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STRATEGY TRAINING IN VOCABULARY ACQUISITION: AN ACTION RESEARCH

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ABSTRACT

STRATEGY TRAINING IN VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

By

BİLGE KIRAN

This study investigated vocabulary learning strategies within the scope of language learning strategies. The purpose was to determine the repertoire of vocabulary learning strategies of Turkish learners in learning a foreign language and also to find out which vocabulary strategies Turkish teachers of English use while teaching in their EFL classes. Besides, the rationale behind this study was to suggest a vocabulary course supported with vocabulary learning strategies and to provide strategy training to learners and furthermore, to make learners more autonomous vocabulary learners for their future studies.

After reviewing the literature on general learning strategies, vocabulary learning, vocabulary acquisition, the history of teaching vocabulary, the role of teacher, the learner autonomy and the list of vocabulary learning strategies, the action research was defined and carried out. The subjects were 209 Turkish learners of a foreign language in foundation universities' preparatory departments and high level learners of a private college and 56 Turkish teachers of English working in preparatory departments of foundation universities and the private college. Teachers were preferred because they were the original hands to implement strategy training. In the research two questionnaires were adopted. The learners' version was adopted from Rebecca Oxford's strategy inventory for language learning. 22 statements were included in the questionnaire. The teachers' version was prepared parallel to learners' version by the researcher herself. The answers in the questionnaires were counted and the data were gathered and put into graphs. After the analysis of the graphs, the most and the least used strategies by the learners were determined referring to data. It was seen that a wide range of vocabulary learning strategies are known and accepted by the majority of the learners. Memory and cognitive strategies were the most used strategies among learners. Before this study it was expected that learners were not quite aware of different range of vocabulary learning strategies. Teachers also use a greater number of strategies in their

ongoing lessons as they reported that they agreed or totally agreed with the listed 20 statements on teaching vocabulary except using translation. They used metacognitive, cognitive, compensation, social and memory strategies.

The results showed that strategy training in vocabulary could be implemented in a vocabulary course on the most and the least used strategies. There is a strong belief that explicit vocabulary teaching is essential in learners' acquisition of core vocabulary. In fact, a curriculum may be designed to include all vocabulary learning strategies listed in the literature review in case learners may need them in certain tasks. The main aim is to enhance learners and teachers with a repertoire of vocabulary learning strategies in a fully designed vocabulary course. This process of learning is to be visualized like a journey whose passengers are teachers and learners. The destination should be fruitful and should also deserve the effort and the time spent to achieve fruitful learning.

ÖZET

KELİME EDİNİMİNDE STRATEJİ EĞİTİMİ

BİLGE KIRAN

Bu çalışma yabancı dil stratejileri kapsamında kelime öğrenme stratejilerini araştırmıştır. Hedef Türk öğrencilerin yabancı dil öğrenirken kullandıkları stratejileri bulmak ve öğrencilerin kelime strateji repertuarlarını geliştirmek ve aynı zamanda Türk İngilizce öğretmenlerinin yabancı dil sınıflarında dili öğretirken hangi kelime öğretimi stratejilerini kullandıklarını ortaya çıkarmaktadır. Aynı zamanda çalışmanın temelinde kelime öğrenme stratejileri ile desteklenen kelime programı önermek ve öğrencileri gelecek çalışmaları için daha özerk hale getirmektir.

Edebiyat taramasında, genel dil öğrenme stratejilerine göz atıldıktan sonra, kelime öğrenimi, kelime edinimi, öğretmenin rolü, bireyin kendi özerkliği ve kelime öğrenme stratejilerini sıraladıktan sonra araştırma tanımlanıp, uygulanmaya başlanmıştır. Araştırmanın örneklemi vakıf üniversiteleri hazırlık bölümlerinde ve bir özel okulda okuyan yabancı dil öğrenen 209 öğrenci ve bu vakıf üniversitelerinin hazırlık bölümlerinde ve bir özel okulda ders veren 56 yabancı dil öğretmenlerinden oluşmaktadır. Öğretmenlerin seçilmesindeki hedef stratejileri ilk elden uygulayacak olan kişilerin öğretmenler olmasıdır. Araştırmada iki anket uygulanmıştır.Öğrencilerin kullandıkları kelime stratejilerini ölçmek için Oxford'un (1990) Dil Öğrenme Strateji Envanteri (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning -SILL) kullanılmıştır. Öğrenci anketi 22 ifadeden, öğretmen anketi ise 20 ifadeden oluşmaktadır. Öğretmen anketi öğrenci anketi paralelinde araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanmıştır. Verilen cevaplar değerlendirilerek gerekli veri toplanmış ve bu veriler grafiklere aktarılmıştır. Grafik analizlerinden sonra öğrenci ve öğretmenler tarafından en çok ve en az kullanılan stratejiler ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu araştırmaya başlanmadan önce öğrencilerin kelime öğrenme stratejileri hakkında pek bilgi sahibi olmadıkları düşünülmüştür. Araştırmanın sonucunda tespit edilmiştir ki kelime stratejileri öğrencilerin çoğu tarafından biliniyor ve kabul ediliyor. Öğrenciler tarafından en çok kabul edilen stratejiler bellek ve bilişsel stratejilerdir. Öğretmenler ise derslerinde ankette belirtilen kelime öğretimi stratejileri ile ilgili 20 ifadeyi çeviri stratejisi hariç 'kabul ediyorum' veya 'tamamen kabul ediyorum' şeklinde ifade

etmişlerdir. Anketin sonucunda öğretmenlerin bellek, üst-bilişsel, bilişsel, tamamlayıcı ve toplumsal stratejileri kelime öğretiminde kullandıkları tespit edilmiştir.

Sonuç olarak, kelime eğitimi, öğrenciler ve öğretmenler tarafından hiç bilinmeyen veya az kullanılan stratejileri öğretmeyi hedefleyen bir kelime programı içine alınabilir. Çekirdek kelimenin ancak bilinçli bir kelime öğretimi ile edinildiği gerçeği unutulmamalıdır. Müfredat, edebiyat taraması bölümünde bahsedilen tüm kelime öğrenme stratejilerini de içine alacak şekilde düzenlenebilir. Öğrenciler farklı durumlarda farklı stratejilerine ihtiyaç duyabilirler. Ana hedef iyi planlanmış bir kelime programı içinde öğrenci ve öğretmenlerin yeterince kelime öğrenme stratejilerine sahip olmalarını sağlamaktır. Bu öğrenme süreci bir seyahat olarak algılanırsa, bu seyahatin yolcuları, öğretmen ve öğrencilerdir. Varılacak hedef ise harcanacak çaba ve bu çalışma için ayrılan zamana değecek kadar verimli olmalıdır.

ABBREVIATIONS

'LLS': Language learning strategies.

'VLS': Vocabulary learning strategies.

'EFL': English as a foreign language.

'SILL': Strategy Inventory for Languge Learning.

'L1': The native language, the mother tongue, language 1.

'L2': The target language, language 2.

'CLT': Communicative Language Teaching

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STRATEGY TRAINING IN VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. The Research Aim

The aim of this study is to enrich learners' repertoire of vocabulary learning strategies through implementing strategy training and to help learners become autonomous vocabulary learners for their future studies. This study outlines guidelines for strategy training and offers numerous strategies for teachers and learners. Research backgroud underlining cognitive theory, language learning and vocabulary learning strategies, vocabulary learning and acquisition are going to be presented in detail and an action research will be applied in order to determine learner and teacher use of vocabulary strategies. Finally a vocabulary component of a lesson enriched with vocabulary learning strategies will be suggested according to the data gathered out of findings and implications for the teachers will be given.

1.2. Rationale

Learners need to learn how to learn, teachers need to learn how to facilitate the learning process. Many teachers and educationalists see learning how to learn as an essential component. To be a successful learner a learner has to be in control of the way he/she learns. The skill in self-directed learning and strategy use must be sharpened through training. Language learning involves active self-direction on part of the learners. They cannot be taught everything if they desire to reach a higher level of communication. Training highly helps learners, makes learning more meaningful and motivates both learner and teacher. Several research shows that learners who are trained in strategies generally learn better than those who are not. This study will provide insights in strategy training in vocabulary acquisition to help learners and teachers. It is believed that the more teachers know about strategies the

better trainers they will be. If teachers follow the recent books, articles, they will make a great difference in their methods of teaching. The more learners are aware of strategies, the more efficient they will become in learning. Depending on the process of learning, inevitably student and teacher roles will change which will be stated later in the thesis.

The best strategy training benefits learners to gain effective language learning strategies, deals with feelings and beliefs about taking more responsibility and about the change of roles reinforced by the use of learning strategies. Unless learners are aware of their old beliefs about learning, they will have difficulty in altering their perspectives and will not take fully advantage of strategy training.

It is essential to teach explicit strategies for learning vocabulary which is the main interest of this particular study. For students with academic purpose natural learning will not be enough to cope with academic tasks. Academic literacy skills are not acquired naturally. They need instruction and strategy training as well as exposure to the language. In strategy instruction there has been several studies. First successful study mentioned by Coady and Huckin was by Ahmed (1989). In his study on 300 Sudanese learners, he found that good learners used more vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) and applied different strategies than poor learners. He also found that as learners become more experienced, they have progress in strategy use. The second study was about Schouten-Van Parreren (1992, p.94) who in a study of Dutch students concluded that poor learners should be guided in vocabulary learning and reading strategies (276).

However, teaching learners to use new strategies with cognitive tasks has some difficulties. For instance, the learner who sees the task too familiar may be reluctant to use a new strategy but instead relies on automatic problem-solving strategies that have already been learnt. The other dilemma of training is that learners will not use new strategies with tasks that are too difficult or too easy. If the learner recognises the task similarities between new tasks and tasks involved in former strategy applications, the problem is solved easily and the learner will easily apply the strategy. Teachers during this process are figures who control over the learning process.

CHAPTER II

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Procedural Knowledge: Knowledge that consists of the things that we know how to do. It underlies the execution of all complex cognitive skills. Procedural knowledge is stored in long-term memory and is presented internally in terms of production systems. Procedural knowledge includes mental activities such as problem solving, language reception and production, and using learning strategies. It may also include physical activities such as driving a car and trying one's shoes.

Declarative Knowledge: Knowing about language as a grammatical system, which involves knowing the rules underlying the syntax, semantics, and phonology.

Language Learning Strategies: Individual tasks or activities that help learners to foster or to engage in independent learning. They are techniques used by learners to help make their learning more effective and to increase their autonomy as learners. Strategies can be employed by learners to assist with the storage of information, to help with the construction of language rules and to help with an appropriate attitute towards the learning situation.

Metacognitive Strategies: These strategies are actions which go beyond the cognitive devices and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their learning. These strategies include advance organisers, direct attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, and self-evaluation.

Cognitive Strategies: Cognitive strategies are actions that involve mental manipulation or transformation of materials or tasks and are needed to enhance acquisition, retention or comprehension. Cognitive strategies are such as repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note-taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, keyword, contextualisation, elaboration, transfer, and inferencing.

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Affective Strategies: The term 'affective' refers to emotions, motivations and values which are factors to influence language learning. Language learners can gain control over these factors through affective strategies. The affective side of the learner is one of the most important influences on language success or failure. Positive emotions and attitudes make learning more effective.

Social Strategies: Language is a social behaviour. Social strategies are important in this process. These strategies are such as asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others.

Compensation (Determining) Strategies: These strategies enable learners to use the new language for comprehension and production despite limitations in knowledge. Compensation strategies are intended to make up for an inadequate repertoire of grammar and of vocabulary.

Memory Strategies: Storage and retrieval of new information are the two key functions of memory strategies. These strategies help learners store in memory the most important things they hear or read in the language.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies: VLS are strategies that help learners gain control of vocabulary.

Explicit (Intentional) Vocabulary Learning: The learning of vocabulary that occurs as a result of specifically targeting the subject matter to be learnt.

Implicit (Incidental) Vocabulary Learning: The learning of vocabulary by incidental means, such as unconscious exposure to and experience of using words.

Lexical Approach: An approach to teaching languages that has a lot in common with the communicative approach, but also examines how lexical phrases, prefabricated chunks of language, play an important role in producing fluent speech. The lexical approach was first coined by Michael Lewis. The fundamental principle is " language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar." (Lewis, *The Lexical Approach* vi) What this means is that lexical phrases offer far more language generative power than grammatical structures. Accordingly, advocates of this approach argue that lexis should move to the centre of language syllabuses. This approach rejects the split of language into grammar and vocabulary. Instead it proposes four types of language; words, chunks, fixed phrases, semi-fixed phrases. A key concept is collocation, which is related to the idea of word chunks. The approach

emphasizes the need for very large amounts of input, and encourages learners to use grammatical structures without explicitly teaching them.

Learner Autonomy: Learners who have acquired the learning strategies, the knowledge about learning, and the attitudes that enable them to use the skills and knowledge confidently, flexibly, appropriately and independently of a teacher. Students should take responsibility for their own learning, rather than be dependent on the teacher. It changes the teachers' roles from traditional to becoming more of a facilitator and motivator of learners' who become aware of their own learning styles.

Strategy Training: Once a teacher knows how learners are currently learning, he or she can help them learn more effectively. The best training not only teaches LLS but also deals with feelings and beliefs about taking more responsibility and about the role change implied by the use of LLS.

Cognitive Theory: Strategies for learning can be described within the framework provided by cognitive theory. The purpose of this framework is to explain how information is stored in the memory and how new information is acquired. One of the principles of this theory is that behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages during learning influence the learner's encoding process. In this theory language acquisition is best understood as a complex cognitive skill. This provides a mechanism for describing how language learning ability can be improved.

Acquisition: 1) the process of internalising the second language as opposed to simply memorizing the vocabulary and structure of the language; 2) a term used to describe language being absorbed without conscious effort; i.e. the way children pick up their mother tongue. Krashen (1981) distinguishes between acquisition and learning processes; the former involves understanding and communication while the latter is concerned with the conscious monitoring of language use.

Learner Style: A student's orientation toward learning.

Communicative competence: The ability to recognize and to produce language correctly, idiomatically, fluently and appropriately in various communicative settings. The term includes grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence, both orally and in writing.

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Language Learning Strategies

"Learning strategies are the mental and communicative procedures learners use in order to learn and use language" (Nunan 55). They refer to language learning behaviors learners engage in to learn and regulate learning. These learning behaviors are called 'strategies'. The term includes what learners know about the strategies they use- their strategic knowledge. This knowledge is revealed when learners are observed or learners describe what they are doing while performing a task, when they are interviewed or complete a questionnaire. The term also refers what learners know about aspects of their language learning other than the strategies they use, what factors facilitate learning, general principles to learn a language successfully and this knowledge influences a learner's strategy choice.

Learning strategies (LS) are a key part of learner training, learner autonomy, learning styles and cognitivism which will be analysed throughout the thesis. Learning strategies are defined by Rebecca Oxford as " operations employed by the learner to aid acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information"(*Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know* 8) Strategies are learners' optimal means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language. They are "specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving encouragement to tackle a difficult language task- used by students to enhance their own learning" (Scarcella and Oxford 63).

Learning strategies are complex procedures that individuals apply to tasks. They are procedural knowledge which is acquired through cognitive, associative, autonomous stages of learning. At the cognitive stage the strategy instruction is based on declarative knowledge, requires processing in short-term memory and is not performed automatically. A strategy would need to involve choice among other

strategies. It would need to be complex as there are several steps to learn. It would need to require knowledge and benefit from training and increase the efficiency of vocabulary learning and use. There are numerous strategies which have these characteristics. Learners need to know about all of these and also have the skill in using them. Nunan expresses the importance of strategies for two reasons. In the first place, strategies "are tools for active, self-directed involvement which is essential for developing 'communicative competence'". Secondly, learners who have developed appropriate strategies have "greater self-confidence and learn more effectively" (172). When the learner consciously chooses strategies that fit his or her learning style, these strategies become a useful aid for self-regulation of learning. Individual learners' learning styles and strategies can work together. If there is a harmony between a learner (in terms of style and strategy preferences), the methodology and the materials then the student is likely to perform well. If the reverse is true, the learner performs poorly.

A strategy is useful under the following situations;

a)   When the strategy relates well to the foreign language task at hand.

b)   When the strategy fits the particular student's learning style preferences.

c)   When the student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other strategies.

The greatest benefit that teachers may supply to their learners is to help them learn how to learn. Strategies make learning easier, enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations (Oxford 8). These strategies can enable learners become more independent, autonomous lifelong learners. The learners unfortunately are not aware of the power of foreign language learning strategies to make learning quicker. Learners use strategies that reflect their basic learning styles. Teachers can help learners stretch their learning styles by trying some strategies. Effective language teaching and learning can only be achieved when teachers are aware of their learners' needs, capabilities, potentials, and preferences in meeting these needs. Learners who try the strategies enjoy a high level of self-efficacy.

According to Oxford, language learning strategies have twelve key features:

- ❖ Contribute to the main goal

- ❖ Allow learners to become more self-directed

- ❖ Expand the role of teachers

- ❖ Are problem- oriented

- ❖ Are specific actions taken by the learner

- ❖ Involve many actions taken by the learner

- ❖ Support learning both directly and indirectly

- ❖ Are not always observable

- ❖ Are often conscious

- ❖ Can be taught

- ❖ Are flexible

- ❖ Are influenced by a variety of factors (*Language learning strategies*: *What Every Teacher Should Know* 9).

In various studies good language learners showed careful orchestration of strategies. The research done by Nunan (1988) showed that personality factors are more significant than sociocultural and educational background for learning strategy preferences. The study was conducted in a second language environment rather than foreign language environment. Nunan found that one of the characteristics of the good language learner was an ability to reflect on and articulate the processes underlying their own learning. In a research done by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), it was found that more effective learners differed from less effective learners in their use of strategies. In their study of the good language learners, Rubin and Thompson suggest that good or efficient learners tend to exhibit specific characteristics as they go about learning (Nunan 88).

There is a definite correlation between certain learning strategy preferences and the language learner.Conversation practices inside and outside the classroom and

opportunities or activating English outside class were by far the most frequently nominated things that facilitated development. Least helpful were grammar drills. In another study applied by Nunan investigating 44 good language learners, he showed that providing opportunities for reflection, self-reporting and self-monitoring, active use of strategies help students attain higher proficiency. In a North American context Cohen et al and Cohen studied the impact of strategy training on a group of 55 foreign language students at the University of Minnesota (qtd. in Nunan 61).The question was whether strategy training made a difference on task performance. The experiment group outperformed the comparison group. It was hoped that strategy training would help learners develop greater independence and control over their learning. In a further study done by Nunan including 60 students showed that strategy training does make a difference. First it had an effect on students' motivation and next on students' knowledge of strategies. Research has shown that not all learners know which strategies work best for them. As a result of his study it was seen that prior knowledge, the subjects' evaluation of the importance of the particular strategies had an effect on their attitude towards LLS and their willingness to employ particular strategies.

3.2. Learning Strategies as Cognitive Skills

A learner has to be in control of the learning process. Language learners require strategies because languages are complex systems to process easily. Ellis (1993) identifies two main types of learning strategy: behavioural, the ones we can observe learners doing, and the mental, the ones that work inside the brain. There are many ways to investigate those strategies. One way is introspection- to have learners perform tasks and try to think while they are doing them. Teachers should guide their learners in terms of choosing and applying the strategies that would suit their needs, their learning styles.

Strategies of effective learners can be learnt by less effective learners. LLS have a teachability component. This area has gained interest among researches recently. LLS theory suggests that success rate depends on different strategies learners use. In VLS memory and cognitive strategies are more effective. So the learning process becomes a cognitive process. This view is contrary to Krashen's view in which he argues that language cannot be learnt consciously. Therefore, the learning strategies are not successful in the acquisition of the language. According to

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Bialystok there are four categories of learning strategies in foreign language learning; inferencing, monitoring, formal practising and functional practising (qtd. in O'Malley and Chamot 10). The type of strategy used by the learner depends on the type of knowledge required for a given task. The effectiveness of that strategy depends on the attitudes, motivation, prior knowledge of the learner, the task and the learning environment (the richness of the culture, and opportunities). These all mingle and form the chemistry of learning. Some strategies are task-dependent, some person-dependent and some context-dependent. Different types of task materials, task purposes and tasks at different levels demand different strategies. Person dependent strategies may change from one person to another according to sex, age, language aptitude, motivation, learning style. Context dependent strategies differ according to learning contexts (teachers, the peers, the classroom climate, the curriculum).

Wong Fillmore suggests that "strategies include; associative skills, memory, social knowledge, inferencial skills, pattern recognition, generalisation, categorisation, and the like" (O'Malley and Chamot 37). Learning strategies develop with age and are used spontaneously with increasing sophistication by older students. Less sophisticated strategies are resistant to retaining because these strategies are effective in achieving partial success on the task. Females reported using strategies more often than males and used a richer repertoire of strategies. Students with higher motivation to learn the language had higher scores. Students who produced associations seemed to retain words more often than students who do not. Strategy use facilitates learning. Brown believes that the strategies used in learning, remembering, problem solving are the primary determinants of learning outcomes (O'Malley and Chamot 9). Older learners are active and strategic learners who receive a repertoire of strategies as they mature. Strategies in young learners begin as task-based activities and then form a broad repertoire of skills that use a lot of strategies auotomatically. Rehearsal, categorisation, eloboration emerge between 5-8 years of age. Oxford (1990) divided strategies into six categories. These are mainly: cognitive, metacognitive, memory, compensatory, affective, and social (See the whole diagram of LLS in Appendix I).

3.2.1 Direct Strategies

3.2.1.1.Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive Strategies are mental steps or operations that learners use to process linguistic content. They are categorised as inferencing, guessing from context and elaboration or relating new information to other concepts in memory (transfer) as well as imagery, organisation, deduction. According to Anderson images help information to be stored in memory. Anderson suggests that verbal- imagery linkages are useful in learning vocabulary as in the keyword method which will be discussed later in VLS section (O'Malley and Chamot 49).

3.2.1.2.Memory Strategies

Memory strategies relate how students remember language such as ' I review English lessons everyday.' Storage and retrieval of new information are the two key functions of memory strategies. These help learners store in memory the important things they hear or read in the foreign language. These also help learners retrieve information from memory when they need. Memory strategies include creating mental images (grouping, associating, placing new words into a context), applying images (using imagery, semantic mapping, using keywords, representing sounds in memory), reviewing well (structured reviewing), employing action (using physical response, using mechanical techniques).

3.2.1.3. Compensation Strategies (Determining Strategies)

These are used by the learner when faced with discovering a new word's meaning without consulting a reference. This can be done through guessing from one's own structural knowledge of language, guessing from an L1 cognate, guessing from context, or using reference materials.

These enable students to make up for limited knowledge of an inadequate grammar or vocabulary such as guessing intelligently, overcoming limitations.

3.2.2. Indirect Strategies

3.2.2.1. Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognition means knowledge about cognition. It may include the regulation of cognition as well. Metacognitive strategies are actions which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process. Metacognitive strategies are essential for successful learning. In several studies learners were seen to use the metacognitive strategies less often than cognitive strategies. Organising, setting goals, planning for a language task help learners plan their learning in effective way. Metacognitive knowledge is important in learning theory to make learners more autonomous. Metacognitive knowledge can influence one's choice of strategies. It can be used to evaluate awareness of learning that can occur in learning a task. There are four ways of characterising metacognitive knowledge: It is stable, statable, fallible and interactive.

Stable: The fact that learners acquire about their language process is a part of their store of knowledge.

Statable: Learners can talk about these beliefs.

Fallible: Learners' information about language process is not always correct.

Interactive: It means to interact to influence the outcome of the learning process (Wenden 35).

Regulation of learning entails the use of metacognitive strategies. It includes planning, monitoring and evaluating a learning process, selective attention, trial, error, predicting outcomes, evaluating the outcomes of strategic actions for efficiency and effectiveness. Planning is a key strategy for foreign language acquisition. Monitoring is a response to ambiguity in comprehending language acquisition. It is the key process that distinguishes good learners from poor learners. It is the ability to analyse the demands of the tasks, to respond appropriately, to recognise and manage the learning situation, being aware of what one is doing. It involves setting goals for learning and employing alternative procedures when the goal is not achieved. Selective attention for key words, phrases is an important facilitator of the learners' efforts. Metacognitive strategies involve directing one's attention to the learning task, self-evaluation, appraising the successes and difficulties of one's own efforts. It is very clear that "Students without metacognitive

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approaches are essentially learners without direction and ability to review progress, accomplishments and future learning directions" (O'Malley and Chamot 49) Cognitive learning strategies suggest that strategy training transfer to new tasks can be applied best with the combination of both metacognitive and cognitive strategies.

3.2.2.2. Affective Strategies

Affective strategies are relating to learners' needs such as ' I give myself a reward when I am successful. Good language learners are those who know how to control their emotions and attitudes towards learning. Positive emotions make learning more effective whereas negative feelings prevent progress.

3.2.2.3. Social Strategies

These involve learning by interaction with others such as ' I ask speakers to correct me.' Language is a form of social behaviour. Social strategies are important in this process. These strategies may be; asking questions, cooperating with others and empathising with others. As a result of a study done by Nunan (1988) where students were asked to complete a questionnaire which required them to rate ten selected learning activity to their degree of importance, it was seen that most social strategies were used more often than metacognitive strategies. Learners ranked compensation and cognitive in the middle. Affective strategies came one rank higher than memory strategies.

6 (Most frequent) Social strategies

5   Metacognitive

4   Compensation

3   Cognitive

2   Affective

1 (least frequent) Memory

Teachers were also asked to complete another questionnaire. In the questionnaire teachers ranked the ordering of their perceptions of learners' rate of LLS usage as ;

6 (most frequent) Memory strategies

5   Cognitive strategies

4   Social strategies

3   Metacognitive strategies

2   Compensation strategies

1(least frequent)   Affective strategies

This chart is interesting to note that while learners report using memory strategies the least, teachers believe they are used the most.

In theory, LLS have great potential to enhance language-learning ability and in practice learners have shown to use a wide range of LLS. Teachers must work to increase their awareness of their learners' strategy usage and needs to facilitate the language learning process more effectively.

3.3. Cognitive Theory of Learning in Foreign Language Acquisition

In cognitive theory individuals are said to process information and the thoughts involved in this activity are called mental processes. LLS are special ways of processing information that enhance learning and retention of the information. Language is a complex cognitive skill, which can be described within the context of cognitive theory. Cognitive theory can describe learning strategies as complex cognitive skills. Wong Fillmore noted that differences in the performance of language learning are due to the involvement of cognitive processes. The role of LLS in the acquisition of information generally can be understood by reference to the information processing framework for learning suggested by McLaughlin, Rossman, and McLeod (1983) (qtd. in O'Malley and Chamot 11).

The purpose of the framework is to explain how new information is stored in memory and how new information is acquired. In this framework the learner is an active organiser of incoming organisation. Motivation is an important element. The learners' cognitive system is central to processing. The learner is able to store and retrieve information. The framework suggests that information is stored in two ways; in short-term and long-term memory. Short-term memory, the active working memory holds amounts of information only for a short period. Long-term memory is the sustained storage of information where learners actively search for prior knowledge in long-term memory and transfers this to working memory. In the cognitive psychology paradigm, new information is acquired engaging four stages such as selection, acquisition, construction and integration (O'Malley and Chamot 17). Through selection, learners concentrate on specific information of interest and transfer that into short-term memory. In acquisition, learners transfer information

from short- term to long-term memory. In construction, learners build connections between ideas in short-term memory and information in long-term memory is used to provide schemata into which new ideas can be organised. In integration, the learner actively searches for prior knowledge and transfers this to short-term memory. Selection and acquisition determine how much is learnt whereas construction and integration show what is learnt and how it is organised.

Strategies that engage the person's mental processes should be more effective in supporting learning. This becomes automatic after repeated use or after a skill has been fully acquired. The two-stage framework of short and long-term memory has been applied to problem-solving, vocabulary learning, reading, and the acquisition of factual knowledge. Anderson, a cognitive theorist, thinks learning strategies are parallel to cognitive processes because his theory stresses the description of how information is stored. In his theory strategies are represented the same way as other complex skill, as a set of productions that are compiled until they become procedural knowledge (O'Malley and Chamot 19). Anderson distinguishes between what is known about 'static' information in memory and 'dynamic' information in memory. All of the things which are known constitute declarative, and the things which are known how to are procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge is knowing 'that'; it includes foreign language rules, and memorized chunks of language. Procedural knowledge means knowing 'how'; it includes the strategies and procedures applied by the learner to acquire foreign language information that is declarative knowledge.

3.3.1. Declarative Knowledge

Examples of things which are known about generally contain definitions of words, facts and rules. Declarative knowledge may not usually be verbal. It contains the order of things, which things come earlier or later and the form of images. This knowledge is maintained in long-term memory and this knowledge is acquired through memorisation. In English as a foreign language (EFL) vocabulary knowledge is declarative knowledge. In order to turn declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge LLS are essential to integrate into the ongoing lessons.

3.3.2. Procedural Knowledge

The ability to understand and generate language or apply the knowledge of rules to solve a problem is an example of procedural knowledge. In order to use a

language for communicative purposes, procedural knowledge is required. Anderson states that one uses the same knowledge over and over again and loses his or her access to the rules that originally produced the procedure, so he or she loses the ability to report verbally or declare rules (O'Malley and Chamot 28). Declarative knowledge or factual information may be acquired quickly. Procedural knowledge such as language acquisition is on the contrary acquired gradually and with extensive opportunities for practice.

Procedural knowledge can be divided into social and cognitive components. The social components mean the interactional opportunities that the learner creates to communicate by the use of foreign language. The cognitive component means the various mental processes involved in understanding new foreign language information.

3.4. Learner Styles

Language learning styles within strategies are among the main factors that help determine how well learners learn a second language or a foreign language. Some learners are and will be more successful in learning a foreign language than others. The learning strategy literature assumes that some of this success can be due to the cognitive and metacognitive behaviours which learners use for success.

According to the recent research Ellis, Brown, and McLaughlin focus on the factors which influence the success of foreign language acquisition (qtd. in Wenden 36). They are briefly:

❖ **Age**: The belief that there is a certain period when a language is learnt. After that period it is difficult to learn well.

❖ **Language aptitude**: The abilities of language learners to discriminate the sounds of a language, to associate the sounds with written symbols.

❖ **Intelligence**: A general reasoning ability to master skills.

❖ **Personality**: Personal traits, social skills, e.g. risk taking, self-esteem, etc.

❖ **Sociocultural factors**: Extrinsic factors that rise as the foreign language learner brings two cultures together, e.g. attitudes towards the culture or language.

❖ **Cognitive style**: General characteristics of functioning intellectually that influence how one approaches a task.

❖ **Learning style**: It includes cognitive, affective that demonstrate learners' characteristic, interacting with the learning environment.

❖ **Motivation**: A learner's purpose toward learning a new language. (This factor will be focused on later.)

There will be several paths to success depending on the learning styles.

Learner styles mean the general approaches - for example, kinaesthetic, global or analytic, auditory or visual – that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject. "Learning style is the biologically and developmentally imposed set of characteristics that make the same teaching method wonderful for some and terrible for others" (Dunn and Griggs 1988, p.3 qtd. in Murcia 359). Some learners will be more analytic in their approach to the learning task while others will be more intuitive, some will prefer to hear the language.

There are four dimensions of learning style; sensory preferences, personality types, desired degree of generality and biological differences.

3.4.1. Sensory Preferences

Sensory preferences can be broken into four main areas; visual, auditory, kinaesthetic (movement-oriented) and tactile (touch-oriented). Visual students like to read and obtain a lot from visual stimulation. For them oral instructions, lectures can be confusing. In contrast, auditory students are comfortable without visual input. Kinesthetic and tactile ones like movement and enjoy working with tangible things.

3.4.2. Personality Types

There has been some research on personality types and proficiency as in study of Carl Jung Ehrman and Oxford (1989, 1990) (qtd. in Oxford, *Teaching English as a Second Language* 360). They found significant relationship between personality type and L2 proficiency. Below are listed the different personality types.

❖ **Extraverted versus introverted:**

Extroverts gain their energy from the external world. They want interaction with people around. Introverts seek solitude and they get their energy from the inner world.

❖ Intuitive-Random versus Sensing- sequential:

Intuitive-Random learners think in abstract. They like to create theories and new possibilities, prefer their own guiding. In contrast sensing-sequential learners like facts rather than theories and they want guidance from the teacher.

❖ Thinking versus feeling:

Thinking learners are oriented towards the truth. They want to be viewed as competent; whereas, feeling learners value other people by showing empathy and compassion.

❖ Closure-oriented versus open perceiving:

Closure-oriented learners want to reach judgements quickly and want clarity. They are hard-working learners. These learners want to be given written information and they like specific deadlines. In contrast open learners dislike deadlines. They take English less seriously, treating it like a game. They want to have fun.

3.4.3. Desired degree of generality

Global and holistic students like communicative events. Analytic ones concentrate on grammatical details. They do not take the risks of guessing from context unless they are fairly sure.

Learners' preferences have been emphasized in some research. Reid (1987), based on survey data, distinguished four perceptual modalities (qtd. in Bada and Okan):

1. Visual learning (for example, reading and studying charts)
2. Auditory learning (for example, listening to lectures or audio tapes)
3. Kinaesthetic learning (involving physical response)
4. Tactile learning (hands-on learning, as in drawing, grouping)

Nunan points out that accommodating learners' needs and preferences is vital in designing a learner-centred curriculum (56). Such importance given to learners' feelings has also been stressed in Barkhuizen's study (1998) in which he reports an investigation of high school ESL learners' perceptions of the language teaching-learning activities presented in their classes (qtd. in Bada and Okan 'Students' Language Preferences'). A harmony between learners and teachers' aim regarding task assignment and performance must be maintained. Effective language teaching

and learning can only be achieved when teachers are aware of their learners' needs, capabilities, potentials, and preferences in meeting these needs.

3.4.4.Biological differences

Differences in foreign language learning can be related to biological factors which are biorhythms, sustenance and location. Biorhythms reveal the times of day when students feel good and perform their best. Sustenance refers to food or drink while studying. Location involves the nature of the environment: temperature, sound, lighting.

Learning styles are closely related to LLS in terms of strategy preferences of learners with different learning styles.

3.4.5. Effective Language Learner

What makes some foreign language learners succeed while others fail to acquire certain basic skills even in the best circumstances? Several researchers have tried to answer this question. They argued that if teachers knew more about what effective learners did, they might be able to teach their strategies to poorer learners and increase their chance of success. What strategies and techniques do good learners use in approaching a task? Are these teachable? These questions have been in the researchers' mind in recent years and directed many studies to find out effective learner strategies. The following learning strategies have been found out from interviews, direct observation, empirical investigations, teachers, and learners.

1. Successful language learners have insight into their own learning styles and preferences. They adopt a personal attitude that fits their learning style.

2. Successful learners take an active approach to the learning task. They seek out opportunities to communicate. The poor learner leans on the teacher and has a passive attitude.

3. The successful learners are willing to take risks. They are willing to appear foolish while learning.

4. Good language learners are good guessers. They use clues effectively and make inferences.

5. Good language learners are prepared to learn form (which means in vocabulary terms, paying attention to the word parts, to their spelling, to their pronunciation and to the way they are stressed), meaning (which means they pay attention to the way words are similar or different in meaning, to the connotations of words, to their style and their associations) and content (they seek patterns, relationships).

6. Successful learners try to think in the target language and learn from errors.

7. They have a tolerant approach to the target language.

8. They take risks and are not afraid of making mistakes (which means they adopt strategies to cope when the right words do not come forth).

9. They know how to organize their own learning (for example, keeping a record of new words, using dictionaries, using memory techniques, and repetitive practice) (Wenden 43).

The last point suggests that effective language learners have achieved a measure of autonomy and have developed their own strategies- that they do not need to be trained how to learn. Nevertheless, self-directed learners benefit from guidance- by being shown a range of VLS and choosing those which best suit their preferred learning style.

3.4.6. Motivation

There are a number of factors mentioned above that have been identified in an attempt to explain individual learner differences. One further source of individual differences is motivation.

According to H. Douglas Brown 'Motivation is the difference between success and failure.' (*Teaching By Principles* 72) The dictionary definition is 'the extent to which you make choices about goals to pursue and the effort you will devote to that' (72). At its most basic level, motivation is some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something (Harmer 51). As H. Douglas Brown points it out, 'a cognitive view of motivation includes factors such as the need for exploration, activity, stimulation, new knowledge, and ego enhancement' (Harmer 51). The strength of motivation depends on how much value

the individual places on the outcome he or she wishes to achieve. The motivation that brings the learners to the task of learning can be influenced by some factors. The society which is lived in, the teacher, the method, learning environment, interesting classes, one's goals, and so forth.

Gardner and Lambert report the findings of their own research which aimed to answer the following question: 'How is it that some people can learn a foreign language quickly and expertly while others have failures?' (Kennedy 3) They concluded in their review that motivation was a key variable in explaining achievement in language learning. Both instrumental and integrative orientations had a role to play in motivating learners. Gardner and Lambert proposed two orientations that might define a learner's attitude:

> The orientation is said to be instrumental in form if the purposes of language study reflect the more utilitarian value of linguistic achievement, such as getting ahead in one's occupation. In contrast, the orientation is integrative if the student wishes to learn more about the cultural community because he is interested in it in an open-minded way, to the point of eventually being accepted as a member of that group. (Kennedy 3)

3.5. VOCABULARY LEARNING

"A word is a microcosm of human consciousness." (Vygotsky qtd. in Thornbury 1). This is how David Wilkins summed up the importance of vocabulary learning.

All languages have words. Language emerged first as words, both historically, and in terms of the way each person learns the first language. The coining of words never stops nor does the acquisition of words. Even in the first language new words are still being learnt as new issues are confronted. Learners of a second language experience bewilderment with texts full of totally unfamiliar words. Finding the right word to fit the intended meaning is frustrating when one's store of words is limited.

David Wilkins also says, "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (qtd. in Thornbury 13)

One can say very little with grammar, but one can say almost anything without words. Learners are aware of the importance of vocabulary learning which

is central to language acquisition. Unfortunately, the teaching and learning of vocabulary have been undervalued in the foreign language acquisition field due to the belief that vocabulary could be left on its own to take care of itself. The other reason was teachers' handicap which was their tendency to teach their learners in the same way as they were taught by giving minimum emphasis on vocabulary. If the teachers feel the need for vocabulary teaching, the strategy instruction will be necessary. In 1984, in the introduction to Cambridge English Course, Swan and Walter wrote "vocabulary acquisition is the largest and the most important task facing the language learner" (Thornbury 14). Coursebooks began to include activities that targeted vocabulary. Two key developments challenged the hegemony of grammar in EFL. One was the lexical syllabus that is a syllabus based on those words that appear with a high degree of frequency in spoken and written English. The other was recognition of the role of lexical chunks in the acquisition of language and in achieving fluency. The effect of these developments has raised the awareness to the key vocabulary development. This is reflected in the way coursebooks are promoted.

Vocabulary specialists also imply that lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence. Krashen (1976) stated that language cannot be learnt but only acquired through natural communication and through reading for pleasure (qtd. in O'Malley and Chamot 10). Krashen is one of the leading forces behind the communicative language teaching. According to Canale and Swain (1980) communicative competence is at the heart of Communicative Language Teaching. It has three major components; grammatical, lexical and strategic competence (qtd. in O'Malley and Chamot 9). Lexical competence is highly essential for communication. In the 1940s, 1950s and 1970s the main focus was on grammatical structure. The assumption was that once students learnt the structural frames, lexical items to fill the grammatical lots could be learnt later. As Communicative language teaching (CLT)[1] approach shifted the focus from structure to discourse functions in the 1980s and by the late 1990s, vocabulary studies developed and vocabulary teaching came into stage Further, psycholinguistic studies provided insights concerning mental processes involved in vocabulary learning, such as memory, storage, and retrieval.

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[1] (CLT will be mentioned later in this thesis in the section of History of Teaching Vocabulary).

Interest in these issues led to related studies concerned with developing more effective vocabulary teaching and learning strategies.

3.5.1. The Goals of Vocabulary Learning

There is a list below to encourage learners who will reflect on the principles on the basis of experience. (Grave 1987 qtd. in Nation 395).

Principle 1: Learners should know what vocabulary to learn, what to learn about it and how to learn it, how to put it to use and see how well it is learnt and used. This principle is the representation of the goal of vocabulary learning.

Principle 2: Learners should increase their vocabulary size.

Principle 3: Learners should use word frequency and learn high-frequency words first rather than learning low-frequency words.

Principle 4: Learners should be aware of what is involved in knowing a word and be able to use dictionary to gather information about unknown words.

Principle 5: Learners should also be aware of language systems behind vocabulary use such as collocation, pronunciation, and word-building.

Principle 6: Vocabulary learning functions in the four strands of meaning-focused input, language focused learning, meaning-focused output and fluency development.

Meaning-focused input means focusing on the message and it includes drawing attention to new items. **Language-focused learning** means focusing on language features (vocabulary, structures, etc.) and it includes repeated retrieval of the items. **Meaning-focused output** means focusing on the message and it includes a small number of new items. **Fluency development** means focusing on the message and involves working with the familiar material, doing a large quantity of language use.

Below there are example activities for the application of four strands with a focus on vocabulary.

Meaning-focused learning	Reading graded readers
	Listening to stories
	Communication activities
Language-focused learning	Direct teaching of vocabulary
	Direct learning
	Intensive reading
	Training in VLS
Meaning-focused output	Communication activities
	Prepared writing
	Linked skills
Fluency development	Reading easy graded
	Repeated reading
	Speed reading
	Listening to easy input
	Rehearsed tasks
	10 minute writing
	Linked skills

Training in VLS is language-focused learning which is the sixth principle of vocabulary learning. If vocabulary learning is to be attained, these principles need to be applied fully in teachers' ongoing lessons.

There are also four sub-principles:

1. Learners need to meet and learn vocabulary incidentally through meaning-focused listening and extensive reading.

2. Learners need to be able to learn vocabulary using word cards and other ways.

3. Learners need to be encouraged to use vocabulary in other skills.

4. Learners need to have the chance to use vocabulary receptively and productively which help them increase their fluency. What should not be neglected is that words are first learnt receptively and then they develop to become known productively. Learners must be aware of the need to know vocabulary and also the need to use it properly.

Vocabulary development through extensive reading needs to be supported with study of words, suffixes and lexical sets.

Considering the principles above, very effective vocabulary component of a course can be organised. The goals of this vocabulary course can be mainly to increase learners' usable vocabulary size, to help them gain control of a range of vocabulary learning and coping with strategies. The aim of the action research will be to demonstrate the need for such a vocabulary course enriched with VLS.

There are mainly two approaches to vocabulary learning in the literature that learners must be aware of: explicit and implicit learning.

3.5.2. Explicit and Implicit Learning

A central debate emerging from these studies deals with whether effective vocabulary learning should focus on explicit and implicit learning. Most researchers think that providing incidental encounters with words is only one method of facilitating vocabulary acquisition and a well-structured vocabulary program needs a balanced approach that includes explicit teaching and incidental learning. There is general agreement that vocabulary acquisition occurs at an impressively fast rate from childhood throughout the years of formal education and at a slower rate into adult life. Native speakers acquire words incidentally as they encounter them in the speech and writing of people. An average educated adult native speaker of English knows between fifteen and twenty thousand word families. Many foreign language learners of English also know thousands of word families. Through explicit and implicit learning one's attention is focused on the use of language, rather than the learning itself. Incidental or implicit learning is unconscious learning from the point of learners. Incidental learning of words from reading is quite powerful in the foreign language environment. In a study in the U.S.A. with French learners, it was reported that the learners who participated in reading and watching a film in class acquired approximately five to ten words per hour from incidental learning (Hatch and Brown 369). Applied linguists have different views on whether unconscious learning is possible. The chances of learning and retaining a word from one exposure when reading are only 5% - 14 %. Schmitt (1990) argues that learners do not acquire knowledge of words or any other elements of language unless they notice them. On the other hand, Ellis (1997) argues that while the semantic aspects of vocabulary are

consciously acquired, word forms and how they collocate with other words are known in a largely unconscious way (qtd. in Read 46). There are some experiments carried out to show that there is incidental learning of vocabulary. In one study to prove this argument, the learners are set a reading task without being told to pay attention to vocabulary and they are given a test after they have completed the reading. As a result, they have demonstrated some understanding of a few unknown words. Even if this is a limited finding according to Horst, Cobb and Meara (1998: 208-210), this does not give insight into the way that learners process the words in the text psycholinguistically as they read. It does not tell that if any words that have been retained will be remembered when they are encountered again. Which variables affect the probability of the particular words that will be acquired and how teachers and learners can enhance vocabulary acquisition through reading and listening activities need to be known well to enlighten further studies in vocabulary acquisition (qtd. in Read 46).

Another study by Hulstijn (1992) conducted in Holland shows that the amount of mental effort that learners put into understanding an unknown word would positively influence their chances of retaining its meaning. When the subjects were provided with a cue designed to encourage them to work out the meaning for themselves they remembered it better than if they were simply given a synonym or translation (Read 46). Vocabulary learning from listening has received less attention than learning through reading. One study done by Brown (1993) in an American-university intensive-English programme, where she investigated students' acquisition of vocabulary used in the video-disc program *Raiders of the Lost Ark*. She was interested in the factors that influenced the learning of unfamiliar words. It appeared that learning was associated with the general frequency of words in the language rather than how often they occurred in that particular text. Words are more likely to be learnt if they are more salient, in the sense of being important for understanding a specific part of the program (Hatch and Brown 375). Certain factors facilitate vocabulary learning. If the orthography is easier and if the L1 and L2 use the same orthographic characters as shown in the example below, vocabulary learning becomes easier; English *hound* and German *hund*. Also shorter words are learnt easily because they occur frequently.

Henricksen (1999) provides a good description of the various aspects of incremental development in vocabulary (qtd. in Schmitt 118). She mentions three dimensions of knowledge. She first suggests that for any lexical aspect, learners can have knowledge ranging from zero to partial to precise. This could mean all word knowledge ranges on a continuum.

Can't spell a word at all	Knows some letters	Phonologically correct	Fully correct spelling

Hulstijn (2001) argues that the terms ' intentional (explicit) – which means learners are aware that they will be tested on particular items and 'incidental' – which means the learners are not aware of a later test are not relevant to studies of vocabulary learning. What is important is the mental processing while learning takes place. Although vocabulary learning should be natural, a deliberate focus on developing the skills and strategies which are needed to carry out such learning is required. Therefore, training is compulsory in vocabulary acquisition to make learners aware of lexical knowledge, implicit and explicit learning.

3.5.2.1. Explicit Learning

In explicit vocabulary learning students engage in activities that focus on vocabulary. There are questions in vocabulary teaching that teachers have in mind. *What to teach and how to teach.* A certain amount of explicit study is necessary as a prerequisite to teach students to reach a vocabulary size between three and five thousand word families (Nation& Waring, 1997 qtd. in Schmitt 121). Most frequent words are learnt explicitly but least frequent ones are best left to incidental learning. In the case of vocabulary the more one manipulates a word, the more likely it is that one will retain that word. First introductions of a word are done by explicit teaching. An example of explicit learning techniques is the Keyword Method. This technique works well by combining elements of phonological form and meaning in a mental image. The description of this method will be given in VLS section.

Sökmen (1997) does research about explicit vocabulary teaching and finds certain principles for teachers to follow:

❖ Build a variety of sight vocabulary

❖ Integrate new words with old (grouping similar words together, avoid cross-association – teaching too similar words may create confusion such as teaching 'right' and 'left' at the same time. This principle will be mentioned later on.)

❖ Provide a number of encounters with a word

❖ Promote a deep level of processing

❖ Facilitate imaging

❖ Make new words 'real' by connecting them to the learners' world

❖ Use a variety of techniques

❖ Encourage learning strategies (qtd. in Schmitt 147).

3.5.2.2. Implicit Learning (Incidental learning)

Incidental learning is learning when the mind is focused on somewhere. Vocabulary learning is more likely to be implicit. Learners should be given explicit instruction and practice in the first two or three thousand high-frequency words, beyond this level, most words will be learnt incidentally. The reason why the explicit training is necessary in the early stages is that in order to be able to guess the meaning from context, a two to three thousand word base is necessary; otherwise, it is difficult to guess the word from context.

Having multiple exposures to a word is important in implicit learning as well as explicit learning. Lack of exposure creates forgetting. Recycling has to be taken into account. Teachers must guard against presenting a word once then forgetting about it. The best way to prevent forgetting is to learn vocabulary through incidentally such as extensive reading. Additional reading leads to an increase in learners' vocabulary. Learning from context is incidental vocabulary learning. It covers learning from extensive reading, learning from taking part in conversations, learning from listening to stories, films, television or the radio.

3.5.3. Strategy Training in Vocabulary Acquisition

Teachers should be interested in how learners go about learning vocabulary. If they know more about learning strategies, what works and what does not work, they can help learners acquire more profitable strategies.

3.5.3.1. How to Prepare for Strategy Training:

Two important issues should be thought while preparing strategy training, the knowledge of LLS and the attitudes about role changes. By reading a lot on LLS, teachers may provide their learners effective training and make a difference in their teaching profile and in their learners' ability to learn languages. Within this training period, the learners and the teachers take new roles. Teachers become more open-minded and they become facilitators rather than directors. Teachers share ideas with other teachers and look for better ways to promote learner autonomy. Language learning requires self- direction on the part of learners; spoon-feeding all the time is not the aim. The general goals of training are to encourage a collaborative spirit between learner and teacher and to learn options for language learning and to learn and practice strategies that facilitate self-reliance.

3.5.3.2. Guidelines for Strategy Training

Below are some principles behind strategy training.

- ❖ **Informed**: Strategy training should be informed. Its purpose should be explained.

- ❖ **Self-regulation**: Learners should be trained about how to and when it is appropriate to regulate it.

- ❖ **Contextualised**: Training should be in context. It should be directed to specific language learning problems.

- ❖ **Interactive**: Training should be interactive between teacher and learner.

- ❖ **Diognosis**: Information on which strategies learners use and how well they use them should be collected.

Strategy training involves three procedures:

a) Diagnosing the strategies which learners already use through think-aloud procedure. (Learners are asked to perform a task and describe what he /she is doing to accomplish the task.)

b) Setting the goal of the lesson by giving learners a few learning tasks and asking them to explain the strategies they use

c) Introducing the new strategies and providing a lot of practice.

It is important to implement strategy training in a well-planned part of a vocabulary development programme. This planning involves:

1. Deciding which strategies to give attention to

2. Deciding how much time to spend on training

3. Working out a syllabus for each strategy that covers the required knowledge and provides plenty of opportunity for practice

4. Monitoring and providing feedback on learners' control of the strategies

5. Developing learners' ability to evaluate strategy use (Nation 222).

Learners need to spend a total of four or five hours per strategy spread over weeks for each of the strategies like guessing from context, using word parts, direct learning. Learners need to understand the goal of each strategy and gain the knowledge to use the strategy under right conditions and feel comfortable in using them. It takes time but it is definitely repaid through time. Strategy use provides a way of coping with unknown words that learners face through their learning process.

3.5.3.3.Types of Training:

LLS can be applied in three ways according to Oxford: Awareness raising, on-time strategy training and long-term strategy training (qtd. in *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher should Know*, 202).

Awareness Raising: Awareness raising means conscious raising. Learners become aware of learning strategies. This step is the individual's new introduction to the concept of strategies. It should be fun and motivating. Oxford gives two exercises

for awareness raising. The first is the Embedded Strategy Game; the second one is the Strategy Search Game (See Appendix II)

One-time Strategy Training: One-time strategy training involves learning the strategies with the tasks at hand. The learners learn how to use the strategies, when to use, and how to evaluate the success.

Long-time Strategy Training: Long-time training involves applying strategies. It is more effective than one-time training. This training includes a greater number of strategies.

According to Oxford there are eight steps which are important to use while training (204):

❖ Determine the learners' needs and the time available.

❖ Select strategies well.

❖ Consider integration of strategy training.

❖ Consider motivational issues.

❖ Prepare materials and activities.

❖ Conduct 'completely informed training' (training, which fully informs the learner by indicating why the strategy is useful, how learners can evaluate the success, is more successful than training that does not.)

❖ Evaluate the strategy training.

❖ Revise the strategy training.

In strategy training narrow focusing on one or two strategies rather than an integrated set is not suggested. Instead a broader focus is believed to be more effective. The choice of just too easy or too difficult strategies is not meaningful for a fruitful training.

When designing a mini-syllabus for strategy development there are some options (Nation 223).

❖ The teacher models the strategy for the learners.

❖ The steps in the strategy are practiced separately.

- ❖ Learners apply the strategy in pairs supporting each other.

- ❖ Learners report back on the application of the steps in the strategy.

- ❖ Learners report on their difficulties and successes in using the strategy outside class time.

- ❖ Teachers test learners on strategy use and give them feedback.

- ❖ Learners consult the teacher on their use of the strategy, seeking advice where necessary.

3.5.3.4. Training in Strategy Choice:

A leading authority on foreign language learning, Wilga Rivers wrote some years ago:

> Vocabulary cannot be taught. It can be presented, explained, included in all kinds of activities, and experienced in all manners of associations but ultimately it is learnt by the individual. As language teachers we must help our students by giving them ideas on how to learn, but each will finally learn a very personal selection of items, organised into relationships in an individual way. (From *Communicating Naturally In a Second Languge*, CUP) (Thornbury 144)

LLS are used by the learners to complete vocabulary, reading, and writing activities. Seeing that they need to complete a problem, learners will use the correct strategies. Effective learners are experienced in finding appropriate strategies to tasks whereas novices may be less efficient. One way to direct learners towards the use of LLS is to integrate LLS-Instruction into regular lessons. LLS instruction is a teaching approach that aims at raising student awareness of LLS and providing practice, self-monitoring of their strategy use while applying those strategies. Learners explore 'how', 'when' and 'why' to use the strategies and evaluate their learning. They can take a more active role in the learning process. Through this process, they become more efficient and more positive in their approach to learning. With the help of this process, LLS become procedural knowledge and have a positive effect on motivation, learner autonomy and proficiency. Cohen and Aphek (1980) trained

learners of Hebrew how to recall new words by using 'paired associations' and found that better performance occurred in recalling when learners formed associations (Coady 277). The handicaps of strategy instruction training may be; not all learners are linguistically proficient to understand the instruction, not all learners will have an awareness of the specific strategy being used. Without metacognitive awareness about LLS use, learners will lose track of strategy repertoire and apply them to tasks and maintain long-term strategy use. In direct approach to instruction, the teacher raises learner awareness of the purpose and rationale for strategy use and provides practice and monitor. The integration of the instruction through language course books can be ideal both for teachers and learners because strategy instruction leads to learning motivation (See the examples of integration of LLS in Appendix III).

3.5.3.5. Planning Vocabulary Learning

The vocabulary learning strategies involve deciding on where to focus on attention, how to focus the attention and how often to give attention to the item.

Choosing words: Learners should know what their vocabulary goals are and should choose what vocabulary to focus on. This selective attention was a characteristic of successful learners according to Gu and Johnson's (1996) study (qtd in Nation 218).

Choosing aspects of word knowledge: Learners need to be aware of the meaning of the word.

Choosing strategies: According to Nation learners should know what their goals are. Nation gave examples of research on successful learners. Successful strategy users need a strategy for controlling their strategy use. This involves choosing the most appropriate strategy and when to switch to another strategy (Nation 219).

Planning repetition: Most vocabulary learning requires repeated attention to the item. One of the strategies to encourage remembering is the use of spaced practice (retrieval).

Sources: To cope with the new vocabulary, a learner needs to get information about the word. This might be from a reference source or connections with other languages.

Analysing word parts: A large portion of English words are derived from French, Latin, or Greek. Words have two parts as affixes and stems. Being familiar with common word parts provide a useful basis for seeing the connections between related words. This strategy will be analysed later.

Using context: Guessing from context will also be examined in detail later.

Consulting a reference source: There is a variety of sources such as: formal, usually written (dictionaries, glossaries) and more spontaneous sources, usually oral.

Using parallels with other languages: The learning burden of a word depends on how much its various aspects are similar to patterns and items that the learner knows from the study of the second language, from the first language or another languages.

Processes in Establishing Vocabulary Knowledge

These strategies involve ways of remembering vocabulary and making it available for use. There are three major categories for vocabulary learning: noticing, retrieving and generating.

Noticing: Noticing involves seeing the word as an item to be learnt. Strategies involve recording the word in vocabulary notebook or list or on a word card, orally repeating the word and visually repeating the word. These are called recording strategies.

Retrieving: Retrieval involves recall of known items. There are many kinds of retrieval such as receptive/productive, oral/covert, in context/decontextualised. Retrieval can occur across the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Retrieval strategies are superior to noticing strategies. If learners keep vocabulary notebooks, they should become familiar with ways of retrieving.

Generating: These include many kinds of generation: receptive/productive, oral/visual, overt/covert, in context/ decontextualised. Generating involves ' rich instruction'. Generating strategies include: attaching new aspects of knowledge to what is known through instantiation (visualising examples of the word), word analysis, semantic mapping, mnemonic strategies like the Keyword technique and meeting the new word in new context.

In addition to this, a formal study of VLS done by Payne (1988) showed that strategies of the learners use fall into five steps:

1. Having sources for encountering new words: This step is crucial. The strategies here are learning new words by reading books, listening to TV and radio and reading newspapers and magazines. Words are learnt when needed. The number of times a word is encountered may affect whether a word is learnt or not.

2. Getting a clear image, either visual or auditory or both for the forms of words: This means associating new words with words that sound similar in native language, writing the sounds of words using sound symbols from native language, or associating word with similar sounding English word a learner knows, seeing a word that looks like another word a learner knows.

3. Learning the meaning of words: This means asking questions about word meanings, making pictures of word meanings in mind. Learners need dictionaries, getting the meaning from context. Learners guess the meaning of words from context.

4. Making a strong memory connection between the forms and meanings of the words: Many kinds of vocabulary learning drills, such as flashcards, matching exercises, and puzzles strengthen the form-meaning connection. Oxford's nine memory strategies will be examined later. They can all be applied to vocabulary study. Mnemonic devices will also be mentioned later.

5. Using the words: If the goal is to move learners as far along the continuum of word knowledge, word use is essential. Use of the word may be a form of testing oneself on the knowledge of collocations, chunks, etc.

Each step represents what learners must do to come to a full knowledge of words. If learners and teachers can do anything to move more words through all steps, more vocabulary acquisition will be the result.

Commonly used strategies seem to be simply memorization, repetition and taking notes on vocabulary and more complex ones such as imagery, inferencing, the

Keyword Method, forming associations. The last two methods enhance retention rather than rote-memorization. Rote repetition can be useful if students are accustomed to it (O'Malley and Chamot 1990). Shallower activities may be more suitable for beginners whereas intermediate and advanced are involved into deeper activities. Learners often prefer shallow strategies even though they are less effective than deeper ones.

Active management of strategy use is important. Good language learners use a variety of strategies, structure their learning and take steps to regulate it. Poor language learners lack this awareness and control. When considering which strategies to recommend learners it is essential to consider the overall learning context. The effectiveness with which learning strategies can be both taught and used will depend on variables, including the proficiency level, L1 and culture of students, their motivation and purposes for language learning. It is also important to gain cooperation of others. A study has shown that students who resisted strategy training learnt worse than those who relied on their repetition (O'Malley and Chamot 1990).

Culture needs to be taken into consideration because culture groups sometimes have different opinions about the usefulness of various strategies. Proficiency level has also been shown to be quite important with one study showing that word lists are better for beginning students, and contextualised words are better for more advanced students. High frequency words should be taught, so learners mainly require strategies for review and consolidation, whereas low-frequency words will mostly be met incidentally while reading or listening and learners initially require strategies for determining their meanings such as guessing from context and using word parts (Nation 223).

3.5.4. Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS)

3.5.4.1. General Class of Vocabulary Strategies

Facilitating vocabulary learning is enhanced through vocabulary learning strategies. Psychologists, linguists and language teachers have been interested in VLS for a long time. Numerous studies have been conducted comparing the different VLS. VLS are a part of language learning strategies (LLS), which are a part of general learning strategies. Interest in these strategies has replaced a movement from a predominantly teaching-oriented approach with the one that includes interest in

how the actions of learners might affect their acquisition of learning. The importance of strategy training is inevitable. Many learners do use strategies for learning vocabulary. The rise in the importance of strategy use in second language learning grew out of an interest in the learners' active role in the learning process. Learners really value learning vocabulary.

When a learner approaches a task he/ she adopts certain strategies to solve the problem. Vocabulary acquisition is a problem-solving task at different levels of complexity. Vocabulary learning is in general remembering words and the ability to use them automatically. Vocabulary learning and strategies should aid both in discovering the meaning of a new word and in consolidating a word once it has been encountered. The purpose of VLS should be to be able to use the word and know the meaning of the word. Each strategy a learner uses will determine how well a new word is learnt. There have been a number of attempts to develop taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. Schmitt (2000) developed an extensive taxonomy around Oxford's (1990). Gu and Johnson (1996) developed a list categorized as; beliefs about vocabulary learning, such as metacognitive regulation, guessing strategies, dictionary strategies, note-taking strategies, memory strategies, and activation strategies (qtd. in Nation 217).

Williams (1995) identifies five trainable strategies for working out the meaning of unfamiliar words in written text. These are: inferring from context, identifying lexical familiarisation, unchaining nominal compounds, synonym search and word analysis (qtd. in Nation 217).

There is a general taxonomy of kinds of vocabulary learning strategies shown by Nation (218).

GENERAL CLASS OF STRATEGIES	TYPES OF STRATEGIES
Planning:Choosing what to focus on	❖ Choosing words ❖ Choosing the aspects of word knowledge ❖ Choosing strategies ❖ Planning repetition
Sources: Finding information about words	❖ Analysing the word ❖ Using context ❖ Consulting a reference source in L1 and L2 (foreign language)
Processes:Establishing knowledge:	❖ Noticing ❖ Retrieving ❖ Generating

The mentioned three major categories of vocabulary strategies - planning, finding information, and establishing knowledge- include a wide range of subtaks of strategies as well. Most of the empirical research on VLS has focused on different sub-tasks of vocabulary learning.

There are numerous VLS, with one list containing fifty-eight different strategies (Schmitt 2000). Below there is a classification of VLS.

Strategies for the Discovery of a New Word's Meaning.

3.5.4.1.1. Determining Strategies

These strategies are used by individual when faced with discovering a new word's meaning without resource to another person.

❖ Guessing from context,

❖ Using reference material

- ❖ Analyse part of speech

- ❖ Analyse affixes and roots

- ❖ Check for L1 (native language) cognate

❖ **Using a Dictionary**

One research has looked at the effects of giving learners access to dictionaries while they read. Nation gave examples of studies on dictionary use. One example was that of Luppescu and Day's (1993). They found that Japanese learners who were allowed to use a bilingual dictionary scored higher on a vocabulary post-test than students who were not allowed to but researchers were not able to observe the extend to which the dictionary group actually made use of their dictionaries. Current computer programs can provide dictionary entries online which means that learners while reading can click on an unknown word and a definition appears. In addition, the computer can be programmed to keep a record of which entries the learners consult and how often they do it. Knight (1994) confirmed that of Luppescu and Day's finding: students with access to the computerised dictionary demonstrated more vocabulary knowledge after reading them than those who did not. Within the experimental group, students of low ability gained more from using the dictionary entries than those with high ability (qtd. in Read 47). A learner who makes good use of a dictionary will be able to continue learning outside the classroom and this will give autonomy about the decisions he makes about his own learning. Another way in which a dictionary is useful is to check a word's meaning when there is an ambiguity. Dictionaries are accurate sources. Dictionary training is an important part of any syllabus. Dictionaries provide phonetic transcription and stress marking. Learners who are aware of these will become more efficient and proficient learners. Strategies below are classified for consolidating a word once it has been encountered.

Strategies for the Consolidating a Word

3.5.4.1.2. Social Strategies

These strategies mean using interaction with other people around to improve language learning. One can study vocabulary with other people or alone.

- ❖ Ask teacher for a synonym, paraphrase or L1 translation of new word

- ❖ Ask classmates for meaning

❖ Study and practice meaning in a group

❖ Interact with native speakers

3.5.4.1.3. Memory Strategies

They are also called mnemonics. They involve relating the word to be retained with some previously learnt knowledge. Groupings can aid recalling to be improved. Another kind of mnemonic strategy involves focusing on the target word's orthographic or phonological form to facilitate language recall. The use of Total Physical Response (TPR)[2], a physical action applied while learning, may be influential to facilitate recall. A learner may not have time to deeply process every word encountered, but it is worth attempting.

Memory strategies involve the kind of mental processing that facilitates long-term retention. Anderson (1985) shows that the method of 'loci', a visual mnemonic device used to remember an ordered sequence of items is very effective (O'Malley and Chamot 49). This method involves imagining a path through a known route for example home to school and imagining the items to be remembered are joining well-known fixed objects along the path. *Biscuit* might be associated with a neighbour's house and the neighbour eating biscuit. The mind can store 100 trillion bits of information. If memory strategies are not known, only part of the potential can be used. Anderson concludes that strategies that highlight on the meaningfulness of information are more useful than representing the information visually which is kept in short-term memory. An integration of both comprehension and memory directed techniques might be advantages for the well-prepared learner.

Memory strategies are formed of four sets: Creating Mental Linkages, Applying Images and sounds, Reviewing well, and Employing Actions. The first letters of these strategies form the word 'CARE'. It is a memory aid. As Oxford interprets this "Take care of your memory and it will take care of you" (Language *Learning Strategies* 38). Memory strategies are effective when used with metacognitive and affective strategies, like deep breathing of oneself to reduce anxiety.

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[2] This method will also be mentioned briefly in History of Teaching Vocabulary section.

Below are the short resemblances of the memory strategies:

- ❖ Connect word to a previous personal experience
- ❖ Associate the word with its coordinates
- ❖ Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms
- ❖ Image word form
- ❖ Image word's meaning
- ❖ Use the Keyword Method
- ❖ Group words together to study them
- ❖ Study the spelling of a word
- ❖ Say new word aloud when studying
- ❖ Use physical action when learning a word

3.5.4.1.4. Cognitive Strategies

- ❖ Verbal repetition
- ❖ Written repetition
- ❖ Word lists
- ❖ Put English labels on physical objects
- ❖ Keep a vocabulary notebook

3.5.4.1.5. Metacognitive Strategies

These strategies include evaluating whether it is worth trying to figure out what the unknown lexical item is and if not ignoring it.

- ❖ Use English-language media (songs, movies, newscast, etc.)
- ❖ Use spaced-word practice
- ❖ Test oneself with word tests
- ❖ Skip or pass new word
- ❖ Continue to study word over time (Schmitt 134).

The application of 'Discovery of a New Word's Meaning' exercises can be done individually whereas 'Consolidating of a New Word' activities can be done in classwork and learners need instruction in that process.

3.5.4.2. Subtasks of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

❖ Guessing Meaning From Context

Learners deal with unknown words as they encounter them through reading or listening. In natural communication there are unknown lexical items which need to be known. Teachers are aware of this problem and have a variety of techniques for dealing with them. Learners need to be able to apply their own strategies outside the class. Guessing is a useful strategy because it involves deeper processing and the result is the outcome of learning of some of the lexical items.

A number of writers (e.g. Chandrasegaran, 1980; Clarke and Nation, 1980; Bruton and Samuda, 1981) have developed strategies for guessing words in context and expressed that VLS can be taught to learners. According to Clark and Nation guessing strategy includes steps such as identifying the word class of the unknown word, scanning the surrounding sentence for other words that collocate with it, looking for cohesive devices that link the sentence with the other sentences in the text and analysing the structure of the word itself into prefix, root and suffix (Read 53).

Making the transition to independent learning can be easier and more efficient if teachers help students learn to recognise clues to guess the word meaning from context. Teachers are aware of this problem in the classroom context and have a variety of techniques to be used in texts. Learners also need to be able to apply their own strategies for dealing with unknown words inside and outside of class.

There is a series of studies since the 1940's that aimed to identify and classify the contextual clues that can assist both first and second language readers to make inferences about unknown words. In one influential framework that is developed by Sternberg and Powell (1983), researchers proposed a theory of learning from context that distinguishes between the external and internal context of the unknown word. In the word *thermoluminescence* , a native speaker of English may be able to identy *thermo* as a prefix referring to heat, *luminesce* as a verb that probably means producing light and *–ence* as a suffix that creates an abstract noun. One important

component of Sternberg and Powell's theory is that, for each kind of context there is a set of mediating variables, which determine how effectively the reader is able to take advantage of the clues that are available. In the case of external context an unknown word is more likely to be guessable if it occurs numerous times in a variety of contexts within the text, if it is clearly an important word to understand and if the context provides several useful clues (Read 54).

The context must be rich enough to provide adequate clues to guess a word's meaning. A single context may not be enough to guess the full word meaning. The background knowledge about the topic and the culture greatly aid guessing and retention by providing a framework for incorporating the new word with information already known but even without such background learners can become skilled in guessing. A learner first looks at the unknown word, next look at its immediate context and then take a much broader view of how the clause containing the word relates to other clauses, sentences or paragraphs. Clarke and Nation include a system for learners to check that the guess they made was the best one possible. The basic step in this system includes first deciding on the part of speech of the unknown word (e.g, noun, verb, adjective, adverb) and then examining the context of the clause or sentence containing the word. For example; if the unknown word is a noun, what adjectives describe it? What verb is it near? The next step is looking at the relationship between this clause or sentence and other sentences or paragraphs. Signals to look for might be a conjunction such as *but, because, if, when* or an adverbial such as *however* or *as a result*.

Even if there is no explicit signal, it is helpful to be aware of the possible types of rhetorical relationship, which include cause and effect, contrast, time and summary. Punctuation may also be helpful as a clue, since semicolons often signal a list or an inclusion.

Final step is using knowledge gained from such clues to guess the meaning of the word and then checking in the following ways to see if the guess is right; replace the word with the unknown word, if the sentence makes sense, the guessed word is a good paraphrase for the unknown word. As a final check break the unknown word into its prefix, root and suffix, if possible see if the meanings of the prefix, root and suffix correspond to the guessed word; If not check the guessed word again but do not make changes if it still seems to be the right choice. As Clarke and Nation

experience, using affixes and roots alone is not a very reliable aid to guessing, whereas using the context is more likely to lead to correct guesses. This strategy becomes automatic if students get used to it. This strategy also leads to dictionary work if students are unable to choose the most suitable meaning unless they have some idea of what the word might mean.

Very different research results concluded that 5-16 exposures are needed to learn a word from context. The words that appeared over eight times in text were more likely to be learnt than other words. The mastery of a new word depends on many factors such as the salience of the word in context, the richness of contextual clues, the learners' interest and the size and quality of his/her repertoire of vocabulary. What proportion of unknown words can be guessed from context? Is it possible to use context to keep adding small amounts of information about words that are not yet fully known? The answer to these questions is "yes". Every context can do this for almost every word.

There are several things that can happen to an item met in context.

- ❖ It is guessed correctly and partially learnt. This may happen for 5% or 10 % of the words.

- ❖ It is guessed correctly but nothing is learnt about it.

- ❖ It is guessed incorrectly.

- ❖ It is ignored because it is not important.

There has been a hypothesis that words are likely to be remembered better if there was some difficulty in remembering them. This is based on studies by Cairns, Cowart and Jablon and Jacoby, Craig and Begg (Nation 239).

Fraser (1999) found that more vocabulary was retained from inferring from context because inferring was followed by consulting a dictionary (qtd. in Nation 239). For vocabulary learning simple expression of word meaning is very effective. Vocabulary learning is a cumulative process with meetings of a word many times and building on previous meetings. Providing a context extremely helps word learning. Haastrup (1985, 1987 and 1989) classified the knowledge sources using Carton's (1971) three categories of clues:

- ❖ Interlingual: cues based on learners' native language (L1), loan words in L1, or knowledge of other languages

- ❖ Intralingual: cues based on knowledge of English

- ❖ Contextual: cues based on the text (qtd. In Nation 242)

Apart from these there are what Dixon and Jenkins call 'mediating variables'.

- ❖ Number of occurrences. The more often an unknown word appears the greater the chance of guessing and learning it.

- ❖ Proximity of recurrence. The closer the repetitions the more likely the clues will be integrated.

- ❖ Variability of contexts. The more difficult the context where the word appears the greater the range of clues available.

- ❖ Number of relevant clues. The more clues there are, the easier the guessing.

- ❖ Presence of relevant clues. Some texts have useful clues.

- ❖ Density of unknown words. If many words are close to each other, they will be hard to guess.

- ❖ Importance of the unknown word. The more the word is needed, the more likely the word will be tried to guess.

- ❖ Concrete and abstract ideas. If the ideas in the clues are abstract, they will be hard to guess.

- ❖ Familiarity of the ideas. If the concept is familiar to the learner, the guessing will be easier.

- ❖ Amount of polysemy: (having related meanings). If the word is not polysemous, then the guess is easier.

Learners' success in guessing will change according to the size of their working memory. The size of working memory and success in guessing are related because guessing from context involves integrating information from successfully met clues. Training in guessing helps vocabulary learning because it encourages learners to focus on individual vocabulary items. (See Appendix IV for an example guessing activity)

Steps In the Guessing Process:

Step 1: Decide on the part of speech of the unknown word.

Step 2: Look at the immediate context of the word, and simplify it.

Step 3: Look at the wider context of the word, the relationship with other clauses.

Step 4: Guess

Step 5: Check the guess. Substitute the guess for the unknown word. Look up the word in the dictionary. When learners are trained in guessing the texts, they should work with texts where 95 % of the running words should be familiar to learners. Not all words are guessable. Nouns and verbs are easier to guess but adjectives are difficult.

❖ **The Key Word Method (Using Mnemonics)**

The Keyword method is an aid to memory or a 'mnemonic device' that helps to link a word form and its meaning and to consolidate this linkage in memory. This means remembering a new word in the foreign language by identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or resembles the new word and generating easily recalled images of some relationships with the first language homonym and the new word in the second language. For example, when learning the Maori word *te aroha* (love) the word sounded like the English word *arrow+-er,* so the learner may picture Cupid with a bow and an arrow. Devising keywords takes time and needs training. However, the research evidence shows that there seems to be no other technique that works well (Thornbury 145).

There are three stages in this method. First the learner chooses an L1 or L2 word based on a phonological or orthographic similarity with the target word. Second, a strong association between the target word and the keyword must be constructed so that the learner is reminded immediately of the keyword. Finally, a visual image is constructed, preferably an odd or bizarre image that will help make it more memorable. (Hulstijin 204) Another example which illustrates this method is given by Kasper (1993). The target word is the Spanish word *payaso (clown).* The association between the target word and the keyword is to think of the image of a

clown throwing a pie at a friend (205). This method can be enjoyable while applying in the lessons if learners come up with different, funny ideas.

❖ Vocabulary Notebooks

Another suggestion is keeping vocabulary notebooks. Learners keep a record of the words they learn and draw semantic maps and write word groups. They write sentences and write notes about the words. Learners can learn thirty words per hour. The number of words that are learnt depends on personal ambition.

❖ Collocations

Vocabulary involves knowing the words that co-occur with very high frequency and are important in vocabulary learning as Nattinger notes ' the meaning of a word has a great deal to do with the words with which it commonly associates' (qtd. in Lewis, *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition* 256). If collocational associations are not learnt as part of L2 vocabulary knowledge, vocabulary knowledge cannot be fully attained. For example; native speakers refer to 'spoiled' butter as rancid butter and 'spoiled' milk as sour milk but not as *sour butter* and *rancid milk*. Rancid does not go with other nouns but butter can occur freely with other nouns as *sweet butter, dairy butter, tasty butter, artificial butter*, and so on. Words in a context are more easily learnt than those having no such associations.

❖ Semantic Associations/ Network:

Semantic association is an activity that helps bring into consciousness relationships among words in a text and helps deepen understanding by creating associative networks for words. A text is chosen based on the words to be learned and students are asked to draw a diagram of the relationships between particular words found in the text. A variation on this technique, a 'vocabulary network' could be designed to make semantic associations.

Word association activities can be constructed with lists of words that are to be learnt such as;

Cough	Blue
Grass	Pepper
Red	Tea
Salt	Kitten
Puppy	Sneeze
Coffee	Green

Students are asked to draw lines from words on the left to the most closely related ones on the right (Decarrica 288).

The words are clustered according to certain semantic features they have in common. Teachers can exploit these characteristics of restricted collocational clusters by presenting them in contexts in which they occur naturally. Classroom activities should be designed for this purpose. For vocabulary instruction in the earlier stages some researchers recommend that collocations not be included at all. They represent a more advanced type of word knowledge that they should be left to higher-level students. (See the examples in Appendix IV).

❖ Idioms

Idioms are multiword units that are completely fixed. The combination of words has the unitary meaning as in this example; *blow one's mind* have the meaning of *astonish*. These are troublesome to learners since learners cannot guess the meanings that make them up. Idioms should not be ignored in vocabulary teaching.

❖ Note-taking

Writing down the main idea, or summary of information presented orally or in writing are examples of this strategy.

❖ Word Cards

Apart from the keyword technique, there is no vocabulary technique more rewarding than the use of word cards. It is in fact more effective than the keyword method since there are some learners who find 'imaging' difficult, but all learners can be trained to prepare and use sets of word cards.

A learner writes a word on one side of a small card and its translation in the mother tongue on the other side. Depending on the difficulty, a full set of cards in one time should consist of 20-50 cards.

Learners test themselves on the words by first recalling from the memory and checking. As all these words are learnt, new cards should be made.

```
┌──────────────────┐      ┌──────────────┐      ┌──────────────┐      ┌──────────────────┐
│  Front of a card │◄─────│   Te aroha   │      │     Love     │─────►│   Back of a card │
└──────────────────┘      └──────────────┘      └──────────────┘      └──────────────────┘
```
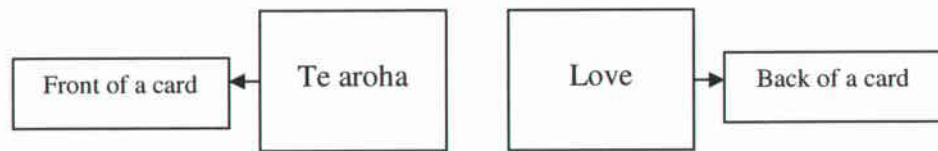
❖ Rote-rehearsal (Spaced practice)

This leads to better long-term recall. Long periods of study are less helpful to foreign language learners for long-term retention than shorter but instead more frequent study periods are more effective.

❖ Repeating aloud and silently

Repeating the new word aloud makes the learner learn the correct pronunciation and remember the word in context.

❖ Word-parts

Most of the content words of English can change their form by adding prefixes or suffixes. These affixes are divided into two types: inflectional and derivational. The inflectional affixes are all suffixes. They include plural –s, -ed, -ing, -s possessive, -s (third person singular), etc. Inflections do not change the part of speech of the word. Derivational affixes include prefixes and suffixes. Most of them change the part of speech of the word they are added to such as *happy* (adjective)-*happiness* (noun). Researchers on the growth of vocabulary expresses three ways to increase the learners' vocabulary: through being taught or deliberately learning new words, through learning new words by gaining control of prefixes, suffixes and other building devices.

❖ Grouping

This means classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their meaning or attributes. If the material to be memorised is organised, learners can greatly benefit. Learners may group the words by color, size, function, likes/dislikes, good, bad that makes sense.

❖ Deduction

This means consciously applying rules to produce or understanding the second language.

❖ Recombination

This means constructing a meaningful sentence by combining known elements in a new way.

❖ Imagery

This means relating new information to visual concepts in memory or familiar easily retrievable visualisations, or locations.

❖ Auditory Representation

This means retention of the sound or similar sound for a word, phrase or longer language sequence and planning back in one's mind the sound of a word, phrase, or longer language sequence.

❖ Contextualization

This involves placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence.

❖ Elaboration

Learners may relate new words to other words that they know and relate different parts of new information to each other, or making meaningful personal associations with the new information.

❖ Language

This means using previously acquired linguistic and\or conceptual knowledge to facilitate a new language- learning task.

❖ Interference

This means using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information.

❖ Social-affective Cooperation

This means working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity.

❖ **Question for Clarification**

Asking a teacher or other native speaker for repetition, paraphrases, explanation and /or examples make learners' mind clear.

❖ **Finger Method**

A learner may associate each item to be learnt with a finger.

❖ **Visualisation**

Instead of using real pictures, a learner visualises a word he /she wants to remember and this is a more effective way than repeating the word.

❖ **The Narrative Chain**

Learners may link words in a list together into a story. By using the words and associating them with each other learners create a firmer connection between the new words and those already stored in your memory.

❖ **Self- Assessment**

Practical retrieval can improve long-term recall. One can find out what percentage of the material a learner gained. This means checking one's comprehension against a standard.

❖ **Personalisation**

Learners should make an effort to learn words that reflect their own interests and expertise. Since learning many thousands of words is necessary to a competent speaker of the language, learners must find a way to develop a plan for learning new words.

❖ **Review**

Unlike computers, human beings tend to forget over time. One of the keys to successful language study is regular reviewing of previously learnt material.

❖ **Real-Life Practice**

When material learnt in one context is retrieved in another. Participation in real-life communicative situations is essential. Real-life opportunities may be sought to practice what is learnt.

❖ **Extensive Reading**

The incidental learning previously described is based on research into how children learn vocabulary in their native language. It expresses that most part of vocabulary words are learnt gradually through repeated exposures in various contexts. Therefore, direct instruction of vocabulary cannot account for the vast growth of students' knowledge of vocabulary. Considering this logic, foreign language learners who achieve advanced level of English will acquire most of their vocabulary banks through extensive reading rather than formal instruction. Krashen, a leading proponent of extensive reading argues that language learners acquire vocabulary and spelling efficiently by receiving comprehensible input while reading (Coady and Huckin 225).

❖ **Rhyme**

The words that rhyme are easier to learn and remember. Coursebooks show these rhymes and make learners produce their own rhyming pairs such as *rain- pain, flood-blood.*

❖ **Peer Groups**

This means studying and practising in peer groups. Learners gain better through helping each other. It is neither possible nor desirable for learners to use all strategies all the time but they find it useful to vary strategies that seem more appropriate to a given situation. Often individual preferences will determine strategy use.

3.6. VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

3.6.1. Acquisition of Word Meaning

Once learners have acquired the core meaning of a word, then they learn from additional exposure to the target word in context how far the meaning can be extended. Its inflections and derivations can be learnt with minimum effort. Inflections are learnt before derivational suffixes. This is an ongoing process.

What does it mean to know a word?

At the most basic level, knowing a word involves knowing form, meaning and use:

▪ Its form	Spoken	❖ What does the word sound like?
		❖ How is the word pronounced?
	Written	❖ What does the word look like?
		❖ How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	❖ What parts are recognisable in this word?
		❖ What word parts are needed to express the meaning
▪ Its meaning	Form and meaning Concept and referents Associations	❖ What meaning does this word signal? ❖ What is included in the concept? ❖ What other words does this word make us think of?
▪ Its use	Grammatical functions Collocations Constraints	❖ In what patterns does the word occur? ❖ What words or types of words occur with this one? ❖ Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word? ❖ Where, when, how often can we use this word?

It is necessary to distinguish between receptive knowledge and productive knowledge. Receptive carries the idea that language is carried out through listening and speaking. In terms of vocabulary receptive vocabulary use involves perceiving a word while listening or reading and retrieving its meaning. Productive carries the idea that language is produced through speaking and writing. Productive vocabulary use involves expressing a meaning through speaking or writing, retrieving and producing the correct word form.

From the point of receptive knowledge and use, knowing the word 'for example *underdeveloped* means:

1. Being able to recognise the word when it is heard

2. Being familiar with its written form

3. Recognising that it is made of the parts under-, develop-,-ed.

4. Knowing that *underdeveloped* signals a particular meaning

5. Knowing what the word means in the particular concept

6. Knowing the word behind the context which will allow understanding different contexts

7. Knowing that there are related words

8. Being able to recognise that it has been used carefully being able to know that territories and areas are typical collocations.

From the point of view of productive knowledge and use knowing the same word involves:

1. Being able to say it with correct pronunciation

2. Being able to write it with correct spelling

3. Being able to construct it using the right word parts in their appropriate forms

4. Being able to produce the word to express the meaning *underdeveloped*

5. Being able to produce synonyms and opposites

6. Being able to use the word correctly in a sentence

7. Being able to produce words that go with it

8. Being able to use it or not according to the situation (Nation 28).

3.6.2. What to Teach

How many words should be taught at a time? Which ones should be taught? The answer of the first question depends on the factors such as the level of the learners, the learners' familiarity with the words, the difficulty of the items, their teachability and whether words are being learnt for production or recognition only. The number of words taught should not overstretch the capacity of the learners to remember them. A vocabulary presentation should include at least a dozen items. Many researchers advocate that learners should be taught a large productive vocabulary of at least two thousand high frequency words. This is the most

commonly cited initial goal for foreign language learners. This number means 80 % of what we regularly see or hear. A vocabulary of two thousand words goes a long way towards achieving a realistic level of lexical competence. To teach beginners a very large vocabulary is very sensible. The most famous list of high-frequency words is the General Service List of English Words [3](West 1953 qtd. in Nation 11). The high frequency words of the language are so important that teachers and learners should spend considerable time on them. A university level student need to acquire a further one thousand high-frequency words beyond the initial two thousand base plus the strategies to cope with the low-frequency words they encounter.

3.6.3. Teaching Techniques

New words should not be presented in isolation and should not be learnt by simple rote memorisation. Exercises and activities include learning words in word association lists, focussing on highlighted words in texts, and playing vocabulary games. Computer programs that include the sounds of the words as well as illustrative pictures provide opportunity for practice.

Especially at beginning levels, the teaching of word lists through word association techniques has proved to be a useful way to learn a large number of words in a short period and retain them over time. Nation (1990) notes that knowing the word *meaning* and *hopeful* can make the learning of *meaningful* easier. Words are associated in different ways and those associations reflect underlying relationships to similar words and words in a word family are related to each other through having a common base. The words should have a closely related associative link but closely related synonyms and antonyms should be avoided. Research shows that similarities between words can make learning more difficult because of interference or cross-associations. For example students confuse he words *left* and *right*. 25% of similar words taught together are cross- associated. The way to avoid cross-associations in semantic groups is to integrate new words with the old by teaching the most frequent word first rather than less frequent or antonym. (Schmitt 147)

For presenting word families, one way is to introduce such a family with the definitions for each word such as the derivational set *act, action, active, actively,*

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[3] The history of vocabulary control movement which focuses on this list will be mentioned later.

activate, actor. Another way to isolate the word families that occur in a text is by highlighting them so that students can see the relationships. Highlighting passages has the advantage of providing more natural context in which students can trace words through the discourse and observe how the forms change according to discourse function. For example;

> A *conductor* of an orchestra must spend years studying music and must also learn how to *conduct* other musicians so that they can play together. The proper *conduct* of each musician will contribute to the success of the performance. (Decarrico 289)

All teachers recognise that learners forget material easily. This forgetting is a natural fact of learning. A research done by Schmitt showed that most of the forgetting occurred with words that were only known receptively; productive words were much less prone to forgetting. Forgetting can occur also if a word is relatively well known, as when one does not use a second language for a long time. In this case it is called *attrition*. Lexical knowledge is more prone to attrition (129). Vocabulary is made up of individual units rather than a series of rules. It appears that receptive knowledge does not attrite dramatically and when it does it is usually low-frequency words. Learners who know more will lose about the same amount of vocabulary as those who learn less. More proficient learners will lose relatively less of their language knowledge than beginning learners.

When learning new information, most forgetting occurs after the end of the learning session. After that major loss, the rate of forgetting decreases. We can better organise a recycling program. It is critical to have a review session after the learning session. The principle of expanding rehearsal was derived from this insight. "One explicit memory schedule proposes reviews 5-10 minutes after the end of the study program, 24 hours later, 1 week later, 1 month later, and finally 6 months later. In this method the forgetting is minimized" (Russell, 1979, p.149 qtd. in Schmitt 130).

3.6.4. The Place of Memory in Vocabulary Acquisition:

How do learners store and recall learning? Understanding how memory works might help teachers create more effective ways to teach vocabulary and retention of new language items. Brain does not archive information or memories. It creates those on the spot. Different kinds of learning may require different ways to store and recall them. "Any system utilising two or more of the brain's natural memory processes is considered a complex and therefore successful, learning

strategy" (Jensen 203). In one study by Fabiani et al., learners were asked to use either rote or elaborate strategies to memorize words. Those who used rote method had high forgetfulness ratios and a lower recall. Rote method is slow compared to other methods. Learners tend to remember better when there is a trip, musical, disaster or a guest speaker. The reason is that multiple memory systems are activated. If something is worth learning, it is worth remembering. Teachers must prepare activities to activate learners' multiple memory systems (Jensen 204). Multiple memory systems include *Episodic Memory, Semantic Memory, Motor Memory, Contextual Memory, Visual Memory*, and *Kinesthetic Memory*. Episodic Memory is our ability to recall events, what happened in what order, lies in our episodic memory. Semantic Memory allows the brain to attach meaning to words. Motor Memory carries the information required to do things like riding a bike, swimming. It is very powerful memory system. Visual memory involves remembering and recognising images. It is a strong memory system for visual learners. Kinesthetic Memory deals with remembering and recognising feelings and sensations. It may be a strong memory system for kinaesthetic learners. Contextual Memory deals with recalling where one was when a particular event occurred. It is more memorable if it is acquired in a particular or unusual setting and if teachers engage all senses utilising several memory systems.

Learning comes in two basics: short-term (also known as working memory) and long-term memory. The short-term memory has a small storage capacity and simply holds information temporarily usually for a matter of seconds. Retention in short-term memory is not effective if the number of chunks of information exceeds seven. Our mental lexicon is highly organised and efficient and semantic related items are stored together. Word frequency is another factor that affects storage. The most frequently used word is easier to retrieve. Oxford's suggested memory strategies were mentioned before to aid learning. These techniques can be used to greater advantage if the teachers can diagnose learning styles of learners and make them aware of different memory strategies. The importance of promoting a deep level of processing is to transfer information from short-term to long- term memory which has unlimited storage capacity. The more students think about the word the more likely that it will be transferred into long-term memory. What is seen, heard, touched, tasted and smelt is sent to the sensory buffers where it is selected for further

processing or forgotten. It is essential that learners are prepared to select that information they wish to process. Selective attention is a strategy that can help them do this. Elaboration is the basic kind of processing necessary for comprehending and storing information. In order for elaboration to occur, efforts must be made to keep the information in short-term memory. Mnemonic devices are helpful to store processed information. According to the theory of information processing, information that has been comprehended and stored must be easily retrieved when needed. Automatic retrieval of information appropriate for a particular communication task is evidence of acquisition that means the item is fully learnt. Retrieval goes on together with the elaboration process. To store new information, learners must retrieve from long-term memory information that is related to the new input. Cognitive strategies can be used to elicit the prior knowledge.

Meaningful tasks seem to offer best way to vocabulary learning as they rely on students' experiences. More meaningful tasks require learners to analyse and process language more deeply. The main way of doing this is by finding some pre-existing information in the long-term memory to attach the new information to. Old words are already hooked in the mind; relating the new words to them provides a hook to remember them by so they will not be forgotten. Teachers can add variety to the techniques employed in the classroom to recycle vocabulary such as Scrabble, Word bingo, Concentration, Password, Jeopardy. The games are also motivating. Various studies show that learners should be given explicit instruction and practice in the first two to three thousand high-frequency words; beyond this level most low frequency level words will be learnt incidentally. Graded readers will be a good approach to extend learner's vocabulary. For Intermediate students reading authentic texts, meeting a word in different context expands and improves the quality of learning.

3.6.4.1.The Mental Lexicon

The mental lexicon where the information learnt is stored is highly organised and efficient. The words are organised in brain as a dictionary. Storage system should be known in order to be aware of the capacity of brain. In this wonderfully created part of a human being, semantically related items are stored together and items are arranged in a network of association. There are some factors which definitely affect storage. First one is word frequency. Items which occur frequently

are retrieved easily. Another factor is recency of use. Native speakers learn words in order of frequency and in a chronological way. The syllabus should be organised such a way that it will contain associative networks and recency of use. Learners need to practice and revise what they learn otherwise the new data will disappear. This is called the 'decay theory'. The other notion is 'cue-dependent forgetting'. It claims that information in brain is there but it is difficult to recall it (Gairns and Redman 90). Eighty per cent of the information is lost within twenty-four hours of initial learning. Language teachers should make sure that what has been taught will be transferred to long-term memory.

3.7. THE HISTORY OF TEACHING VOCABULARY

In more than two thousand years of foreign language instruction there have been numerous methodologies. Below are some examples of these methodologies whose approaches on vocabulary teaching are described.

3.7.1. Vocabulary Teaching In Lexical Approach

A lexical approach to language teaching foregrounds vocabulary learning. Some applied linguists take lexis itself as the basis for organising the syllabus or the teaching approach. In the centre of this approach lies the fact that language consists of different kinds of lexical items, the chunks of any language. Lexical items can be individual words, full sentences or institutionalised utterances (Lewis, *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition,* 255). Native speakers have a large repertoire of multi-word items. There are four kinds of lexical items.

Type1: Word Polywords

Type 2: Collocations

Type 3: Institutionalised utterances

Type 4: Sentence frames or heads

Words and Polywords: Words are independent units. Polywords are those that have idiomaticity. (On the other hand, by the way)

Collocations: These are word groups that occur with high frequency. They describe the way individual words co-occur with others. When students record new

vocabulary, they record those words that collocate. For example; the word *rancid* collocate *butter*.

Institutionalised Utterances: They are those chunks of language that are recalled as wholes and they form conversation. These are full sentences and more typical of spoken mode. (If I were you, I would wait.) Such language is the basis of natural language learning. In Lexical Approach de-lexicalised words have an important part to play. For example; I'll give you a ring. The utterance of ' *ll* ', We'll see, that'll do.

Sentence frames or heads: These are written equivalent of institutionalised utterances. (Secondly, thirdly, etc.)

Language is acquired by understanding messages. Within the lexical approach, little importance is given to individual words, less to grammar structures. In contrast, much more time will be devoted to ensuring that learners are aware of the lexical items, particularly collocations, which carry much of the meaning in a written text, institutionalised utterances, which carry out the meaning of spoken text. Learners should be aware of the chunks that carry the meaning of spoken text. Many activities to reinforce chunks will be of awarereness-raising kind. (See Appendix V on the practices of the activities).

Lexical competence is the central part of communicative competence. Lewis, who first coined the lexical approach, offers a different kind of second language teaching. His implications are as follows;

❖ Early emphasis on receptive skills, especially listening is essential

❖ De-contextualised vocabulary learning is a strategy.

❖ Pedogogical chunking should be a frequent strategy.

❖ Non-linear recording forms are intrinsic to this approach.

Corpus studies have yielded important insights concerning the nature of lexis. As the studies continue to expand new directions in vocabulary learning and teaching will be taken.

3.7.2. Vocabulary Teaching in Total Physical Response (TPR)

TPR is a method which promotes making use of the immediate classroom and of things that can be brought to the classroom. The aim is to replicate the experience of learning one's mother tongue. A TPR lesson involves the teacher demonstrating actions, using real objects, and getting the learners to perform the similar actions in response to commands. Visual aids are used such as, flashcards, wall charts, transparencies on to the board or wall. The use of pictures or objects as prompts for vocabulary teaching can be enhanced if basic principles of memory are taken into account. Another principle underlying effective memorisation is to allow learners to work at their own pace. In this way they can form associations and think of mnemonic devices that are relevant and appropriate to the degree of difficulty the word is causing them.

3.7.3. Vocabulary Teaching in the Communicative Approach (CLT)

Dell Hymes introduced the concept of communicative competence giving greater focus on effective language use. The term communicative competence is defined as "the internalised knowledge of the situational appropriateness of language (Hymes, 1972 qtd. in Zimmerman 12). The focus in language teaching changed to communicative proficiency rather than the application of structures. This method makes communicative competence the goal of language teaching and to develop syllabus for the teaching of the four language skills that reinforces communication. This method aims at bringing learners into closer contact with the target language and promoting fluency over accuracy. Wilkins believes that knowledge of a language requires mastery of its vocabulary as well as its grammar. He thinks that the learner must experience enough exposure to the language. American linguist Anthony suggests addressing words in their cultural context by focussing on discourse and providing learners opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting and using the language as it is used by native speakers (qtd. in Zimmerman 12). Vocabulary development occurs naturally in L1 through contextualized language.

3.7.4. The Vocabulary Control Movement

The lexical research was eager to systemize the selection of vocabulary because it wanted to make vocabulary easier by limiting it to some degree. There were two approaches. The first attempted to limit English vocabulary to the

minimum necessary for the clear statement of ideas. C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards developed a vocabulary with only 850 words known as the Basic English. The second (more successful) approach was to use a criterion to select the most useful words for language learning. A list was developed and word frequency was an important criterion for the selection of words. This list ended up having two thousand words and was finally published as the GENERAL SERVICE LIST, which was mentioned before. Along with this movement a great deal of vocabulary research has been carried out, such as VLS, the nature of memory, word associations (West, 1953, p.84 qtd. in Schmitt 16).

3.8. The Role And The Responsibility Of The Teacher For Promoting Autonomy

Teachers are traditionally expected to be viewed as authority figures, and they are also known to have roles like instructor, director, manager, judge, leader, evaluator, controller, even doctor who must 'cure' the ignorance of the students (Oxford *Language Learning Strategies* 10). These roles put all these communication to go through the teacher. The new roles are facilitator, helper, guide, consultant, adviser, coordinator, idea person, diagnostician, and co-communicator. The new roles include identifying learners' learning strategies, and employing training on them and helping learners become more independent. These roles make teachers more creative. Their status is not based totally on authority but on the quality of the relationship with learners. When learners take more responsibility, more learning occurs and both teachers and learners feel more successful.

The role of the teacher in strategy instruction has been compared to that of *scaffold*. Scaffolding is a process that enables a child to solve a problem, and achieve a goal (Wenden 111). The teacher scaffolds during strategy by supporting learners' attempts to use the strategy, providing modelling. The teacher removes the modelling as the learners become competent. Learners will reach such a level that they will independently apply the strategy. Motivation is a concern of teachers to promote learner autonomy.

In vocabulary learning teachers should accept that learners have different needs and they must assume some of the responsibility for defining those needs and

the vocabulary that will be relevant to those needs. In other words, teachers should allow the learners more autonomy in lexis-decision making.

3.9. The Learner Autonomy

One of the leading goals of the research on LLS is an autonomous learner. It is intended that learners become not only efficient at learning and using their foreign language but also more capable of directing their progress. Research on self-directed learning began with Houle's exploratory study of the self-educating person and the survey of Johnstone and Rivera (Brown 8). Knowles' definition of self-direction is; "In its broadest meaning, self-directed learning describes a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies" (Brown 11).

Language is too complex and varied that not everything can be taught in class. To compensate the limits of classroom time, learners need to develop their own learning strategies so that they become autonomous learners. Teachers sometimes encounter passive or active resistance if they attempt to impose self-directed learning. Some learners will be more successful than others as autonomous learners because of their learning styles. The more enthusiastic learners spent more time learning on their own and felt confident that they will continue learning on their own. The less enthusiastic learners spent less time in self-study and suffered from self-esteem.

Together with the training in the use of strategies, the fostering of learner autonomy will require that learners become critically reflective of the conceptual context of their learning. Learners need to learn to believe in their capacity to learn and manage their learning and to be willing to take more responsibility in the process of learning. According to certain research done to identify the characteristics of autonomous language learners, it is seen that successful, intelligent learners have learnt how to learn better. The literature argued for the need to provide learner training in LLS so that learners will become more independent. Autonomous learners take control and responsibility for their own learning. It is the learner who does the learning no matter what the teacher does. The more learners are aware of how learning is best carried out, the better learning is achieved. Metacognitive

knowledge, strategies are learning plans to develop learner autonomy. Teachers should teach their learners how to build up their knowledge.

There are factors which autonomy relies on. Nation explains these such as(394);

1. Attitude: is the need for the learner to be willing to take control of. Moir (1996) found that although vocabulary learners knew what they should do, they were reluctant to make changes in learning styles. The past behaviour, the present pressures, the influence of teacher demands prevent the wish to take control of their learning.

2. Awareness: is the need for the learner to be conscious of reflecting on the effects of the approaches being taken, consider the others. The autonomous learners should have metacognitive awareness.

3. Capability: is the need for the learner to possess the skills and the knowledge to be autonomous.

An autonomous learner reflects on the previously mentioned eight principles of vocabulary, on the basis of experience and he/she confirms these principles, modifies or adds to them.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

4.1. Research Questions

The purpose of this research is to answer the following research questions. The research questions centre on gathering information about learners and teachers' strategy use and highlight the necessity of strategy training in EFL classes.

1. Are learners and teachers aware of VLS? and are they using enough VLS?

2. Is VLS training necessary in learners' learning process?

3. What are the most useful VLS do Turkish students from different levels use?

4. What strategies do teachers of English believe the most useful and the least useful?

5. How can a vocabulary component of a language course be designed?

   Two data-collection instruments were used.

   1. A self-report questionnaire for learners on vocabulary learning strategy use.

   2. A teacher version of the questionnaire

The answers to research questions will be given according to the data gathered from the applied questionnaires on VLS use of learners of foreign language and it was expected that in answer to the second question VLS training is very necessary because learners are not quite aware of VLS due to its being a difficult area and teachers do not pay attention to different VLS due to their habitual way of teaching vocabulary. Teachers and learners are not using enough VLS so instruction

in vocabulary teaching is quite essential. The questionnaire applied will prove that the assumption is true. Out of the data gathered from the questionnaires will show that there is a strong need for VLS training to learners of foreign language. According to the results it was expected that learners definitely need direction in vocabulary learning and whenever they face unknown words in a different context they will tackle the difficulty because they will be supported with enough information about VLS. The training in VLS should be integrated to language lessons thinking of the goals of vocabulary teaching and procedures in vocabulary teaching. Application of these will form a better vocabulary course harmonized with language lessons.

4.2. Subjects

The subjects of the study were classes of Turkish learners of English with higher level of English especially 'A' groups of foundation universities' preparatory students and a private college ('A' group equals to Intermediate level of English) and Pre-Intermediate and Elementary level students and also teachers of English in a private college and foundation universities during the 2004 Fall semester. The reason why teachers were also chosen as target group is that they are the ones who will apply VLS in their instruction. Age group in learners ranges from 14 to 21 at the time of the research and in teachers it ranges from 23 to 58. University preparatory students were studying one year of English and their level was chosen to be the highest in the department so that they will understand the questions in English. Therefore, the learners' level of English, age, and institution were controlled in this study. The views of teachers of English with different age, experience, and institution were gathered in a form of questionnaire to find out teachers' preferences in teaching VLS.

4.3. Data Collection

Two questionnaires were used to find learners' and teachers' use of strategies. One was learner version, which contained statements concerning vocabulary strategy use, and the other was teacher version, which also contained parallel statements related to teaching vocabulary. All the questions were collected and counted. The total numbers who agreed, totally agreed, disagreed or totally disagreed were calculated and the final figures were shown in graphs and finally put into the tables.

4.3.1. Questionnaire

1. Learner self-report questionnaire- the SILL

The questionnaire for learners was adapted from Oxford's Strategy Inventory and it was adapted in three sections. 22 questions were asked to 209 learners under remembering, memorising and reviewing strategies. Each question is planned to demonstrate general taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. It was assumed that the total number of these sections would provide an overall information of VLS of Turkish students under the lights of general LLS of Oxford's six categories mentioned earlier.

    A. Memory strategies

    B. Cognitive strategies

    C. Compensation Strategies

    D. Metacognitive strategies

    E. Affective strategies

    F. Social strategies

One of the main aims of this action research was to identify the VLS of learners. According to the results, the VLS will show if learners apply any VLS in their learning processes and if so which ones they apply the most and the least, if they need any guidance in particular strategies.

2) Teacher questionnaire- a teacher version of the SILL

The teacher version of the SILL contains vocabulary presentation, enhancing, teaching, reinforcing vocabulary teaching strategies.

20 questions were asked to 56 teachers of English. Teachers were requested to give their opinions about their application of vocabulary teaching methods. This questionnaire was prepared by the researcher for this thesis. The researcher proposes that the teachers' knowledge and experience is a useful instrument to add to the field of vocabulary teaching and strategy training.

These numbers of questions were chosen not to make learners and teachers bored while completing the questionnaires. Therefore, learners and teachers would give each item sufficient attention. The questionnaires are included in Appendix IV.

All items are presented on a 5-point scale. 'Agree', 'Totally Agree', 'Disagree', ' Totally Disagree' and 'No Idea'. It seemed prudent to keep the format as simple as possible.

4.4. Procedure

The questionnaires were given in the first semester of 2004-2005 Academic year. No significant problems were identified while students were completing the questionnaire in 20 minutes.

The aims of the research were explained before students answered. 'Tell the truth' and 'take your time' were the two instructions told to the students if they did not understand. They were asked not to write their names. The learners were allowed to ask any questions about anything they did not understand.

4.5. Processing the Data

Data from the questionnaire was entered into a program. Comparisons were made. All replies were counted and Appendix IX shows the result figures. Tables were drawn up to show a total reply. Graphs were analysed to enlighten the statistical figures. Finally, results were drawn from the data to show whether hypothesis was true or to what level true or not true at all.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

5.1. Reliability and Validity

This study is limited with high level prep learners of foundation universities and learners of a private college and teachers working in these institutions in Istanbul. With different English experience the questionnaire was given to 209 learners and 56 teachers having different teaching experiences.The results were believed to be resembling the general attitudes of learners and teaching methods of teachers but the belief that each group has its own features and its own principles was kept in mind and also it was known that the results out of one group might not always be true to reach general judgement. Results, findings and recommendations can only have relevance for that unique setting.

5.2. Results from the Questionnaires

5.2.1. Results from the Learners' Self-Report Questionnaire:

Most of the learners were at Intermediate level of English at the time of the questionnaire. 120 learners were at Intermediate level, 28 of the were at Pre-Intermediate, 46 learners were Elementary and 1 learner reported to be a beginner. The majority of learners (107 out of 209) have experienced English for three years. 25 learners were experiencing English for more than three years. 50 of them reported that they were experiencing the language for 3 months. 6 of them reported that for 1 year they were experiencing English. 3 learners were experiencing English for 2 years. 106 learners were experiencing English for 3 years.Out of the data it is seen that most learners are aware of VLS and they use four important VLS from Oxford's six categories- Cognitive, Memory, Compensation and Metacognitive Strategies. These 22 strategies are listed according to the types of strategies in which the researcher is interested. (See Appendix VII). These 22 strategies were chosen related to the area of vocabulary. Questions were asked if learners agree, totally agree, disagree or totally disagree. Results show that many learners agree with most of the

strategies. Out of 22 questions there are certainly some strategies which are used the least and some strategies which are mostly agreed to be used.

Table 5.1. The Least Used Vocabulary Learning Strategies By The Learners

STATEMENTS

3.	I tend to associate the sound of the word with the sound of a similar word.
5.	I sometimes learn new words by listing it along with other words related to it by topic.
16.	I use rhyming to remember the new word.
17.	I use flashcards to remember the new word.
19.	I use familiar words in different combinations to make new sentences.
20.	I often make an effort to use idiomatic expressions in the new language

Table 5.2. The Most Used Vocabulary Learning Strategies By The Learners

STATEMENTS

1.	To learn words I pay attention to the structure of part or all of it.
2.	I usually try to identify the meaning of a part or several parts of a word.
4.	I often make a mental image of words whose meanings can be depicted.
6.	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new in English
7.	I make guesses to understand unfamiliar words.
8.	I think of relationships between what I know and the new words I have learnt in English
10.	I go back periodically to refresh my memory of words I have learnt earlier.
12.	I say or write new words several times.
13.	I remind myself of a word meaning by first thinking of meaningful parts of the word.(e.g. the prefix or the suffix)
14.	I sometimes try to remember the situation in which I first heard or saw the word where the word was located on the page, on the board.
15.	I try out words just learnt in order to see if they work for me.
18.	I remember a new word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
21.	I sometimes try to visualise the spelling of the new word in my mind.
22.	I connect the sound of a new word with an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.

Below there are tables to show that these strategies are mostly preferred among the other strategies.

Table 5.3

1. TO LEARN WORDS I PAY ATTENTION TO THE STRUCTURE OF PART OR ALL OF IT

1.AGREE 2. TOTALLY AGREE 3.DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY DISAGREE
5. NO IDEA
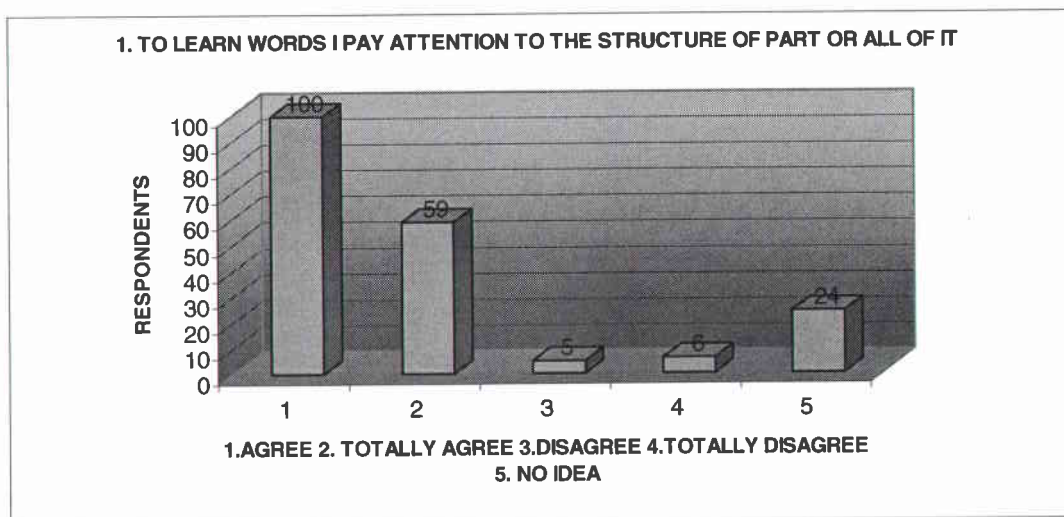
This strategy is used by many learners according to the data. There are some learners who disagree or totally disagree and also some who have no idea at all. It shows that most learners are aware of word parts, affixes and part of speech of words. This skill of learners helps them guess any words that they may not know. Teachers should train their learners more about this strategy in order to make other learners gain confidence in guessing and learning vocabulary. If the learners are trained about it, there will be more learners who will answer in the 'agree' or 'totally agree' section of the column.

Table 5.4

2. I USUALLY TRY TO IDENTIFY THE MEANING OF A PART OR SEVERAL PARTS OF A NEW WORD

1.AGREE 2.TOTALLY AGREE 3. DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY
DISAGREE 5.NO IDEA
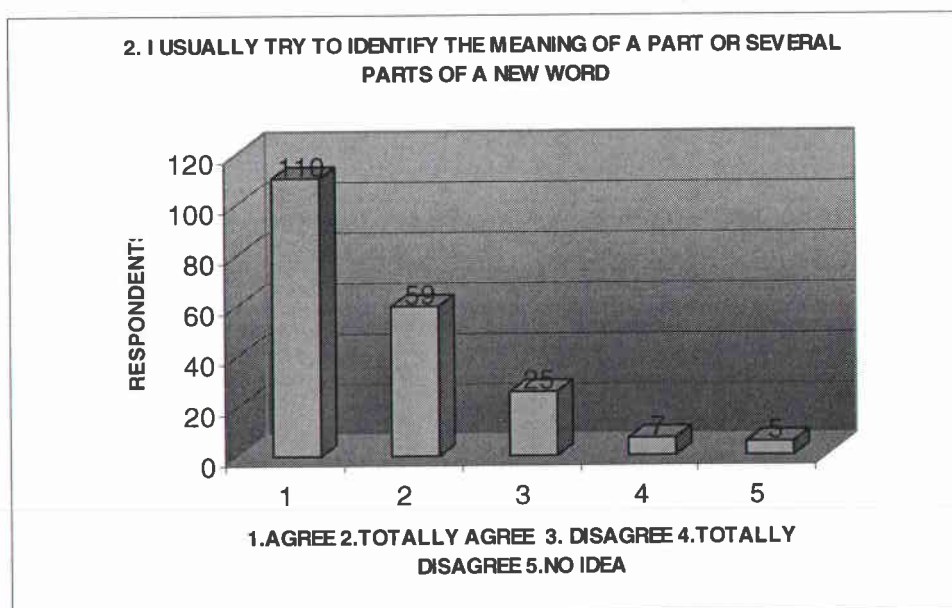
This strategy is used by most of the learners. To get the meaning of words is a determining strategy. The learners are aware of it and use it mostly. The ways of determining meanings should be taught to learners in order to make them more aware of vocabulary learning. Guessing from context, from L1 cognate, dictionary use should be taught in detail.

Table 5.5

7. I MAKE GUESSES TO UNDERSTAND UNFAMILIAR WORDS

1.AGREE 2.TOTALLY AGREE 3.DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY DISAGREE 5.NO IDEA
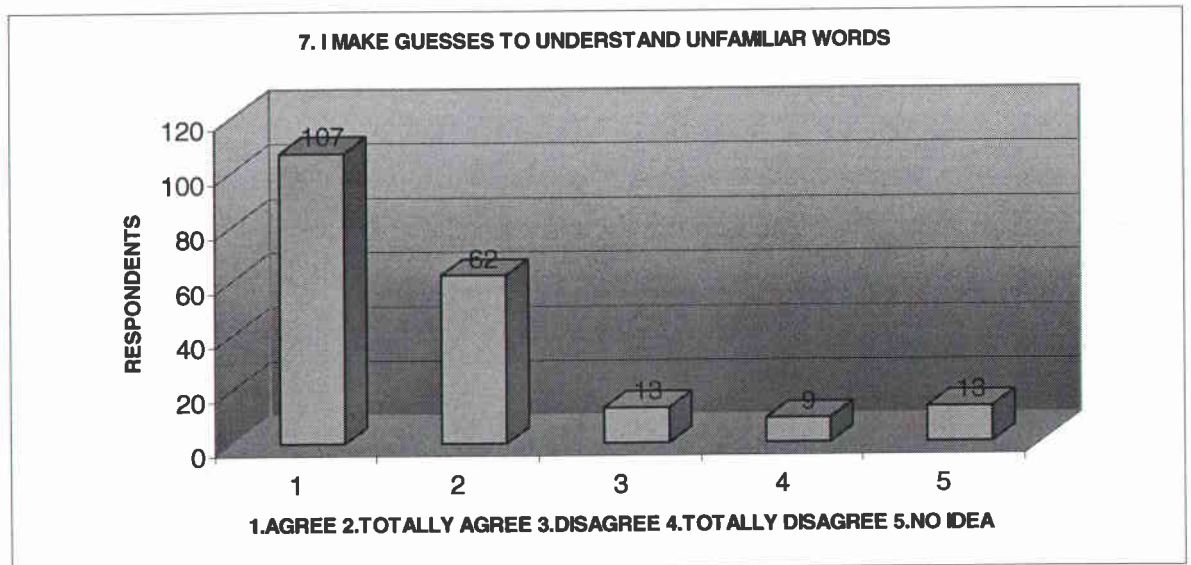
Guessing strategy is very important to get the meaning out of the context. It is one of the most essential compensation strategies. It is a determining strategy category also. If learners are aware of this strategy they make up for an inadequate vocabulary. Most learners report to use this strategy which is quite successful. If more learners are trained in this strategy, more learners will be able to increase their comprehension and vocabulary.

Table 5.6.

8- I THINK OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN WHAT I KNOW AND THE NEW WORDS I LEARN IN ENGLISH

(RESPONDENT: values — 1: 91, 2: 41, 3: 35, 4: 14, 5: 24)

1.AGREE 2.TOTALLY AGREE 3.DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY DISAGREE 5.NO IDEA
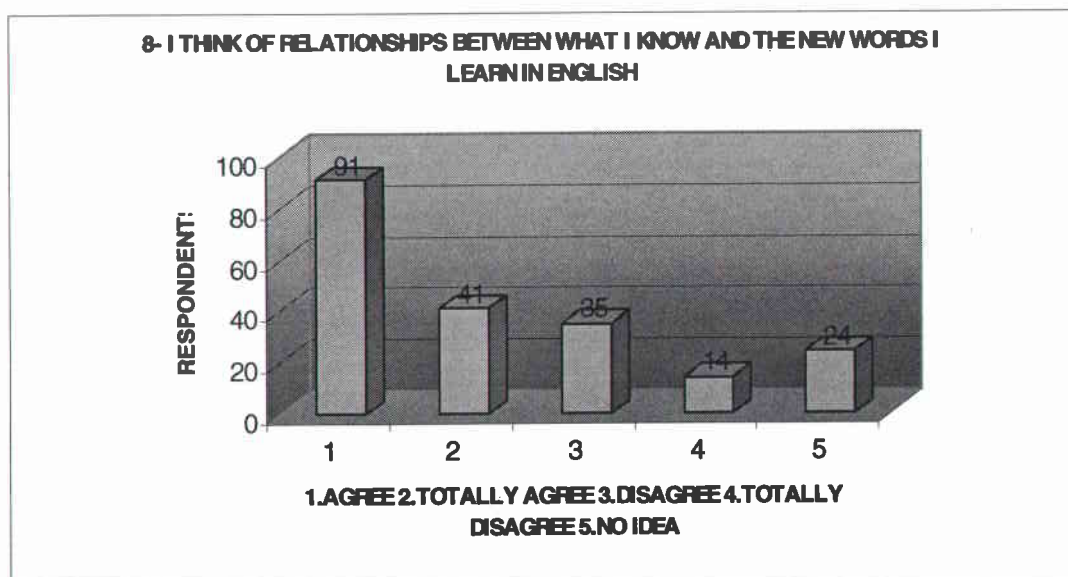
This vocabulary strategy is called *Elaboration*. Learners relate new information to the old in memory to make associations with the new information. This is a memory strategy which makes the material easy to remember. Making associations is preferred by most of the learners. Quite a small number of learners disagree with this strategy due to its not being used by those learners or lack of knowledge. If those learners are trained about this, vocabulary learnt will be remembered easily. The aim is to make learners recall as many words as possible and make them reach proficiency level.

Table 5.7.

10. I GO BACK PERIODICALLY TO REFRESH MY MEMORY OF WORDS I HAVE LEARNT EARLIER

RESPONDENT:

66 50 56 20 10

1 2 3 4 5

1.AGREE 2. TOTALLY AGREE 3.DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY DISAGREE 5.NO IDEA
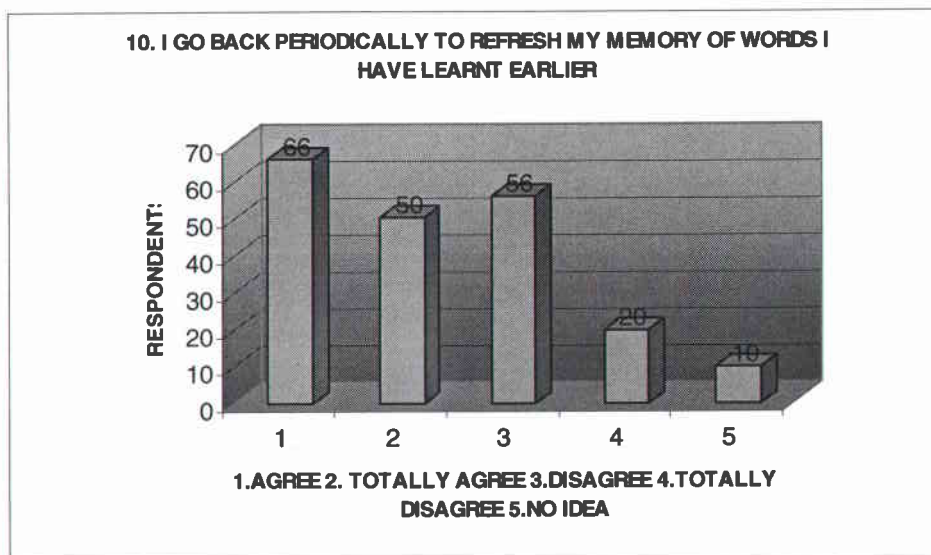
It is seen that quite a number of learners are applying this strategy. This shows that the more motivated learners are the more time they spend in studying after the lessons. On the other hand, quite a number of learners disagree with this strategy. This shows a lack of practice in learners' learning process. This also shows that those learners do not pay attention in learning vocabulary receptively or productively.

Table 5.8

4. I OFTEN MAKE A MENTAL IMAGE OF WORDS WHOSE MEANINGS CAN BE DEPICTED

RESPONDENT:

100 50 0

64 51 45 24 21

1 2 3 4 5

1.AGREE 2.TOTALLY AGREE 3.DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY DISAGREE 5.NO IDEA
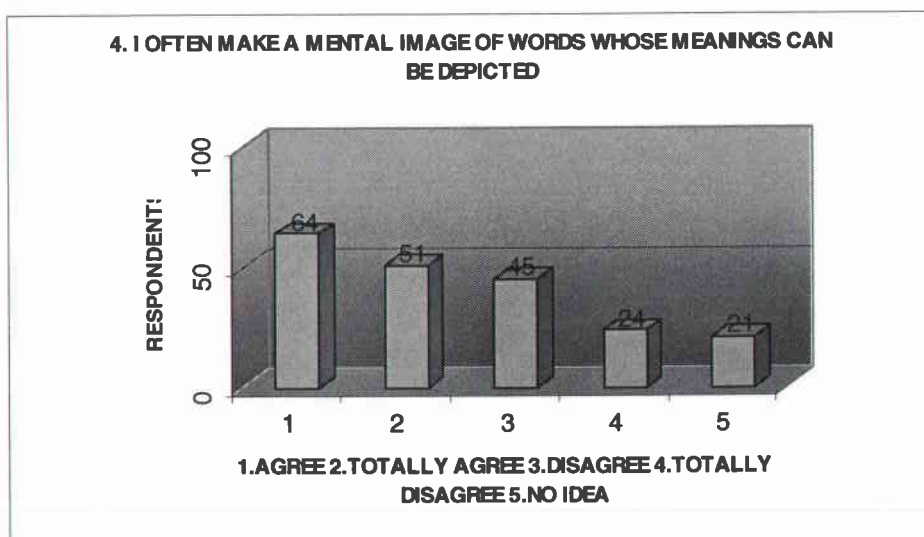
This strategy is called *the Key Method* as mentioned in the review of Literature. This method seems to be accepted among learners but still there are many learners who do not agree to use this method. The teachers must present this technique very well so that learners will be able to use it without teachers' support.

These results are not without limitations. These results could depend upon how the learners interpret the whole questionnaire format. The problem with such a large sample of data means that only a general overall view is given. It shows which strategies are possibly preferred but individual learner's strategy use is hidden. A smaller sample of learners would be better for the search of VLS.

As a result of the findings, learners report to use mostly memory and cognitive strategies. They should be directed in other strategies as well, such as metacognitive, social and affective strategies which should be related to vocabulary. Different tasks need different strategies so they should have control of most helpful strategies for their future language experience.

5.2.2. Results From The Teachers' Questionnaire

Out of 56 teachers 50 of them were non-native and three of them were native teachers. Three teachers did not answer due to forgetting or out of rush or not paying attention. This research indicates the strategies most non-native teachers of English use. The strategy use of native teachers of English can be another study area for further research. The level at which teachers are teaching varies. 10 teachers are teaching mostly to Pre-Intermediate level learners, 9 teachers are teaching Elementary level learners, 4 of them are teaching Beginner, 2 advanced and finally 3 Intermediate. Teachers have different experience varying from 1 year to more than five. 6 teachers have more than five years experience in teaching English as a foreign language. 5 teachers have one year, 5 teachers have 2 years, 4 of them have 3 years, 4 teachers have 4 years and 5 teachers have 5 years experience. 37 teachers are teaching prep learners whereas, 8 teachers are teaching ESP learners.

Among teachers some strategies are used the least. However, pleasingly most of the strategies are used by most of the teachers. The least used strategies are listed in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9

STATEMENTS

2-	I use explanations in the learners' native language
18-	Translation is necessary in teaching vocabulary.

The other strategies are very popular among the teachers and there was a considereble agreement among 56 teachers The strategies in the questionnaire are listed in Appendix VIII according to types of strategy primarily from Oxford's categories of strategies. Teachers rated 18 strategies as totally agreed and agreed. These 18 strategies are listed below.

Table 5.10. The Most Used Vocabulary Teaching Strategics By The Teachers

1.	I try to use real pictures, flashcards while giving a definition of a new word.
3.	I try to give definitions in simple English
4.	I use visual aids while introducing new words like scissors, bottles, etc.
5.	I use games to revise vocabulary that learners have encountered before.
6.	I try to teach learners how to use the dictionary to reinforce learner independence.
7.	I analyse word families, the prefix or the suffix while teaching the new word
8.	I suggest learners to keep vocabulary notebooks for recording new words
9.	I try to teach learners collocations rather than a single word.
10.	I try to teach idioms as much as possible.
11.	I try teach the new words by grouping which can benefit learners.
12.	I focus on pronunciation while presenting a new word.
13.	I believe in contextualisation in teaching new words.
14.	I try to teach learners to make inferences to guess the meaning of a new word.
15.	I try to teach memory strategies (e.g. mnemonic devices) to learners.
16.	I am applying metacognitive strategies (e.g. selective attention, self-regulation,etc.) to reinforce vocabulary.
17.	I am aware of cognitive strategies (e.g.taking notes, reasoning, etc) and I am applying them in vocabulary teaching.
19.	I ask learners to do association network centred on a word.
20.	I provide my learners extensive reading for vocabulary enhancement.

Below there are tables to indicate what teachers do while teaching vocabulary. These techniques were reported to be agreed the most.

Table 5.11.

6. I TRY TO TEACH LEARNERS HOW TO USE THE DICTIONARY

1.AGREE 2.TOTALY AGREE 3.DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY DISAGREE 5.NO IDEA
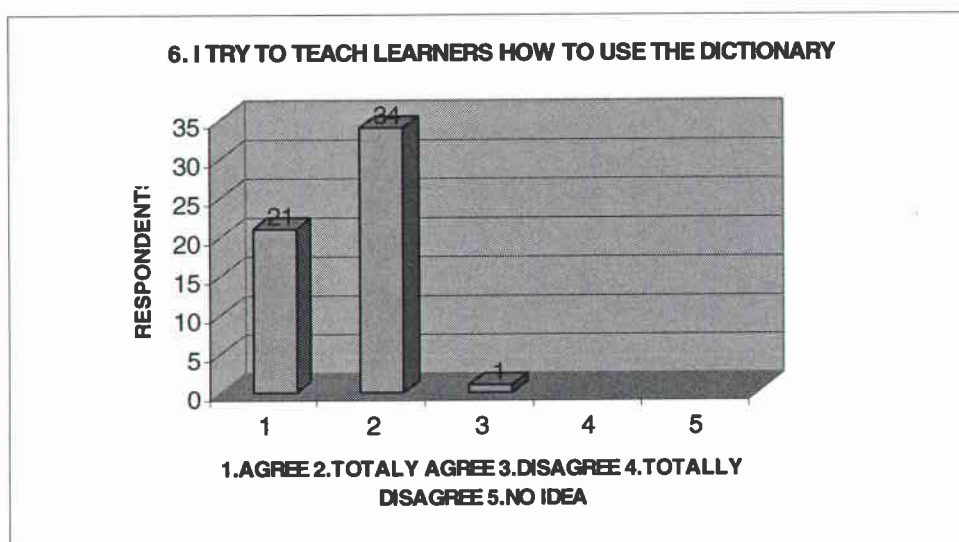
This principle is higly accepted among teachers. Dictionary use strategy is very important to make learners autonomous and find their own way in learning process. It is pleasing that teachers are using this strategy for the benefit of learners. One teacher reported that he or she disagreed with this strategy. The majority of teachers agreed and totally agreed. If teachers are aware of different VLS, strategy training to learners will easily be carried out.

Table 5.12.

7. I ANALYSE WORD FAMILIES, THE PREFIX OR THE SUFFIX WHILE TEACHING THE NEW WORD

1.AGREE 2.TOTALLY AGREE 3.DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY DISAGREE 5.NO IDEA
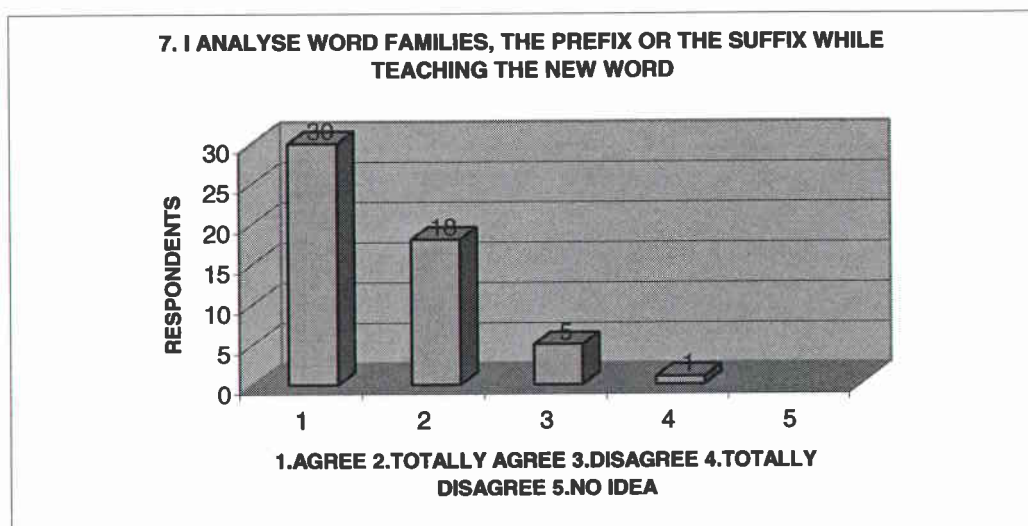
This table shows that teachers are paying attention to word parts while teaching new words. The result indicates that if teachers apply word part strategy training, they should assess this knowledge to see how much learners get out of

training. This strategy is a parallel statement to the statement in the learner version questionnaire. Both learners and teachers are using the same strategy.

Table 5.13.

8. I SUGGEST LEARNERS TO KEEP VOCABULARY NOTEBOOKS FOR RECORDING NEW WORDS

1.AGREE 2.TOTALLY AGREE 3.DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY DISAGREE 5.NO IDEA
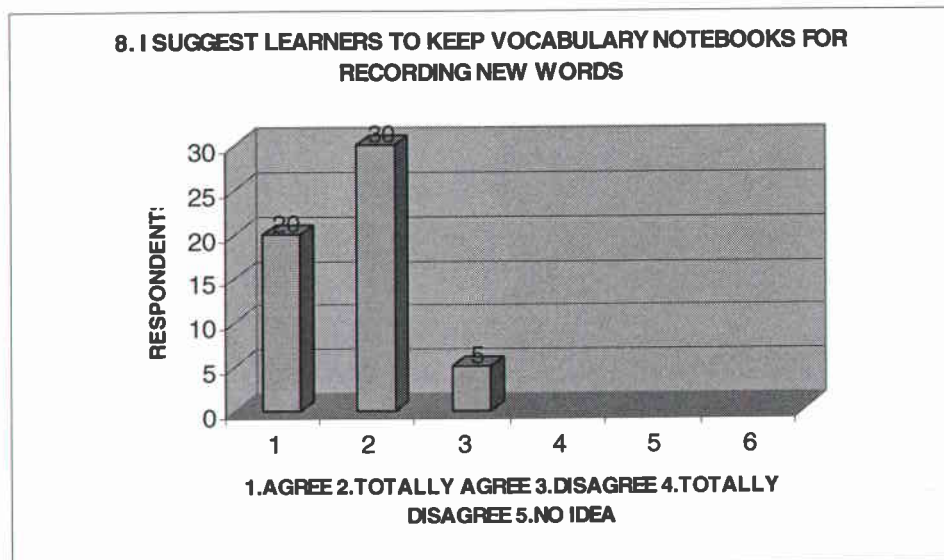
This table shows that most teachers are suggesting vocabulary notebooks to their learners and they believe in its importance. This strategy is an important memory strategy which makes learners revise vocabulary that is learnt. Only 5 teachers disagreed with this strategy. There are no teachers who have no idea and who totally disagree.

Table 5.14.

9. I TRY TO TEACH LEARNERS COLLOCATIONS RATHER THAN A SINGLE WORD

1.AGREE 2.TOTALLY AGREE 3.DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY DISAGREE 5.NO IDEA
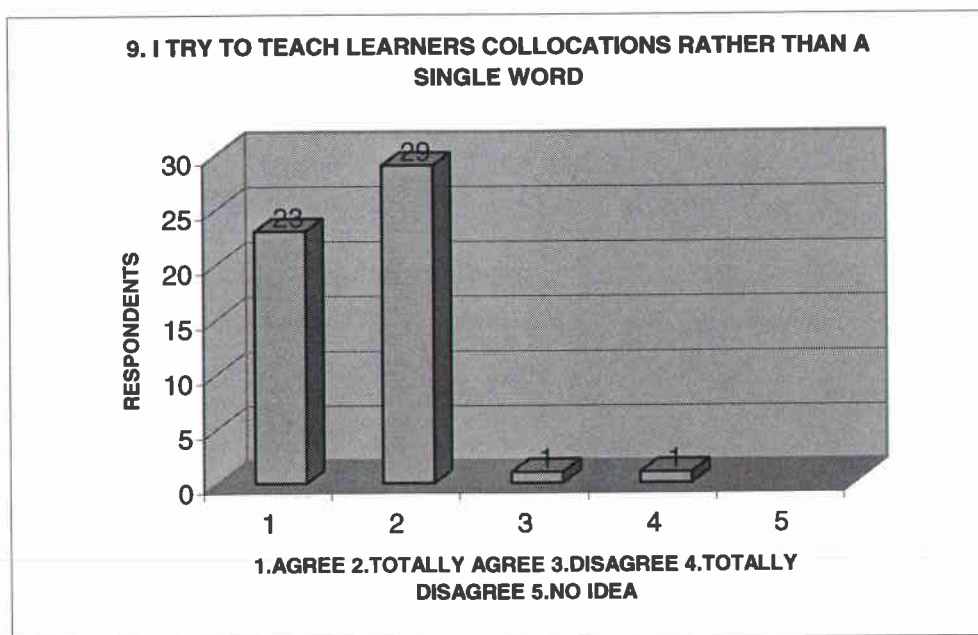
This table shows that teachers are teaching collocations rather than single words. This is essential in teaching vocabulary. Words are used with other words in context. The natural usage of words is a milestone of teaching vocabulary. 2 teachers reported that they disagreed with this statement only. Full word knowledge includes knowing a word's collocations. All fluent and appropriate language use requires collocational knowledge. Many words are used in a set of collocations in English.

Table 5.15.

16-I AM APPLYING METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES TO REINFORCE VOCABULARY

1.AGREE 2.TOTALLY AGREE 3.DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY DISAGREE 5.NO IDEA
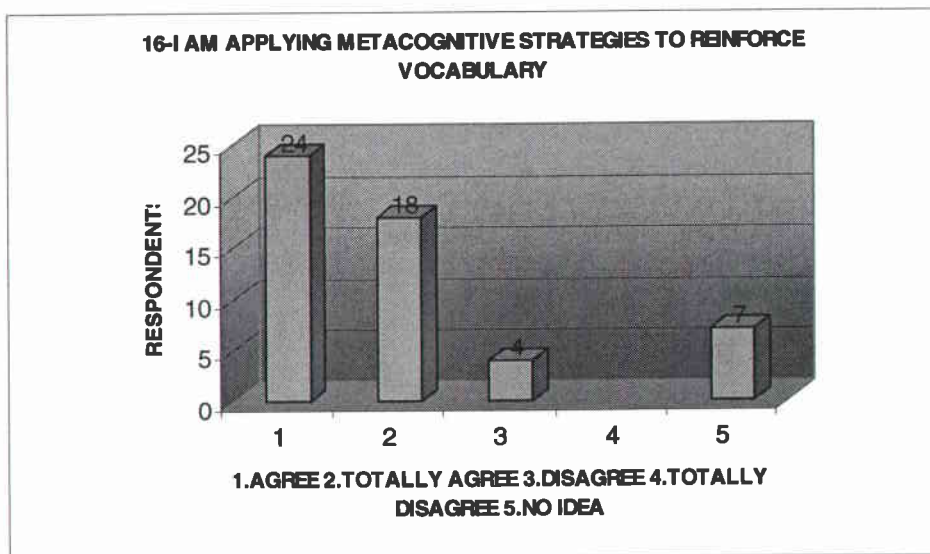
This table proves that teachers are applying metacognitive strategies in their classes. Being aware of metacognitive strategies and applying those in classes will make lessons more enjoyable and both teachers and learners will benefit. Teachers' guide to learners will bring self-reliance on the learners. Metacognitive strategies related to vocabulary will help learners arrange and evaluate their learning and more teachers seem to encourage their learners to regulate their own cognition looking at the graph as a result of the data.

Table 5. 16.

15. I TRY TEACH MEMORY STRATEGIES(MNEMONICS DEVICES)TO LEARNERS

1.AGREE 2.TOTALLY AGREE 3.DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY DISAGRE 5.NO IDEA
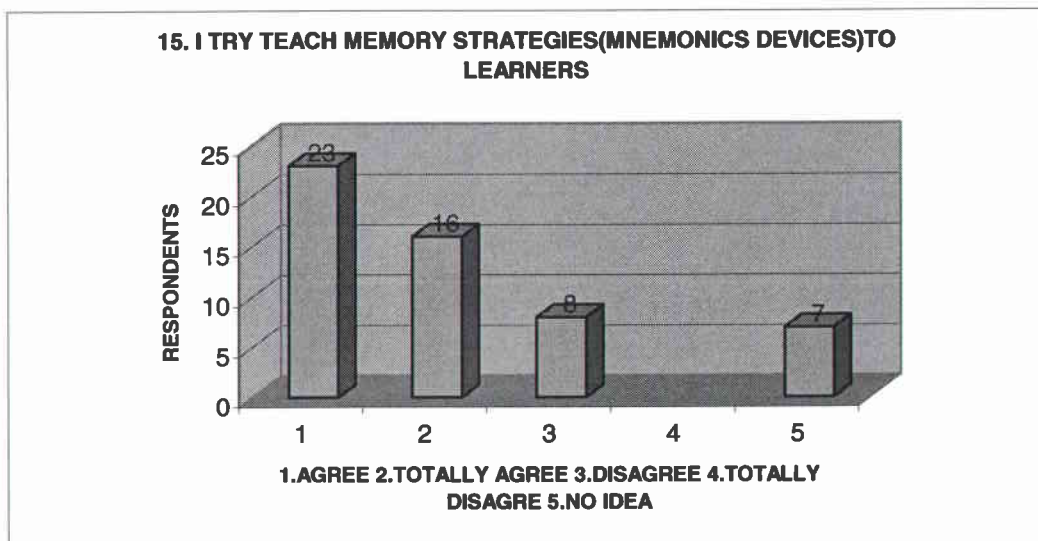
This table shows most teachers are aware of mnemonic devices. These are applied by most of the respondents. Out of the data of learners' questionnaire it is seen that learners are using memory strategies more than the other strategies. This indicates that words that are learnt must be stored well in memory. How to do this is the duty of the teachers. Teachers must pay attention to memory strategies and make learners have control of these strategies.

Table 5.17.

17. I AM AWARE OF COGNITIVE STRATEGIES AND APPLYING THEM IN VOCABULARY TEACHING

1.AGREE 2.TOTALLY AGREE 3.DISAGREE 4.TOTALLY DISAGREE 5.NO IDEA
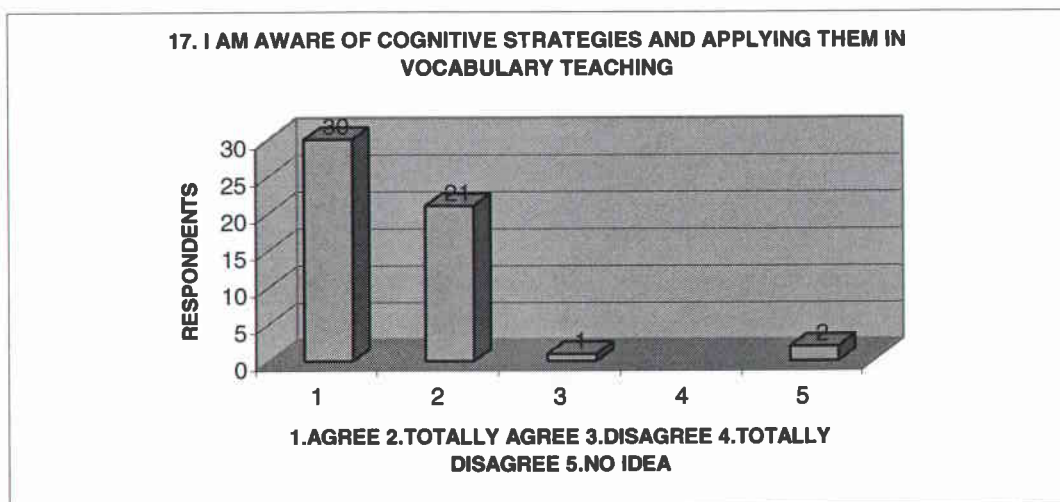
This table shows that teachers are aware of cognitive strategies and using them in their classes. Only 1 teacher disagreed with the statement. 2 teachers reported to have no idea about these strategies. Teachers should learn about these strategies so that they will train their learners accordingly. If teachers are applying these, what fruitful lessons the vocabulary lessons will become.

As a result of these findings it is seen that teachers are using main categories of strategies except translation which is a social strategy. Teachers disagree with this strategy in EFL field. In Additional Comment section, just a few teachers wrote some comment such as; personalizing the words with the learners is important and songs can be used as warmers and recycling activities, visual aids can also be simple sketches on the board which really help to identify the meaning without translation.

The study aimed at answering four research questions. The answer of the third and fourth questions was given out of the data. The answer to the first question was received basing on the charts. This study was important to find that learners and teachers were using VLS. Learners used some strategies less than others such as association, listing, flashcards, rhyming and idiomatic expressions. This can due to the habit and lack of information of learners. The less used strategies may be made popular by arranging different tasks in a training program. Training is definitely necessary in vocabulary classes. The integration of VLS is necessary for proficient learners. Teachers are well informed about VLS and they use a lot of strategies in their EFL classes. Although teachers are from different schools, different background, experience and age, it is seen that VLS are well applied.

The answer to the last question will be given in the last part of this chapter called ' Designing a vocabulary component of a language course'.

5.3. Designing the Vocabulary Component of a Language Course

After discussing important ideas about strategy training in vocabulary acquisition and employing a study on learners' VLS habits, a curriculum design on the vocabulary component should be prepared. The goals of vocabulary component of a course will be to increase learners' usable vocabulary size and to help learners gain effective control of vocabulary learning and coping strategies. 'Usable' means learners will be able to use that vocabulary in language skills of listening, reading, writing, and speaking. Learners will be confident in using appropriate strategies.

In order to set goals, it is important to know whether learners want to focus on academic, high-frequency, or technical words.This is best known using the *Vocabulary Levels Test* or similar test. There are earlier examples of lexically-based syllabuses, *West's New Method Readers* (1960a), and Helen Barnard's (1972) *Advanced English Vocabulary* . These all give importance to vocabulary in syllabus design (Nation 381).

The quickest way to find where learners are in vocabulary development is to test them on vocabulary. *Vocabulary Levels Test* and *Eurocentres Vocabulary Size Test* can indicate whether learners have control of the high-frequency words or not (Nation 381). (See the example of *Vocabulary Level Test* in Appendix X)

The design of a vocabulary course design is made up of the following parts: goals, environment, needs, principles, content and sequencing, format and presentation, monitoring and assessment and evaluation.

Needs analysis should be done by questioning learners on their future plans and their knowledge of strategy. Out of this step,

- ❖ Which type of vocabulary
- ❖ How much of this type of vocabulary needs to be learnt
- ❖ Which strategies need attention
- ❖ Any specialised areas of vocabulary that need focus
- ❖ Knowledge of learners' in vocabulary and their control of strategies may be found out.

Environment analysis involves discovering features of teachers, learners and the teaching and learning situation which may help or hinder learning. For example, if teachers are experienced in teaching and learning vocabulary, and learners are highly motivated, ambitious goals are set by teachers. If learners are not motivated enough, regular vocabulary tests need to be done and the goals need to be discussed.

Time is an important factor in courses. Learners may focus on certain types of learning. The result of environment should be a short list of factors that might affect the design of the course and each factor needs to be followed by how it might affect the course.

Content and sequencing needs certain principles such as deciding what vocabulary to learn and the order in which to learn, training in VLS, giving attention to each vocabulary item, providing opportunities to learn, avoid interference by presenting vocabulary in normal use rather than in groupings of synonyms, opposites, dealing with high-frequency and low frequency vocabulary.

Format and presentation involves the general approach to vocabulary teaching, the selection of learning and teaching techniques and their placement into a lesson plan. There is a place for both incidental and explicit vocabulary learning. Incidental learning should take more place than explicit learning. Contact with language use should be more than decontextualised activities. The most important principle here is that format and presentation should occur following meaning-focused learning, meaning-focused output and fluency development. Learning meaning-focused input and output requires 98 % of the running words. This means learners need to know many words to achieve well in a task. A teacher should evaluate the quality of the teaching and learning techniques to make sure that repetition, retrieval, generation and thoughtful processing occur. If they do not, techniques should be replaced or adapted. For the teaching and learning VLS, it is vey important to design syllabuses which include all the essential knowledge about each strategy and provide repetition to make sure that learners have a control of the particular strategy. Variety of techniques will make learners' motivation higher.

Monitoring and Assessment means observing the quality of learning and their progress in learning process. Teachers should know their goal of teaching, what level of vocabulary they should focus on, high or low- frequency words. It is necessary to test learners' control of VLS. Regular tests can help them focus on vocabulary.

Evaluation indicates how well a course functions. There are certain questions which teachers may ask to find if the course has been successful.

- ❖ Does the teacher know what the learners' vocabulary level and needs are?
- ❖ Is the programme focusing on the suitable level of vocabulary?
- ❖ Is the vocabulary sequenced?
- ❖ Are the skills designed to help vocabulary learning?
- ❖ Are there opportunities to develop fluency?
- ❖ Does the presentation of vocabulary help learning?

❖ Are the learners excited about their improvement?

Curriculum design is an ongoing process which may be improved with adaptations.

5.4. Testing Vocabulary Knowledge and Use

It is also possible to distinguish between declarative and procedural knowledge of VLS. Teachers spend a lot of time on helping learners become comfortable with strategies such as dictionary use, word part, guessing, mnemonic techniques which are mentioned in detail. Learners may need to change their beliefs, attitudes in order to be autunomous vocabulary learners. When they adopt a vocabulary learning strategy, they may be changing their attitudes, and knowledge as well.

How can declarative and procedural knowledge of a strategy be measured? Is it possible to do so? After training process, automatically evaluation process is followed by. To measure declarative knowledge of a guessing strategy, learners can be tested on their skill of an unknown word in the context, and breaking the word into affixes and stem.To measure procedural knowledge, it is essential to look at the result of strategy use. For example, to test a guessing strategy, multiple-choice items are the alternative. Testing both knowledge of VLS need to be developed in ELT field. Test maker has to consider the purpose of the test, the kind of knowledge it will measure and make the best test if possible.

5.5. Implications for the Teachers

It is worth considering adding VLS component to your vocabulary program. You will not be able to teach all the words learners need. Learners will eventually need to control their own learning. Effective training must be tailored to your particular situation, taking into account age, motivation, proficiency and desires of your learners.

For memorable vocabulary teaching, below are some hints which should not be forgotten in teaching vocabulary.

❖ Present 7(+/-)2 items at a time.

❖ Regularly review.

- ❖ Engage emotions. Get them to say, hear, see, read and act out what is being learnt.

- ❖ Engage all senses utilising several memory systems

- ❖ Present it in a supporting context so that brain makes more associations. This makes data more memorable.

- ❖ Engage both hemispheres, left and right brain.

- ❖ Make it relevant to the learner. The brain is selective about the information it transfers to long term memory. If items are important to the learner the data are more likely to be remembered.

- ❖ Connect to prior knowledge. The more connections there are between the new item and the old, it is easier to remember.

- ❖ Review. Information should be reviewed five times during the first learning and again briefly the following day, the following week and the following month.

- ❖ Teach memory techniques

- ❖ Teach different strategies under different tasks.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

This thesis provided an overview of LLS and VLS by examining their background and summarizing the relevant literature. It also outlined ways that VLS training can be applied and showed some steps for teaching to consider implementing it within their classes. It was noted in the literature review that strategies are teachable. The researcher believes that strategy training is important because an important aspect of teaching is to promote learner awareness and control of effective strategies. Furthermore, the essential aim is to promote learner autonomy through strategy training. A number of researchers have successfully attempted strategy training in the classroom- Wenden(1986), O'Malley(1987), Oxford(1990), Chamot(1993), Nunan(1996), etc., and they make detailed suggestions for strategy training. Learners who can use a wide range of strategies have a greater self-sufficiency and develop as autonomous learners. Learners need independent study outside the classroom.

The researcher began by describing the LLS and their importance. The aim of strategy training and the rationale for strategy training were stated at the beginning of the thesis. In the literature review cognitive theory of learning was mentioned for discussing learning strategies in foreign language acquisition. This theory draws a picture of how information is stored in mental lexicon and suggests that information is stored as either declarative or procedural knowledge. Learning a foreign language is a complex cognitive skill. There is a parallel between learning strategies and cognitive processes. Learning strategies are represented as complex cognitive skills. In the next step the learning strategies were described and categorized. They include metacognitive, cognitive, affective, memory compensation and social strategies. Learner styles and biological differences were explained since they are related to the

field of general learning strategies. Motivation factor was discussed. Without motivation of a learner, success will not be achieved. The list of the attributes of the effective learner was given. Those attributes must be promoted by teachers and must be developed for further studies. Effective learners' features must be explored more in further studies so that teachers might be able to promote those attributes if they are known. Vocabulary learning was explored in detail. The goals of vocabulary learning which were essential in designing a vocabulary component of a course were listed. Explicit and implicit learning were defined so as to guide vocabulary teaching. Both have an important place in vocabulary training. Then strategy training in vocabulary learning was focused on. How to prepare for strategy training and different types of strategy training were explained. Training in strategy choice and planning vocabulary were outlined. General VLS were listed and described in detail. After learning process, acquisition process starts. Vocabulary acquisition was defined including the points about acquisition of words, what to teach, teaching techniques. The place of memory in acquisition process was not forgotten. Afterwards the history of vocabulary teaching was viewed, as it is important to know the background information to follow the recent trends. The role of teacher who leads the learners in training journey was analysed. The learner autonomy, which is the centre of learning, was defined and suggested.

The next step after the review was the method of study. In the method the aims were set. Subjects of the study were defined. Data collection procedures were explained. Procedure and processing the data were mentioned. Results were analysed and the procedure of designing a vocabulary component of a language course was stated.

Vocabulary is always neglected by learners in foreign language study due to its complexity. This study is important because it brought the whole VLS together and training guidelines. Using LLS and VLS training in EFL classes not only encourages learners in their learning but also helps teachers reflect on and improve their teaching. VLS will help learners increase their vocabulary size as well. According to research on LLS and VLS, the deliberate studies of strategies result in gains. When these are supplemented by opportunities to meet and use these words in listening, speaking reading, and writing, the vocabulary programme has a strong

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Below is a diagram of all the strategy system taken from Oxford (16).

DIRECT STRATEGIES

A. Practicing
1. Repeating
2. Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems
3. Recognising and using formulas and patterns
4. Recombining
5. Practicing naturalistically

B. Receiving and sending messages
1. Getting the idea quickly
2. Using resources for receiving and sending messages

I. Cognitive Strategies

C. Analysing and reasoning
1. Reasoning deductively
2. Analysing expressions
3. Analysing contrastively
4. Translating
5. Transferring

D. Creating structure for input and output
1. Taking notes
2. Summarising
3. Highligting

A. Creating mental linkages
1. Grouping
2. Associating
3. Placing new words into a context

B. Applying images and sounds
1. Using imagery
2. Semantic Mapping
3. Using key words
4. Representing sounds in memory

II. Memory strategies

C. Reviewing well
1. Structured reviewing

D. Employing action
1. Using physical response
2. Using mechanical techniques

A. Guessing intelligently	1. Using linguistic clues
	2. Using other clues

III. Compensation strategies

1. Switching to the mother tongue
2. Getting help
3. Using mime or gesture

B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

4. Avoiding communication
5. Selecting the topic
6. Adjusting or approximating the message
7. Coining words
8. Using a circumlocution Or synonym

INDIRECT STRATEGIES

A. Centering your learning
1. Overviewing and linking with already known material
2. Paying attention
3. Delaying speech production to focus on listening

I. Metacognitive Strategies

1. Finding about language learning
2. Organising
3. Setting goals and objectives

B. Arranging and planning your learning

4. Identifying the purpose of a language task
5. Planning for a language task
6. Seeking practice

C. Evaluating your learning
1. Self-monitoring

2. Self-evaluation

	1. Using relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation
A. Centering your learning	2. Using music
	3. Using laughter

II. Affective strategies

	1. Making positive statements
B. Encouraging yourself	2. Taking risks wisely
	3. Rewarding yourself

	1. Listening to your body
	2. Using a checklist
C. Taking your emotional temperature	
	3. Writing a language learning diary
	4. Discussing your feelings with someone else

| A. Asking questions | 1. Asking for clarification or verification |
| | 2. Asking for correction |

III. Social strategies

| | 1. Cooperating with others |
| B. Cooperating with others | 2. Cooperating with proficient users of the new language |

| | 1. Developing cultural understanding |
| C. Empathizing with   others | 2. Becoming aware of others' thoughts |

1.Lists of activities for the Embedded Strategy Game. (Oxford 27)

1. GOOD OLD SHERLOCK- While reading the new language, constantly look for clues to the meaning.

2. BREAK DOWN-Break down into parts any longer words and expressions in the new language that you find overwhelming.

3. MIND IMAGES-When learning a list of words in the new language create a picture in your head of the words and the relationships among them.

4. HELP- When you can not seem to find the word to say in the new language, ask for help from somebody else.

5. SCRABBLE- While playing game of Scrabble in the target language, use a dictionary.

6. SCREETS- Keep a journal of your language learning progress and write down new words and expressions.

2. Strategy Search Game: This game helps participants, teachers or learners determine which LLS are embedded in. This game is a process of matching language tasks with the names of LLS. Each participant gets a list of language tasks and a list of strategy system. The teacher lets each group pick a small number of tasks. Each group comes up with all the relevant strategies for each of the task it has drawn. Groups act out their tasks.

Task Example:

Newspaper: You are a foreign language learner in your second year of study. You are writing a newspaper with your classmates. Your task is to use written pieces of target language information and then to transform that information into articles- news, editorials- and format them into a newspaper. Which LLS do you need to use?

Below there are example tasks on LLS for integration of LLS into classes (Nunan 185-192),

GROUPING

UNIT REVIEW: Word Power

Group these words and phrases from the unit into the categories below.

bus	drive	lack of oxygen
row	river	brilliant sunsets
fatigue	ranch	fear
subway	wildflowers	rowboat
fly	dehydration	fractured ribs
canyon	mule	ship
ocean	plane	ride
museum	imbalance	train
jet lag	dolphin	sadness
terror	cliffs	walk
bicycle	airport	stores
cacti		bighorn sheep

Travel			
Forms of Transportation	Ways to Travel (Verbs)	Things to See on Trips	Possible Problems on Trips
bus			

Reading Workout, © Heinle&Heinle Publishers

INFERENCING

8. **Class Work.** Writers often suggest what they mean rather than stating it directly. Readers must then make inferences, or draw logical conclusions, based on the available information. What inferences can you make about the slave traders and the Ibo people based on the information in the sentences below?

> **READING STRATEGY:**
> *Making Inferences*
> See page 225.

a. While the slave traders were in Africa, they went by the Ibo tribe, and they found eighteen grown people. They fooled them. They told them, "We want you to go to America to work."

What inferences can you make about the slave traders from the information in these sentences?

The slave traders weren't honest.
_____

b. When these people got to St. Simon's Island, they found out that they had been tricked and they were going to be sold as slaves. Then all eighteen of these people agreed together. They all said, "No! Rather than be a slave here in America, we would rather be dead."

What inferences can you make about the people from the Ibo tribe based on the information in these sentences?

_____
_____

Multicultural Workshop - Book 2, © Heinle&Heinle Publishers

APPENDIX IV

Below are examples of guessing and semantic mapping strategies taken from Thornbury (149-158)

GUESSING and SEMANTIC MAPPING

Guessing vocabulary in context

Part A
Look at the sentences below. All the words in *italics* are nonsense words. Work out what those words mean from the context of the sentence. Example:
Tribbet must mean scarf, because it is something you put round your neck when it's cold.

a) It was a very cold day so I put a *tribbet* round my neck.
b) I was so *fliglive* that I drank a whole bottle of Coke.
c) I did three *tralets* yesterday but I failed them all because I hadn't studied enough.
d) I did the exam very *trodly* because I had a headache.
e) I *sarked* very late at work because I overslept.

Part B
In the sentences above decide whether the nonsense words are:
adverbs; verbs (past tense); nouns; adjectives.
Example: *Tribbet must be a noun, because a comes before it.*

from Bell J and Gower R,
Intermediate Matters, Longman

Exercise 6
Read the following text once, and then look carefully at each of the words printed in italics. Remember when looking at each word (if its meaning is unknown to you) that you should decide:

(a) what kind of word it is
(b) what information is given in the sentence or the whole passage which can help you to work out the meaning.

We got in a little blue car heavily decorated with shining *brass* and upholstered in deep red plush: we were the only ones in a car made to take six. As we waited to start, I tried to make myself comfortable on the seats, but they were so high and *vast* that I could only sit on the edge with my legs *dangling* and my hands tightly *clutching* the brass safety *rail* in front: I felt like a pea in a pod (...)
(from *The Only Child* by James Kirkup)

When you have done this, look at the questions which follow and in each case write down from the four choices given, the word which seems closest in meaning to the word quoted from the passage.

1 brass
A cloth   B wood   C paper   D metal
2 vast
A small   B hard   C big   D soft
3 dangling
A running   B hanging   C moving   D standing
(etc.)

from Naylor H and Haggar S, *First Certificate Handbook*, Hulton Educational

---

1 **With another student, put the words below into these different groups.**

1 breakfast food and drink   4 family members
2 numbers   5 continents and countries
3 days of the week   6 interests

tea	father	reading	twenty-five	coffee
ham	Monday	sport	hot chocolate	Sunday
cheese	Europe	music	grandmother	two
baby	sugar	toast	Thursday	films
son	Friday	daughter	Wednesday	seventy
butter	eggs	eight	Australia	brother
Asia	Africa	forty-five	Greece	France

2 **Add other words you know to each group.**

3 **Work with another student. Organise the continents and countries like this:**

post office .... teacher
cinema — (places) — school
restaurant .... student

from Mohamed S and Acklam R,
The Beginners' Choice, Longman

The Application of Lexical Approach

In some ways the exercise types in the lexical approach are like those of standard vocabulary or grammar teaching although the linguistic focus is different. Only a few examples are given below to illustrate the type of practice proposed. Student materials need longer exercises with various examples.

Exercise Type 1

In each of the following, one word does not make a strong word partnership with the word in capitals; which is the odd word?

1. HIGH   season - price- opinion – spirits- house- time- priority
2. MAIN   point - reason- effect – entrance- speed- road- meal- course
3. NEW   experience- job- food – potatoes- baby- situation- year
4. LIGHT green- lunch- rain- entertainment- day- work- traffic

Exercise Type 2

Choose from these words four that make strong word partnerships in business English with each of the verbs below.

bill   presentation   invoice   discount   debt   lunch
deal   calculation   mistake   service   message expenses

PAY   MAKE   GIVE
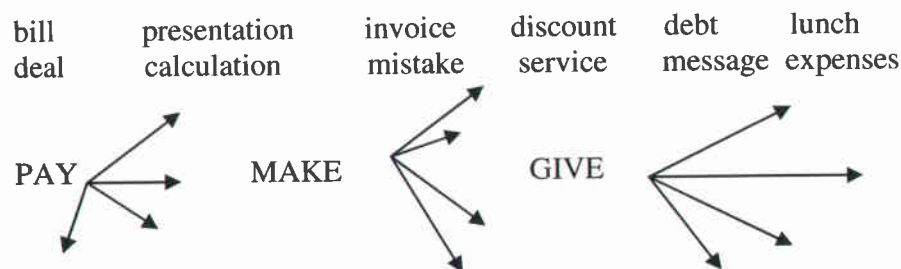
Use some of the word partnerships to say something about your job.

Exercise Type 3

Complete the table with five adjectives and five verbs that form strong partnerships with the noun VISIT.

VERB   ADJECTIVE

_____   _____   (KEY WORD)

_____   _____

_____   _____   VISIT

_____   _____

_____   _____

There are other examples of different types in Coady and Huckin's <u>Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition</u> (261).

APPENDIX VI

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEARNERS TO FIND INFORMATION ABOUT THEIR VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGY

This questionnaire is designed to gather information about how you, as a learner of a foreign language, go about learning that language. Below you will find statements related to learning vocabulary of a new language. Please read each statement and put a (   ) mark in the appropriate box.

Thank you for your contribution.

Age:
Class:
Level: Beginner ( ) Elementary( ) Pre-Intermediate( ) Intermediate ( )

Experience of English Learning: 3 months ( ) 1 Year ( ) 2 years ( ) 3 years ( )

STATEMENTS	AGREE	TOTALLY AGREE	DISAGREE	TOTALLY DISAGREE	NO IDEA
1.To learn words, I usually pay attention to the structure of part or all of it.					
2. I usually try to identify the meaning of a part or several parts of a word.					
3.I tend to associate the sound of the word with the sound of a similar word.					
4. I often make a mental image of words whose meanings can be depicted.					
5. I sometimes learn new words by listing it along with other words related to it by topic.					
6. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.					
7. I make guesses to understand unfamiliar words.					
8. I think of relationships between what I already know and the the new words I have learnt in English.					
9. I review new English words to make sure I know them.					

10. I go back periodically to refresh my memory of words I learnt earlier.					
11. I use the words I know in different ways					
12. I say or write new words several times.					
13. I remind myself of a word meaning by first thinking of meaningful parts of the word.(e.g. the prefix or the suffix.)					
14. I sometimes try to remember the situation in which I first heard or saw the word where the new word was located on the page, on the board.					
15. I try out words just learnt in order to see if they work for me.					
16. I use rhyming to remember the new word.					
17. I use flashcards to remember the new word.					
18. I remember a new word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.					
19. I use familiar words in different combinations to make new sentences.					
20. I often make an effort to use idiomatic expressions in the new language.					
21. I sometimes try visualise the spelling of the new word in my mind.					
22. I connect the sound of a new word with an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.					

(This questionnaire is adapted from Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version for speakers of other languages learning English by Rebecca Oxford, Language Learning Strategies. What Every Teacher Should Know. NY: Newbury House, 1990. 293 and as well as strategies described in A.D.Cohen's Language Learning : Insights for Learning and researchers. NY: Newbury House/ HarperCollins, 1990.)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH ON THE APPLICATION OF VOCABULARY STRATEGIES

This questionnaire is designed to gather information about how you as a teacher of English go about teaching in enchancing learners' vocabulary acquisition. Below you will find statements related to teaching vocabulary. Please read each statement and put (   ) mark in the appropriate box.
Thank you for your contribution.

Age:

1) Native (   )   2) Non-native ( )

Level group mostly taught: Beginner (   ) Elementary (   ) Pre-Intermediate (   ) Intermediate (   )

Advanced (   )

Year of experience in ELT: 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5 [ ] More than 5 [ ]

English Teaching Group: 1) ESP (   ) 2) Prep Students (   )

STATEMENTS	AGREE	TOTALLY AGREE	DISAGREE	TOTALLY DISAGREE	NO IDEA
1. I try to use real pictures, flashcards while giving a definition of a new word					
2. I use explanations in the learners' native language.					
3. I try to give definitions in simple English.					
4. I use visiual aids while introducing new words like scissors, magazines, bottles, etc.					
5. I use games to revise vocabulary that learners have encountered before.					
6.I try to teach learners how to use the dictionary to reinforce learner independence.					
7. I analyse word families, the prefix or the suffix while teaching the new word.					
8.I suggest learners to keep vocabulary notebooks for recording the new words they have learnt.					

9. I try to teach learners collocations rather than a single word.					
10. I try to teach idioms as much as possible.					
11. I try to teach the new words by grouping which can benefit learners.					
12. I focus on pronunciation while presenting a new word.					
13.I believe in contextualisation in teaching new words.					
14. I try to teach learners to make inferences to guess the meaning of a new word.					
15. I try to teach memory strategies (e.g. mnemonic devices) to learners.					
16.I am applying metacognitive strategies(e.g. selective attention, self-monitoring) to reinforce vocabulary.					
17.I am aware of cognitive strategies(e.g.taking notes, reasoning, etc.) and I am applying them in vocabulary teaching.					
18. Translation is necessary in teaching vocabulary.					
19. I ask learners to do association network centred on a word.					
20.I provide my learners extensive reading for vocabulary enhancement.					

ADDITIONAL COMMENT:

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEARNERS SHOWING THE CATEGORIES OF STRATEGIES

STRATEGY	STRATEGY TYPE
STRATEGIES I USE FOR MEMORISING NEW WORDS	
1. To learn words, I usually pay attention to the structure of part or all of it.	B
2. I usually try to identify the meaning of a part or several parts of a word.	B
3. I tend to associate the sound of the word with the sound of a familiar word.	A
4. I often make a mental image of new words whose meanings can be depicted.	A
5. I sometimes learn new words by listing it along with other words related to it by topic	A
6. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	B
7. I make guesses to understand unfamiliar words.	C
STRATEGIES I USE FOR REVIEWING VOCABULARY	
8. I think of relationships between what I know and the new words I have learnt in English.	B
9. I review new English words to make sure 1 know them.	A
10. I go back periodically to refresh my memory of words I learnt earlier.	A
11. I use the words I know in different ways.	D
12. I say or write new words several times.	B
STRATEGIES I USE FOR REMEMBERING VOCABULARY	
13. I remind myself of a word meaning by first thinking of meaningful parts of the word. (prefix of suffix)	B
14. I sometimes try to remember the situation in which I first heard or saw the word or where the new word was located on the page, on the board when I first saw it.	A
15. I try out words learnt in order to see if they work for me.	B
16. I use rhyming to remember it.	B
17. I use flashcards to remember new words.	
18. I remember a new word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	A
19. I use familiar words in diffrent combinations to make new language.	B
20. I often make an effort to use idiomatic expressions in the new langue	B
21. I sometimes try to visualise the spelling of the new word in my mind	A
22. I connect the sound of a new word with an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	A

A. **Memory strategies**

B. **Cognitive strategies**

C. **Compensation Strategies**

D. **Metacognitive strategies**

E. **Affective strategies**

F. **Social strategies**

APPENDIX VIII

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS SHOWING THE CATEGORIES OF STRATEGIES

STATEMENTS	STRATEGY TYPE
1. I try to use real pictures, flashcards while giving a definition of a new word.	A
2. I use explanations in the learners' native language.	B
3. I try to give definitions in simple English	F
4. I use visual aids while introducing new words like scissors, bottles, etc.	A
5. I use games to revise vocabulary that learners have encountered before.	A
6. I try to teach learners how to use the dictionary to reinforce learner independence.	C
7. I analyse word families, the prefix or the suffix while teaching the new word.	C
8. I suggest learners to keep vocabulary notebooks for recording the new words	B
9. I try to teach learners collocations rather than a single word.	A
10. I try to teach idioms as much as possible.	D
11. I try teach the new words by grouping which can bebefit learners.	A
12. I focus on pronunciation while presenting a new word.	C
13. I believe in contextualisation in teaching new words.	C
14. I try to teach learners to make inferences to guess the meaning of a new word.	C
15. I try to teach memory strategies (e.g. mnemonic devices) to learners.	A
16. I am applying metacognitive strategies(e.g. selective attention, self-regulation,etc.) to reinforce vocabulary.	D
17. I am aware of cognitive strategies(e.g. taking notes, reasoning, etc.) and I am applying them in vocabulary teaching.	B
18. Translation is necessary in teaching vocabulary.	F
19.I ask learners to do association network centred on a word.	A
20. I provide my learners extensive reading for vocabulary enhancement.	C

OPTIONS	1	2	3	4	5
INFORMATION	1	46	28	120	
INFORMATION	50	6	3	106	25
STATEMENTS	AGREE	TOTALLY AGREE	DISAGREE	TOTALLY DISAGREE	NO IDEA
1-	100	59	5	6	24
2-	110	59	25	7	5
3-	51	33	63	37	22
4-	64	51	45	24	21
5-	55	32	74	36	8
6-	95	49	32	13	15
7-	107	62	13	9	13
8-	91	41	35	14	24
9-	89	61	39	9	6
10-	66	50	56	20	10
11-	91	65	29	7	12
12-	66	59	42	26	7
13-	92	50	32	7	24
14-	87	54	36	14	16
15-	69	41	48	19	25
16-	56	28	59	38	22
17-	38	31	50	66	17
18-	73	54	50	15	10
19-	81	39	46	21	17
20-	40	28	72	43	22
21-	86	40	34	29	16
22-	61	36	52	34	18

RESULTS FROM THE TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

OPTIONS	1	2	3	4	5	6
INFORMATION	3	50				
INFORMATION	4	9	10	3	2	
INFORMATION	5	5	4	4	4	31
INFORMATION	8	37				
QUESTIONS	AGREE	TOTALLY AGREE	DISAGREE	TOTALLY DISAGREE	NO IDEA	
1-	27	17	6	1	1	
2-	18	10	24	3		
3-	24	29	2	1		
4-	17	25	8	1	3	
5-	21	23	4	2	2	
6-	21	34	1			
7-	30	18	5	1		
8-	20	30	5			
9-	23	29	1	1		
10-	25	15	3		5	
11-	25	20	7		3	
12-	28	22	3		2	
13-	13	39			2	
14-	21	33				
15-	23	16	8		7	
16-	24	18	4		7	
17-	30	21	1		2	
18-	17	5	16	9	2	
19-	27	19	1		7	
20-	23	26	3		1	

1. There has been a recent tr_____among prosperous families towards a smaller number of children.

2. The ar_____of his office is 25 square meters.

3. Phil _____examines the meaning of life.

4. According to the communist doc____, workers should rule the world.

5. Spending many years together deepened their inti_____.

6. He usually read the sport sec_____of the newspaper first.

7. Because of the doctors' strike the cli_____ is closed today.

8. There are several misprints on each page of this te_____.

9. The suspect had both opportunity and mot_____to commit the murder.

10. They insp_____ all products before sending them out to stores.

11. A considerable amount of evidence was accum_____ during the investigation.

12. The victim's shirt was satu_____ with blood.

13. He is irresponsible. You cannot re_____on him for help.

14. It is impossible to eva_____these results without knowing about research methods that were used.

15. He finally att_____a position of power in the company.

16. The story tells us about a crime and subs_____punishment.

17. In a hom_____class all students are of a similar proficiency.

18. The urge to survive is inh_____in all creatures (Nation 427).