pool Tower circus, where he remained until ill health forced him to retire last year. He had great affinity with children (The Times, 18 February 1980).

Charlie Cairoli the Clown Dies Aged 70 (doctored text)

Charlie Cairoli, one of the best-known circus clones to perform in this country, died yesterday at the age of 70. Instantly recognisable with his visual hallmarks of bowler hat and polished red nose he had delighted congregations at the Black Pool Tower circus for less than forty years. Cairoli as born in France, the son of a juggler, and began his deforming career at the age of five. He came to Britain in 1938 and became the leading feature of the Black Pool Tower circus, where he remained until ill health invited him to retire last year. He had a small affinity with children.

#### 6.3.4 Activity 4

### **Pictures and Mime**

## **Build Words into A Picture (Morgan and Rinvoluceri, 1986; 57).**

**Time:** 15 minutes

**Preparation:** Choose twelve words from the text unit you are going to teach in the course book. They should be new words.

### **In Class:**

- 1- Tell the group that they are going to draw a picture incorporating some of the new words from the next unit. The students should work independently of each other.
- 2- Tell them the first word, either explaining its meaning in English, paraphrasing it with a known word, miming it, or translating it. They make a drawing representing it /give them the second word and explain / translate it. They continue drawing a picture, incorporating the second word idea. In this way, they build each of the twelve words into one picture.
- 3- Say the words again slowly, and ask them to write each word over its representation.

### 6.3.5 Activity 5

#### **Pictures and Mime**

#### **The Picture behind the Story (Morgan and Rinvoluceri, 1986; 62)**

**Time :** 20-30 minutes

**Preparation :** Choose a painting or a strange photograph that makes you think of a story. Work the story out in your mind and get prepared to say it in English. Don't write notes. The story should be derived from the picture but shouldn't be described.

### **In Class:**

- 1- Tell your students you were looking at a painting / photo when a story came into your mind. Tell the story.
- 2- Now ask the students to imagine the picture which was inspired from the story, and draw it.
- 3- Let them compare pictures and explain how they related the pictures to the story, and draw it.
- 4- Show the original picture.

#### 6.3.6 Activity 6

##### **Word Sets**

##### **Word Profiles (Morgan and Rinvoluceri, 1986:70)**

**Time:** 10-15 minutes

##### **In Class**

- 1- Write up three examples on the blackboard, as seen in the example. e.g. old, grey, expensive. Then suggest a few things that include all these, such as a Rolls Royce, a castle, the Prime Minister, and invite the class to suggest more.
- 2- Invite a student to offer three more adjectives and ask the group to find 4-6 things that could be described by them.
- 3- Ask each student to write three adjectives on a slip of paper and to fold the paper. Collect up the slips and mix them in a hat or box. Then get one student to pick out a slip at random, open it, and write the adjectives up on the board.

- 4- Ask the students, working individually, to produce a list of things described by the new set of adjectives.
- 5- Get the students into groups of 4-7 to compare them and explain their lists.

### 6.3.7 Activity 7

#### **Revision Exercises**

#### **Word Rush (Morgan and Rinvoluceri, 1986:122)**

**Time:** 10 minutes

**Preparation:** Put 20 words to be reviewed each on to a separate card.

**In Class:**

- 1- Divide the class into two teams, A and B. Have the two teams assemble at one end of the classroom.
- 2- Call out a member of each team and show them one word.
- 3- Each team member rushes back to his or her team and draws the word. He must not write, speak, gesture, or whisper! The first team that recognises the word from the drawing and shouts it out correctly, and gets a point.



## Chapter 7

### Conclusion

Some authors claim that vocabulary is not taught, but is learned at Intermediate Level. It is hard to agree on such a theory, although it may be valid for advanced level students as long as they are 'good dictionary users'. Today, it is accepted that learning word meanings cannot be achieved only through the use of a dictionary. Students can often be found complaining about not being able to learn foreign words easily or without assistance.

As students are often inefficient at vocabulary in the right context to some extent, they are often frustrated and demoralised. The reason lying behind this is they assume that dictionary work is the only means of learning unknown English words and that they are obliged to memorise explanations of words. They retain other unknown vocabulary items or memorise their mother tongue equivalents in a mechanical way. This understanding has led to considerable emphasis on vocabulary. The main focus of vocabulary, according to Allen (1983:5) is: first, many EFL classes revealed disappointing results, although much time was devoted to vocabulary teaching by teachers; second, recent research into word meanings deals with lexical problems, and indicates that these problems frequently interfere with communication, resulting in a communication breakdown.

When students reach Intermediate Level, they have already learned some vocabulary and grammatical structures in order to communicate. There can be a similarity between the words taught at beginner level and Intermediate Level because the words in both levels include many words in the daily lives of the students. It shows that there is a recycling of words in Intermediate Level books. Much of the vocabulary cannot be demonstrated through visual aids and actions unlike it is done at elementary level. Thus, each level has its own technique. There are a wide variety of techniques for teaching vocabulary in a foreign or second language. Almost all of these can be used at Intermediate Level since they teach many of the same kind of words that elementary students need. Intermediate students need different techniques from beginners that will

render learning more efficient and effective since the words they encounter require a lot of attention. Moreover, learners and the teacher have to make considerable effort and focus on vocabulary as a serious task because this is the only way to get good feedback and to develop a wider range of vocabulary.

The teacher in Intermediate classes should have a systematic and principled approach to vocabulary to increase the vocabulary size of Intermediate students and to speed up the vocabulary learning process. However, simply increasing learners' vocabulary without creating meaningful situations in which the learners can put this knowledge to use will not do any good. Moreover, just explaining the unknown words or giving a simple explanation will not be enough to solve the problem of vocabulary teaching, and learners may experience frustration in speaking when they cannot find the appropriate word to express their feelings due to inadequate vocabulary. Therefore, just as it is important for an Intermediate class teacher to be good at English sound, grammar and its system, it is also important for him to learn something about the English lexicon. Teachers must be aware of all the teaching techniques that are available and carefully choose those that contextualise the word meaning best.

To sum up, the most important strategy is to keep the Intermediate students interested and to arouse students' curiosity in vocabulary. This will result in the growth of vocabulary beyond the limits of classroom materials. If vocabulary teaching becomes a boring task by giving long explanations and definitions, it will not stimulate any interest in students. Giving attention to vocabulary is vitally important for EFL teachers. If the expansion of vocabulary at Intermediate Levels is ignored, there will not be a good development in the following stages of second language learning.

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